



Review

Reentry—A review of the literature

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ABSTRACT

Despite numerous publications on expatriation, the theme of cross-cultural reentry (its course, impact and features) still remains largely neglected and underestimated in the sojourner's transition trajectory. At the same time, available empirical investigations point to a number of substantial concerns, which affect the psychological wellbeing, social readjustment and cultural identity of returning individuals. The significance of these concerns strongly suggests that reentry should become an issue of the highest priority to both sojourning individuals as well as people managing the reentry transitions of travellers. This article attempts to systematize the available reentry literature, its strengths and limitations and strives to provide a tentative agenda for future research.

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1. Introduction

In today's increasingly globalized world, cross-border mobility has become a reality of everyday life. Cross-border resettlement in business, education, leisure or the political setting has been increasing during the last number of decades (Bonache & Brewster, 2001). An increase in cross-border mobility is accompanied by a need for a better understanding of the psychological, social and practical matters associated with the transition. As Magala (2005) argues, the crossing of cultural bridges comes at a price. The challenges associated with sojourns and work in a setting that is culturally dissimilar to the one, in which an individual was socialized, find a very prominent place in the academic literature in fields such as cross-cultural psychology, intercultural communication and international human resource management. Countless numbers of intercultural communication handbooks and cross-cultural management manuals have been published in response to an increased need for easily applicable cultural adaptation strategies. At the same time, the issue of returning home remained largely neglected within the academic community as well as among practitioners managing the cross-border mobility of intercultural sojourners. Regardless of a growing number of articles and books reporting on reentry difficulties, the understanding of the phenomenon has not changed much since 1984, when Judith Martin, in her account of reentry research and practice, stated that the challenges, which arise upon returning home, are largely unexpected. The *Homecomer*, as described by Alfred Schuetz in 1945, is still struggling with the same difficulties of return. At the same time, the intercultural field has not contributed much to the work of drawing together the available research on repatriation.

The following literature review attempts to systematize the existing knowledge on cross-cultural reentry as well as to provide a comprehensive overview of the repatriation phenomenon. More than 150 articles, book chapters, conference papers and other publications have been reviewed. While meta-analysis has become the dominant approach to integrative literature examinations, a more traditional, narrative review will be performed in this paper. This choice was motivated by two concerns. First, the reentry field is greatly fragmented—the studies focus on different aspects of reentry transition and use different definitions of variables. Second, the scientific rigor of the research papers brought together in this review differs considerably. Consequently, as argued by Glass, McGaw and Smith (1981), the interpretation of integrative results of such diversified studies is often meaningless. In order to facilitate an assessment of the studies' scale and methodology, Appendix A provides an overview of all the reentry publications used in this review paper.

In order to systematize the existing body of scholarship, the following review has been divided into three functional parts, according to the three main recurring themes within reentry research. The subsequent sections deal with the *process*, *people* and *practices* of reentry, and comprise a full picture of up-to-date reentry research (Fig. 1).

This paper is structured in the following manner. The first issue discussed in this review is the process of repatriation. Three views on the reentry process will be presented by focusing on the comprehension and structuring of the reentry phenomenon from the perspective of the transformations undergone by individuals during their international sojourns. Second, this review presents an overview of the available writings devoted to different returning groups, their problems and challenges. The third core part of this article looks at the reentry support practices applied in managing the repatriation transition. The final section of this paper provides a number of concerns related to the shortcomings of the currently available reentry literature and brings a number of recommendations for further research.

2. Reentry: process

This section presents a number of reentry theories and models developed for a better understanding of the complexity of the transition. The amount of literature devoted to different streams varies considerably, since some issues have received disproportionate attention from reentry scholars, while others have been neglected. This difference in attention is closely

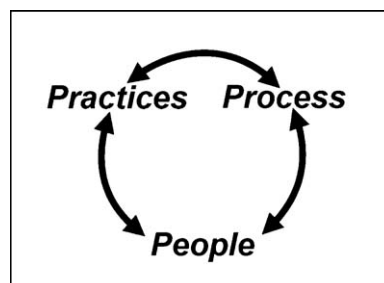


Fig. 1. Process, people, practices—a comprehensive view on reentry.

related to two trends. First of all, different stakeholders have different research priorities. For example, the corporate world is arguably more interested in the productivity and performance of employees, than in the general adjustment of the returning individuals. Second, the initial expatriation move remains unchangeably the core focus in international business. Multinationals, which struggle with premature returns and ineffective performance of their assignees, urge the academic world to find more effective ways of expatriating people internationally. **Consequently, limited empirical investigation is currently directed at exploring the multifaceted process of reentry, leading to fragmentation of the field.**

2.1. Reentry process: theoretical frameworks

Presenting an up-to-date review of reentry theories, I will closely follow the framework proposed by Martin and Harrell (2004) by grouping the theoretical streams into three functional categories: *affective*, *behavioural* and *cognitive*. Such a grouping is consistent with the acculturation (ABC) model introduced by Ward, Bochner, and Furnham (2001), who argue that cultural transition is a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing different aspects of emotion, behaviour and cognition.

2.1.1. Reentry theories–affective aspects

The first category of concerns is the psychological wellbeing of the returning individuals. The reentry transition is conceptualized in terms of the feelings, emotional reactions and mental responses of the repatriate. The most influential writing within this theoretical stream is the work of Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) and their *reverse culture shock* model (called also the *W-curve* theory). This model is a theoretical extension of the U-curve hypothesis, whose authorship is attributed to Lysgaard (1955). Oberg's work (1960) supports the U-curve theory of intercultural adjustment. The author introduces the term "culture shock" in order to describe the experiences related to living in an environment that differs culturally from the settings one grew up in. The U-curve model describes four distinctive phases of an intercultural sojourn: (1) *euphoria*, positive excitement about a new environment; (2) *culture shock* caused by surprising, mostly negative, experiences in a new environment; (3) *acculturation*, the learning process of adaptation to a new environment; and finally, (4) *a stable state*, achieved if the acculturation process is accomplished successfully.

The W-curve is an extension of the above-mentioned model and describes the four previously mentioned elements: euphoria, culture shock, acculturation and the stable state, experienced by a repatriate after his/her return to the home-country. These four stages are accompanied by strong affective responses, which in turn influence repatriates' readjustment to their home-country environment. **Empirical research finds limited support for the W-curve hypothesis. Sussman (2001) questions the curvilinearity of the readjustment process. A similar critique of the model has been voiced by Adler (1981), who argues that the transition is better represented by a flattened U-curve shape. Additional negative assessments of the model can be found in the works of Brislin (1981) and Onwumehili, Nwosu, Jackson and James-Hughes (2003). The latter summarize the available critique, arguing that the model incorrectly assumes the ultimate correspondence between cultural adjustment and readjustment. Additionally, the authors theorize about the specificity of the multiple-re-acculturation processes occurring among intercultural transients (individuals who regularly change their place of residence between their home- and host-countries). They also introduce the concept of cyclical curves, to explain the numerous identity negotiation moments in multiple transitions.**

The psychological consequences of reentry have been extensively documented in the literature. Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall (1992b) report that as many as 70% of the returning individuals experience significant discomforts related to their repatriation. It is even argued that the difficulties experienced upon return can be more psychologically challenging than those of the expatriation phase (Adler, 1981; Baughn, 1995; Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Martin, 1984). The challenge of returning home is related to issues such as the unexpectedness of the difficulties encountered, a lack of preparation for reentry, and grief for the lost expat life. Individuals can display considerable emotional distress as much as six months after their reentry (Furukawa, 1997). Research shows that the magnitude of this distress can reach clinical levels (Sahin, 1990). Chamove and Soeterik (2006) show that the intensity of grief experienced by returnees can even be comparable to that experienced by bereaved individuals. Issues of psychological distress have been widely documented among different returnee groups, e.g. students (Cox, 2006; Gaw, 2000; Raschio, 1987; Sahin, 1990; Thompson & Christofi, 2006; Uehara, 1986), international assignees (Black et al., 1992b; Forster, 1994; Stevens, Oddou, Furuya, Bird, & Mendenhall, 2006) and refugees (Harrell-Bond, 1989; Sundquist & Johansson, 1996). Nevertheless, the academic voices describing the challenges of reentry are not unanimous. Sussman (2007) reports that the migrants returning to Hong Kong did not exhibit the negative affect associated with return migration. **These results indicate a need for more diversified research on affective aspects of reentry transition.**

2.1.2. Reentry theories–cognitive aspects

The second stream of reentry theory focuses on the cognitive aspects of repatriation. Within this stream, two sub-streams that are relevant for understanding reentry transition will be discussed.

2.1.2.1. Expectations Model. The Expectations Model provides a detailed explanation of the confrontation between individuals' **expectations** of reentry and the reality of the transition (Adler, 1981; Black, 1992; Rogers & Ward, 1993). This well documented stream describes the way in which pre-reentry expectations influence the process of re-adaptation to the **home-country environment**. As with the reverse culture shock model, this theory was initially developed to address the expatriation/outbound experiences familiar to the cross-cultural field (e.g. Black & Gregersen, 1990; Caligiuri, Phillips,

Lazarova, Tarique, & Burgi, 2001; Kealey, 1989). However, while outbound difficulties and the need for preparation prior to expatriation were acknowledged relatively quickly by scholars and accepted by travelling sojourners, the discomforts associated with reentry still remain largely unexamined and unexpected (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992a). This is a consequence of the apparently commonsensical assumption that both home-country and home-organization are well known entities and do not need further 'explanation'. A 'reality check', however, often reveals that both the home-environment and the returning individual have changed substantially during the period of intercultural sojourn.

Several empirical investigations on the influence of expectations on the repatriation process have been conducted, but without any consensus in their conclusions (Forster, 1994; Hammer, Hart, & Rogan, 1998; Martin, Bradford, & Rochlich, 1995; Stroh, Gregersen, & Black, 2000; Sussman, 2002). Rogers and Ward (1993) do not observe a direct relationship between realistic expectations and psychological adjustment. On the other hand, MacDonald and Arthur (2003) claim that expectations, which are met or exceeded, lead to a smooth readjustment. In both studies, the samples were too small to allow drawing valid conclusions. Meanwhile, in a job-related context, Stroh, Gregersen and Black (1998) claim that, while met expectations support repatriates' commitment and intention to stay in their home-country organization, exceeded expectations might lead to an even higher dedication to the workplace. Black's (1992) research does not confirm these findings and concludes that accurate expectations result in the highest level of readjustment and job performance. Consequently, Black et al. (1992a) argue that the readjustment process should be made not only after reentry, but, most importantly, it should include cognitive anticipatory adjustment prior to return. This would help in building up a realistic level of expectations. These conclusions are supported by Maybarduk (2008), who shows that returning U.S. Foreign Service spouses, whose reentry experience was more challenging than expected, experienced greater readjustment difficulties. Chamove and Soeterik (2006) similarly argue that distress upon return grows proportionally, if there is less preparation and understanding of the reentry process.

2.1.2.2. Cultural Identity Model. The Cultural Identity Model is a second sub-stream within this cognitively oriented stream of research. Representatives of this course of inquiry look at the identity changes that occur during an international sojourn and after the return. In line with this theoretical notion, one assumes that returning individuals have undergone a profound personal transformation, influencing their cultural identity and sense of belonging.

Sussman (2000) proposes a theoretical model with four types of identity alteration: *subtractive, addictive, affirmative and intercultural*. These identity shifts come as a consequence of behavioural and social adaptations made in the host-country environment, which become salient upon return to the home-country. The reentry process itself and, related to this, an increasing awareness of one's own cultural identity alteration may be a source of distress for those individuals who undergo subtractive (reporting weakened links with the home-country culture during the sojourn) or additive (reporting strengthened links with the host-country) identity shifts. At the same time, individuals, who experience affirmative (reporting strengthened links with the home-country culture during the sojourn) or intercultural/global (reporting a strengthened intercultural worldview during the sojourn) identity shifts, will experience less reentry distress and will have fewer difficulties readjusting. Sussman's (2001) empirical research indicates support for these theoretical assumptions (out of 11 individuals studied during repatriation, 8 reported unchanged or more difficult readjustments during their subsequent reentries). Consequent investigations of the Cultural Identity Model confirm the influence of identity shifts on readjustment processes (Maybarduk, 2008; Sussman, 2002). Yet, this causality is not equally supported among the four identity alteration types (Maybarduk, 2008).

An alternative Cultural Identity Model has been proposed by Cox (2004). Cox presents four patterns of intercultural identity formation (*home-favoured, host-favoured, integrated, and disintegrated*), empirically derived from a study analysing U.S. missionaries returning from international assignments in 44 different countries. In this model, the reentry processes categorized as integrated and home-favoured were related to easier re-adaptation than those categorized as disintegrated and host-favoured. These findings differ from Sussman's model and indicate an adaptation pattern similar to the one proposed by Culture Learning Theory, where a successful host-country adaptation will be related to a successful re-adaptation upon reentry. They also indicate the importance of both sustaining bonds with the home-culture and building new cognitive structures within the host-environment and could be further related to Bennett's research on developing intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 1986; Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2003). In his six-stage Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), Bennett elaborates on an individual's ability to experience cultural differences. In a move from ethnocentric to ethnorelative stages, the model illustrates the importance of expanding one's worldview to include relevant constructs from different cultural points of reference. Consequently, one could hypothesize that adaptation to cultural differences (phase 5 of the DMIS) and a constructive form of integration of cultural differences (phase 6 of the DMIS) would be related to a successful re-adaptation on reentry.

2.1.3. Reentry theories—behavioural aspects

The third stream within reentry research describes the behavioural aspects of repatriation and is derived from Culture Learning Theory (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). While sojourners may undergo profound personal transformation during transition, they also learn and internalize a new spectrum of behavioural responses, which are expected from them in the host-environment. Consequently, some of the home-country learned behaviours are forgotten and replaced by the host-country equivalents. As a result, the returning individuals have to relearn social skills often disregarded during their time abroad and regain familiarity with a set of home-country norms and behaviours. Black et al. (1992b) claim that one of the most important aspects of post-return adjustment is behavioural control. This behavioural adjustment, according to the authors, can be facilitated by cognitive adjustment prior to repatriation. Within this stream, it is theorized that successful adaptation upon

expatriation will be related to successful re-adaptation on reentry (Brabant, Palmer, & Gramling, 1990; Ward et al., 2001). This will occur because the returning individuals, who adapted well during expatriation, will be able to re-use these adaptive skills in the reentry process. At the same time, an unanswered question in the reentry literature remains: should the skills acquired abroad be discarded upon repatriation (Selmer, Ebrahimi, & Li, 2000) or should truly bi/multicultural integration of the behavioural code take place upon reentry, so that the newly learned behavioural system could be reactivated when needed? Limited empirical research addresses the above issues, preventing the drawing of conclusive inferences. Among the critiques of the theory, Sussman's (2002) empirical research suggests that adaptation on expatriation is unrelated to the reentry processes, consequently questioning the validity of Culture Learning Theory.

The three above-mentioned streams cover the most significant areas of the research focus and provide a framework for the conceptualization of the cross-cultural reentry process.

2.2. Reentry process: modes of reentry

While Sussman (2002) and Cox (2004) attempt to categorize individuals' cultural identity responses to reentry, Adler (1981) and Pusch (1998) strive to create comprehensive models for classifying possible repatriation modes. While neither of these two models was empirically tested, they play an explanatory function in some literature on the topic and in training applications.

Adler (1981) proposes a four-element matrix, distributed over two dimensions: overall attitude (optimistic or pessimistic) and specific attitude (passive or active). This coping-mode diagram, then, describes four attitudinal responses, which may be experienced by individuals on their reentry: re-socialized (optimistic and passive), proactive (optimistic and active), alienated (pessimistic and passive) and rebellious (pessimistic and active). According to this model, active repatriates aim at changing themselves and their environment in order to create the best fit with the home-country organization. This is not observed amongst passive returnees, who do not undertake anticipatory actions in order to co-facilitate the reentry transition. On the other continuum, optimistically oriented repatriates evaluate their reentry positively, while their pessimistic colleagues have a negative opinion about the process. Even though this model has been created in order to describe the reentry experience within a corporate context, an empirical application of the framework to a student sample has also been undertaken, which illustrates the applicability of the model to different repatriating groups (Thompson & Christofi, 2006).

Pusch (1998) proposes a classification of reentry styles with four distinct categories: *free spirited, detached, reassimilatory* and *integratory*. These four styles are pictured across three dimensions, which have been defined by Pusch as crucial to the reentry process. The three dimensions cover: (1) the main concerns individuals might have about their repatriation; (2) the fundamental internal commitment of repatriates towards their home-country readjustment; and (3) the role they might desire to play or might be inherently playing upon reentry. As claimed by the author, such a conceptualization might be helpful for rethinking the going-home process, both in the anticipatory and retrospective stages of reentry. Even though this model has not been adopted by reentry scholars, it seems to be gaining popularity among reentry practitioners (La Brack, 2007).

2.3. Reentry process: the individual perspective

A substantial number of studies related to the reentry phenomenon focuses on sojourners' characteristics and situational factors of repatriation. Research shows that a number of factors can influence the distress experienced upon return, as well as psychological readjustment and overall satisfaction with the transition. The following sections examine these differences.

2.3.1. Sojourners' characteristics

2.3.1.1. **Gender.** A significant number of empirical investigations suggest that men and women tend to experience reentry differently (Rohrlich & Martin, 1991). Brabant et al. (1990) show that women more often reported problems with family and daily life and were more inclined to notice changes in their social environment than men. According to the authors, gender was the most important variable for predicting reentry problems. Gama and Pedersen (1977) describe family challenges experienced by returning women and their struggle to fulfil their relatives' expectations of their roles upon return. Suda (1999, as cited in Sussman, 2007), meanwhile, portrays the difficulties experienced by female returnees in readjusting to their home society. In the work context, Linehan and Scullion (2002) stress the importance of the pioneering role (and consequent difficulties) of female expatriates, while Cox (2004) emphasizes the assumed responsibilities of household maintenance and family life management of the female respondents (regardless of their regular working hours).

Contrary to the above-mentioned research, Sussman (2001) reports no significant relationship between gender and reentry difficulties, indicating a need for further investigation of gender related reentry concerns. As pointed out by Martin and Harrell (2004), more studies should be devoted to the relationship between gender and the character of the sojourn, and their influence on the readjustment. For example, the experiences of dependent female-spouses are expected to be considerably different from those of female-expatriate-managers.

2.3.1.2. **Age.** Age is the second most frequently researched reentry variable. Research indicates a positive correlation between age and reentry adjustment: the older the repatriates, the less the reentry distress (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Cox, 2004; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Hyder & Lovblad, 2007; Moore, Jones, & Austin, 1987; Rohrlich & Martin, 1991). Cox (2004) shows that age is not only related to psychological distress, but also to social difficulties upon reentry. The author

claims that this could be related to the higher cultural learning abilities and adjustment skills of younger individuals, resulting in more profound identity changes during the international sojourn and increased reentry distress upon return. There are some researchers who question the existence of any relationship between age on the one, and reentry satisfaction or the level of experienced reentry difficulties on the other hand (Hammer et al., 1998; Uehara, 1986). Only one empirical investigation gives an account of an opposite trend. Suutari and Välimaa (2002) state that, among Finnish repatriates, older people reported more difficulties with readjustment than the young repatriates. The authors hypothesize that such results could be a consequence of relatively strong ageism within Finnish corporations.

An additional, important factor related to age and reentry readjustment is the type of reentry concerns expressed (Martin, 1986). While young individuals are more concerned about rebuilding personal relationships, older repatriates emphasize work- and career-related anxieties.

2.3.1.3. Personality. Several empirical attempts have been made to explore the influence of personality traits on different aspects of repatriation. Martin and Harrell (2004) describe three attributes relevant in reentry adjustment: openness, personality strength and positivity. Black et al. (1992a) claim that strong self-image has a substantial role in the readjustment process. Similar conclusions have been reached by Sánchez Vidal, Sanz Valle, Barba Aragón and Brewster (2007), who stress the importance of self-efficacy, and by Feldman (1991), who theorizes that, next to self-efficacy, hardiness also has a positive impact on successful reentry adaptation. Furukawa (1997) investigates the re-acculturation process of Japanese students coming back from international exchange programs and concludes that neuroticism has an influence on the mental health of repatriates. Sussman (2007) adds that independent and interdependent self-construals play an important role in understanding the identity changes of re-migrating individuals.

In the work context, O'Sullivan (2002) investigates the influence of personality traits on proactive repatriation behaviours. The author theorizes that those repatriates, who score highly on the Big Five personality traits (extroversion, conscientiousness, openness, emotional stability and agreeableness), will exhibit more positive and proactive work behaviours. Finally, Furuya, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, and Mendenhall (2009) link positive intercultural personality characteristics with global management competency learning upon reentry.

2.3.1.4. Religion. Religion can play an important role in the process of dealing with the emotional and psychological aspects of repatriation. Brabant et al. (1990) show that religion is a significant variable related to problems upon return among the students from the Near East. These problems have been reported predominantly in relation to family interactions and the readjustment to daily life. Martin and Harrell (2004) speculate that such relationship difficulties might be a result of newly acquired liberal behaviours and values, which conflict with those of the family members back in the home-country. Since very few studies address the importance of religion in repatriation, the inferences indicated above should be treated with caution.

2.3.1.5. Marital status. The marital status of returnees seems to correlate with their readjustment difficulties experienced upon return. A number of researchers show that single sojourners are more likely to experience depression than their married colleagues (Huffman, 1989; Moore et al., 1987). Cox's (2004) research also indicates that single repatriates have greater social difficulties upon return and that they also tend to identify more strongly with the host-culture than married sojourners do. Cox explains that such outcomes may be related to the supportive role the spouse plays in the reentry process. Hyder and Lovblad (2007) support such a line of reasoning and present a model in which single marital status would negatively impact the reentry experience. Since the majority of related empirical studies are confined to a missionary sample, it cannot be assumed that the results would be replicated with other returning groups.

2.3.1.6. Socioeconomic status. Despite the fact that a number of researchers looked at the effect of a loss of social status and a decrease in financial resources associated with returning corporate employees (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; MacDonald & Arthur, 2005), there is surprisingly little research about the ways in which the broadly understood socioeconomic status of sojourners influences their readjustment. The limited empirical research does not indicate a relationship between socioeconomic status and the problems associated with reentry (Brabant et al., 1990; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Suutari & Välimaa, 2002). As indicated by both Martin and Harrell (2004) and Szkudlarek (2009), this limited interest in socioeconomic factors is symptomatic of a broader problem within intercultural research, where empirical explorations are limited to white, middle-class North American or Western European individuals.

2.3.1.7. Prior intercultural experience and reentry. Martin and Harrell (2004) hypothesize that previous cross-cultural experiences should have a positive influence on consecutive cultural transitions. Yet, empirical examinations by Hammer et al. (1998) and Cox (2004) find no relationship between prior intercultural experience and reentry satisfaction or the level of experienced reentry difficulties. Sussman (2002) agrees with this conclusion but hypothesizes that multiple reentries could influence sojourners' adaption of intercultural identity. These findings question the relevance of Culture Learning Theory.

2.3.2. Situational variables

2.3.2.1. Length of intercultural sojourn. The results of the research related to the influence of the length of an international sojourn on reentry readjustment are inconsistent. As posited by Black et al. (1992b), the repatriates who spent a substantial

number of years abroad have a much more difficult time readjusting than those who go on short-term assignments. Similar results have been reached by other researchers (Forster, 1994).

Black and Gregersen (1991) argue that the length of the period spent abroad is indeed associated with reentry readjustment, but only within the work context. The opposite conclusion has been reached by Suutari and Välimaa (2002), who claim that time abroad can be a predictor only with regard to general readjustment, and is irrelevant for forecasting job and organizational outcomes. Gregersen and Stroh (1997) show that while Finnish repatriates and spouses faced some of the greatest readjustment difficulties at work and at home, the total number of years they spent overseas was not a significant predictor of general readjustment. Finally, a number of researchers show no relationship between the length of an international sojourn, reentry distress and home-country adjustment challenges (Hammer et al., 1998; Uehara, 1986).

2.3.2.2. Cultural distance. As argued in the literature (Black et al., 1992b; Kidder, 1992; Triandis, 1989), cultural differences between the home- and host-country environments have a substantial influence on the course of repatriation. Cultural distance, defined as differences in norms between two environments (Kogut & Singh, 1988), can have a huge impact on readjustment processes. For example, Black et al. (1992b) describe the differences experienced by Japanese returnees, in comparison to their North American or Western European colleagues. In this research, the accompanying Asian spouses experienced the more restricted social interactions within Japanese society as very difficult. This could be related to what Triandis (1989) describes as the difficulty of transition from loose societies, with few restraining norms and rules, to tight societies, where a behavioural code of conduct is strictly defined. Such a line of reasoning is supported by Kidder (1992), who describes the challenges of reentry experienced by Japanese students. Similar results have been reached in the Finnish context, where cultural novelty was a substantial factor in reentry readjustment (Gregersen & Stroh, 1997).

It is important to acknowledge that, in the U.S. context, research does not support the hypothesis of cultural distance and its impact on reentry (Black & Gregersen, 1991). It is hypothesized that in-country heterogeneity might contribute to the relatively lower importance of cultural distance here (Gregersen & Stroh, 1997). Consequently, Rohrllich and Martin (1991) suggest that not cultural distance but the particular attributes of the home- and host-environments (e.g. food, climate) may have a higher impact on cross-border readjustments.

2.3.2.3. Time since return. Similarly to the length of one's stay abroad, the time elapsed since one's return has also been used as a predictor of reentry readjustment. Gregersen and Stroh (1997) show that the time elapsed since return relates significantly both to work and general readjustment for repatriates and their spouses. Sánchez Vidal et al. (2007) argue for including the time variable into the work-related readjustment model. According to the authors, the longer the duration of readjustment, the more work-related difficulties will emerge for repatriates. Consequently, staff responsible for management of returning sojourners should invest in practices which will shorten the readjustment process. Contrary to these findings, Cox (2004) does not find a significant relationship between the time since return and the process of readjustment. Such conflicting results put in question the validity of the W-curve model of reentry readjustment and its explanatory power for explaining cross-cultural transitions.

2.3.2.4. Contact with host-country individuals. Researchers argue that the frequency and quality of interactions with host-country nationals are directly related to expatriation adjustment (Kim, 2001). Similarly, Rohrllich and Martin (1991) hypothesize that both the kind and the frequency of communications with host-country nationals can impact the repatriation experience. Existing empirical scrutiny (Hammer et al., 1998) does not find any relationship between these variables, however, suggesting a need for further investigation of the influence of contact with host-country individuals on sojourners' readjustment.

2.3.2.5. Contact with home-country individuals. The amount of contact with home-country individuals during expatriation has been reported as significantly related to home-country readjustment. Research shows that maintaining personal relationships with home-country individuals during foreign sojourns can have a substantial influence on reducing the distress of reentry. Brabant et al. (1990) show that the frequency of visits home is also positively associated with repatriation. However, more recent research indicates that the quality of these encounters might be more important than their quantity; quality being defined as a personally satisfying and/or informative communication process (Cox, 2004: 208). Moreover, e-mail and other methods of internet communication are being reported as very satisfying for maintaining relationships with home-country nationals and are rated by individuals as equally or even more satisfying than some face-to-face communication modes (Cox, 2004).

2.3.2.6. Attitudes of home-country individuals towards the returnees. Attitudes of home-country individuals towards the returnees seem to be another factor impacting the readjustment process. While this issue has been briefly addressed in the research on cultural distance and work-interactions, intercultural researchers have devoted little attention to further explore the topic of the compatriots' attitudes toward returning groups. An exception to this trend is research on Japanese returnees. A number of studies describe in detail the prejudiced attitudes and discriminative practices that Japanese repatriates are confronted with upon reentry (Fry, 2007; Kanno, 2000; Yoshida et al., 2002; Yoshida et al., 2003). In extreme cases, these attitudes take the form of institutional discrimination (e.g. a separate schooling system). Government initiatives and extensive media coverage steer the national debate on the reentry "problem". The tone of this discussion results in

increasingly negative attitudes towards returnees, rather than in promoting understanding between the repatriates and the non-sojourning population (Enloe & Lewin, 1987; Podolsky, 2004).

2.3.2.7. Housing conditions. Post-reentry housing conditions are a recurring theme in findings on repatriation (Napier & Peterson, 1991). This is closely related to the fact that expatriating individuals often gain a number of financial benefits related to their relocation abroad, including preferential, high-comfort housing. At the same time, upon return, repatriates usually need to adjust back to a much more modest life-style. As indicated by the researchers, housing conditions are significantly related to the general readjustment of Finnish repatriates (Gregersen & Stroh, 1997) and to spouse and repatriate readjustment of U.S. returnees (Black & Gregersen, 1991). Therefore, it is recommended that organizations dealing with reentry transitions facilitate adequate housing arrangements for the returning individuals (Black et al., 1992b).

3. Reentry: people

In this section, the concerns and specificities of different groups of repatriates will be discussed. The groups are identified according to their primary reasons for their intercultural sojourn. Since a great majority of reentry literature focuses on the repatriation of corporate expatriates, the concerns of this group will be addressed in detail. Additionally, an overview of the literature devoted to reentry issues of six other groups will be presented: *repatriating spouses, students, missionaries, Peace Corps Volunteers, Third Culture Kids* and *returning migrants*. The need for increased research regarding other repatriating groups is also discussed.

3.1. Corporate repatriates

Corporate repatriates are the most thoroughly researched group within the reentry field. This is in partly due to the fact that work-related difficulties are among the most often reported concerns upon return (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Baruch, Steele, & Quantrill, 2002; Black et al., 1992b; Furuya, Stevens, Oddou, Bird, & Mendenhall, 2007; Harvey, 1982; Kraimer, Shaffer & Bolino, 2009; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Paik, Segaud, & Malinowski, 2002; Peltonen, 1997; Stevens et al., 2006; Stroh et al., 2000; Sánchez Vidal et al., 2007; Ward et al., 2001). Issues related to workplace readjustment, commitment, transfer of knowledge, productivity and post-reentry turnover rates among returning individuals have been widely discussed in the international management literature. Even though Lazarova and Caligiuri (2004) argue for the individual treatment of different corporate assignee groups (technical, developmental/high potential, strategic/executive, functional/tactical) and Newton, Hutchings, and Kabanoff (2007) stress the substantial differences between the functions of international transfers (position filling, management development, organizational development), the majority of the reentry literature approaches corporate reentry in a uniform manner. Consequently, this review will not differentiate among different types of corporate returnees.

While the majority of repatriates are satisfied with the career-related outcomes of their repatriate experience, research shows that many of them experience a number of work-related challenges upon return (Gomez-Mejía & Balkin, 1987; Suutari & Brewster, 2003; Westwood & Leung, 1994). Among other issues, repatriates report a lack of suitable career prospects available to them upon their reentry, a lack of challenging work and responsibilities, as well as a lack of understanding concerning their new experiences and knowledge on the part of their home-organization colleagues. Individual career paths are often neglected within the strategic planning of international assignments, resulting in the international transition being a risky move for the long-term career prospects of the repatriate (Naumann, 1992). The importance of such long-term planning for the sojourning individuals has been well documented in the literature. However, this continues to be rarely addressed by home-organizations (Riusala & Suutari, 2000). Another work-related concern of returning employees is what Paik et al. (2002) describe as the discrepancy between the repatriates and their HR managers in defining a successful repatriation. While returning individuals focus on country culture readjustment, HR managers are primarily interested in work-related outcomes and expect the returning individuals 'to hit the ground running'.

In fact, research demonstrates that multinational corporations seem to largely neglect the issue of reentry. Black et al. (1992b) show that, among researched organizations, as few as 4.3% of U.S. organizations informed their employees of their return date with notice of half a year or more. The majority of returning individuals received arbitrary notice, indicating little preparation on the company's part for the repatriation of their employees. The situation is similar upon the employees' return. As indicated by the authors, 60–70% of repatriates only learned about their new work positions after repatriation. Additionally, the new work places were a poor match with repatriates' newly acquired experiences, knowledge and skills; as little as 25% of Finnish and about 10% of Japanese and U.S. repatriates received a promotion upon return and many were downgraded to lower-level positions than those which they held abroad. Among the other issues reported as problematic are the loss of autonomy, locally bounded technical and managerial obsolescence, a reduced range of responsibilities and the loss of within-company networks (Forster, 1994; McDonald, 1993).

Caligiuri and Lazarova (2001) describe a number of considerations to be taken into account by managers attempting to create strategic repatriation policies. The authors stress the importance of coherence between selection procedures, expatriate performance management and the repatriation system. They also emphasize that, while a substantial number of writings detail the retention strategies of the home-organization, in fact, a certain level of turnover upon repatriation is in

fact functional and should be included in the strategic planning of international assignments. The issues of knowledge management and turnover intentions are described below.

3.1.1. Knowledge management

The transfer of knowledge upon return is one of the most important strategic objectives related to successful repatriation management. Expatriating individuals gain not only substantial knowledge related to particular, local management practices and local market conditions, but also develop a number of overall management skills and interpersonal relations competences (Lazarova & Tarique, 2005). Unfortunately, reentry management is rarely high on the HR agenda of multinational corporations (Bonache, Brewster & Suutari, 2001) and the returning individuals frequently face resistance when attempting to transfer their newly gained foreign knowledge to the home-organization. Adler (1981) labels this negative reaction a *xenophobic response*. A closed and reserved attitude among home-country employees is found to hinder the transfer of knowledge from the host- to home-country organization and negatively influence the re-adaptation of the returning individuals. The author suggests two strategies that could be applied here. First, repatriates could mask the source of their knowledge and, in this way, prevent a prejudiced response. Second, the home-country managers should be offered assistance (training) in recognizing the benefits of the international experiences their repatriated colleagues have gained.

Lazarova and Tarique (2005) add that for an effective transfer of knowledge upon repatriation to take place there must be a fit between both the organization's interest and openness, and the repatriate's readiness to share the information. Proactive organizations could also undertake a number of actions supporting knowledge transfer (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2004). Such procedures should be organized in the form of anticipatory policies rather than being implemented as ad hoc crisis management interventions (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001). Research shows that both appropriate HR practices and self-adjustment efforts of returning individuals contribute to the within-company learning processes (Furuya et al., 2007).

3.1.2. Commitment and turnover intentions

Challenges of repatriation, as well as dissatisfaction with the company's management of reentry process are often accompanied by a lack of commitment to the home-organization and consequently a higher presentation of turnover intentions among repatriates.

The most important factor predicting individuals' commitment to their home-organization is the demonstrable value placed on the international experiences of returning assignees (Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1996; Stroh, 1995). Moreover, scholars identify several other factors influencing commitment to a home-unit: tenure within the home-organization, predeparture training (Gregersen & Black, 1992), role discretion and clarity (Gregersen, 1992), and adequate career development planning (Stroh, 1995). Similar predictors have been found in relation to work readjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; McDonald, 1993; Suutari & Välimaa, 2002).

Despite a relatively small number of empirical studies on turnover rates, the few that have been published report unusually high levels of turnover among repatriated employees. The 2008 GMAC Global Relocation Trends Report states that, among 154 surveyed organizations, more than 50% of the international assignees left their companies within two years of their return. Consequently, the issue of employee retention after repatriation has been frequently addressed in the international HRM literature. Lazarova and Cerdin (2007) notice that the majority of available research related to repatriate turnover inadequately focuses on individuals' inability to manage the reentry process, and their more or less complete dependence on organizational arrangements and support practices. The authors argue that such a view is one-sided and does not account for the proactivity of returning individuals. According to the authors, repatriates might voluntarily choose to change employers in the hope of a better match between their newly acquired skills, job ambitions and work responsibilities. Such *protean careers* (Hall, 1996) lead repatriates to opt for *boundaryless* careers, running independently of a particular organizational setting, rather than having a life-long commitment to one employer (Lazarova & Cerdin, 2007). This newly emerging line of research opens up a new perspective on understanding the concept of work commitment and post-reentry retention.

3.2. Spouse/partner reentry

While it is questionable to identify spouse/partner reentry as a distinctive category of repatriation, several researchers have done so. While many readjustment factors are identical for both partners, research indicates several unique areas of spousal readjustment. Black et al. (1992b) describe the significant percentage of spouses, who did not work during the international assignment phase and consequently found it very challenging to come back to the workplace after their return. Those who wanted to find employment in their home-country reported significant difficulties in finding a new work placement. At the same time, only 2% of U.S. organizations and 15% of Finnish employers offered job-finding support to the returning spouses. These numbers are surprisingly low when taking into consideration that successful spousal repatriation is largely acknowledged as one of the key factors in the re-adaptation of returning expatriates, especially within the corporate context (Black et al., 1992a). Research shows that partners' general readjustment patterns tend to positively reinforce each other. This, in turn, has a direct influence on employees' work readjustment and their performance in the workplace (Black et al., 1992b; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997). Consequently, MacDonald and Arthur (2005) identify a number of support practices that should be provided to the returning spouses by the organization.

Empirical investigation focused on spouse-only samples indicates a number of additional concerns. Among the researched 158 U.S. Foreign Service spouses, those who were younger and had fewer and younger children showed the greatest reentry distress (Maybarduk, 2008). Participating in numerous social activities while overseas contributed to a smoother readjustment. Moreover, the respondents indicated the importance of adequate information prior to reentry and stressed the value of counselling activities.

In response to such spouse-unique reentry difficulties, Pascoe (2000) published a guidebook addressed especially to returning spouses and partners. Written from the perspective of a repatriating woman, the book exemplifies a number of concerns relevant to the majority of dependent spouses. Within a corporate context, Punnett (1997) argues for the company's involvement in managing spouses' reentry transition. The author identifies three primary areas of organizational support: re-establishing family life, employment assistance and cultural guidance. Bearing in mind the particular demographics of this returning group, we can learn more about the specifics of their repatriation from research exemplifying gender differences in reentry.

3.3. Students

Student population is the second most researched group of returnees (e.g. Brabant et al., 1990; Butcher, 2002; Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Furukawa, 1997; Gaw, 2000; Kidder, 1992; Rogers & Ward, 1993; Sahin, 1990; Uehara, 1986; Thompson & Christofi, 2006; Ward et al., 2001; Westwood, Lawrence, & Paul, 1986; Wilson, 1993; Yoshida et al., 2003). Given the increasing popularity of international exchange programs, it is crucial that we understand the reentry issues of young sojourners.

The results of the empirical investigations into students' readjustment patterns are inconsistent. Several researchers indicate that young returnees tend to have more difficulties with readjustment than older sojourners. This has been confirmed by Sorimachi (1994, as cited in Thompson & Christofi, 2006), who describes that, among returning Japanese students, regardless of the length of time they spent abroad, all individuals exemplified symptoms of some sort of reentry shock. Gaw (2000) cites feelings of alienation, loneliness, social awkwardness, insecurity, depression, shyness and speech anxiety as being among the problems related to the personal readjustment of returning students. Kidder (1992) describes the changes related to both external, outward transformations (such as clothing style) and the more profound interpersonal identity and communication challenges experienced by the returning college students. While the investigated individuals acknowledged their own partial incompatibility with their home-country environment, they were unwilling to suppress or give up their newly acquired identities. This reaction is symptomatic of the broader issue of more profound identity changes undergone by younger returnees. Consequently, from the practice oriented stand-point, Westwood et al. (1986) advocate that the host-institution should bear the main responsibility for providing anticipatory reentry assistance.

Contrary to the above-mentioned stream of reentry research regarding various student populations, Brabant et al. (1990) claim that reentry shock is by no means an inevitable aspect of students' repatriation experience. The authors show that among 96 surveyed U.S. students very few reentry challenges have been reported. While it is being suggested that such diverse results could be associated with the different national and ethnical backgrounds of diverse returnee groups, there is not enough evidence that would allow an ultimate revision of this hypothesis.

The limited research that is available on home-country-individuals' reaction to returning students shows that the returnees' peers exhibit similar xenophobic reactions to those that have been described by Adler (1981) in the work environment. Yoshida et al. (2003) show that in the Japanese context, for instance, the international experiences of returning students are often perceived as a disadvantage, especially among older individuals and among those who themselves did not study abroad.

3.4. Missionaries

Available research on missionary readjustment to a limited extent addresses the aspects unique to this returning group. While Moore et al. (1987) attempt to design a 'Reverse Culture Shock Scale' tailored to the distinctive circumstances of returning missionaries, their instrument includes only one item (namely a specific school of preaching) that addresses the specific position of this group. Nevertheless, the authors acknowledge the need for further research within the missionary community and stress the importance of issues such as spiritual adjustment and the mental health of returnees.

One of the interesting characteristics of the missionary literature is the privileged and comprehensive treatment of the family unit as opposed to the individual-centred analysis favoured by researchers working with other returning groups. Stringham (1993) examines the importance of family-dynamics for understanding reentry transition. Factors, such as dysfunctional family-of-origin relationships or an asymmetrical power distribution between returning spouses, have a significant negative impact on the readjustment processes. The author argues that, in order to gain a better understanding of repatriation transition, the researchers need to take the family life cycle stage into consideration. Similarly, Huffman (1989) shows in what way the family life cycle stage can be related to men's experience of reentry shock and women's perception of family cohesion.

Another set of studies focuses on the specificity of the experiences of Missionary Kids (Bretsch, 1954; Firmin, Warner and Lowe, 2006; Schulz, 1985). While this review incorporates this returning group into the Third Culture Kids category, Huff

(2001) suggests that the dynamics of Missionary Kids' readjustment can differ from that of Non-Missionary Kids. Among other factors, parental attachment and cultural distance scores show significantly different patterns for these two groups.

3.5. *Peace Corps Volunteers*

Returning Peace Corps Volunteers (RPCVs) constitute another research sample for a number of studies dealing with cultural readjustment. While many of the reentry concerns of this population are similar to those of other returning groups (Stein, 1966), the research points to a number of unique aspects of RPCVs readjustment.

First of all, attention has been devoted to the difference between voluntary and non-voluntary returns of the Peace Corps Volunteers (Schlossberg, 1988). Especially in cases of emergency evacuation, individuals more frequently experience negative psychological symptoms such as depression, disorientation and anxiety (Hirshon, Eng, Brunkow & Hartzell, 1997). Consequently, the authors argue that the returning individuals should be provided with adequate support upon reentry.

An important difference between RPCVs and other returning groups is the areas identified by each as problematic for reentry. In a survey conducted by the Peace Corps' Office of Policy Planning and Analysis, the respondents indicated the following issues as being the most difficult in the readjustment phase: materialism, waste of goods, indifference of home-country citizens, and the fast pace of living (U.S. Peace Corps & Graul, 1996). These results indicate that the main focus of the concerns of returning Peace Corps Volunteers differs considerably from that of returning corporate employees, whose main apprehension pertains to the issues of work readjustment (Gomez-Mejía & Balkin, 1987; Suutari & Brewster, 2003). Furthermore, the findings on socially related concerns are consistent with research on interpersonal changes among RPCVs. Returning individuals' self-reports indicate that the RPCVs assess themselves as more liberal, open-minded, concerned about minorities and principled in moral reasoning (Haan, 1974; Harris and Associates, 1969); in addition many perceive themselves to be 'agents of change' (Longworth, 1971). Taking into consideration the above-mentioned findings, it is not surprising that many returning Peace Corps Volunteers express a preference for changing their home-environment, rather than adjusting to it (Storti, 1997).

3.6. *Third Culture Kids*

The term Third Culture Kid (TCK) was coined by John and Ruth Hill Useem in the 1950s (Useem & Downie, 1976). Third Culture Kids were initially defined as individuals, who accompanied their parents on their international sojourn and therefore grew up in culturally diverse settings—those of their home- and host-countries. Currently, the term also encompasses individuals, who were raised within different cultural worldviews, without ever leaving their country of birth (Pollock & van Reken, 2001). Taking into consideration the definition of the term, the Third Culture Kids phenomenon has been understood and researched from a variety of different points of departure. In the view of the complex transitions and identity transformations of these individuals, surprisingly little research has been devoted exclusively to the reentry transition of Third Culture Kids. Nevertheless, the available publications point toward identity formation, grief for the lost host-country environment and relationships, as well as loneliness and isolation in the home-country as the main challenges of TCKs' reentry (Storti, 2001). Furthermore, the reentry transition of TCKs has also been related to problems such as anxiety, depression and mental complaints (Tamura & Furnham, 1993).

Among the available literature, one of the most important contributions to understanding the reentry process of TCKs has been made by researchers describing the re-acculturation of Japanese children (Furukawa, 1997; Goodman, 1990; Kanno, 2000; Kidder, 1992; Sasagawa, Toyoda & Sakano, 2006; Tamura & Furnham, 1993; Yoshida et al., 2003). The phenomenon of Japanese youth returnees (*kikokushijo*) has also been acknowledged by the Japanese government and extensively researched since the 1960s (Podolsky, 2004).

It is important to acknowledge that much of the available research devoted to the reentry transition of children or students does not necessarily link these groups with TCKs. Consequently, due to a lack of integration between different research themes, much can be learned about TCKs through an assessment of returning-students literature. Moreover, some researchers argue that the "homecoming" of Third Culture Kids can often be more adequately described as expatriation, rather than reentry (Szkudlarek, 2008; Wise, 2000).

3.7. *Returning migrants*

Researchers working within the reentry stream almost exclusively focus on temporarily sojourning individuals. The basic assumption within the available literature is that the expatriating individuals are aware of the transience of their international transition. Hence, little research within the intercultural field addresses the reentry transition of migrants, who might have assumed their initial expatriation to be a permanent one. Moreover, in light of the high incidence of reentry, it is difficult to assess which international transitions should be considered as permanent. Among the few attempts to make sense of return migration, Cassarino (2004) brings together four analytical frameworks: *neoclassical economics*, *structuralism*, *transnationalism* and *social network theory*. The author proposes a conceptual model for analyzing reentry migration. In light of this framework, initial motivation for migration, duration of resettlement, conditions of reentry, returnees' preparedness and resource mobilization emerge as important factors in theorizing return migration. Among other research addressing the issue of reverse migration, scientists stress the economical (Rhoades, 1977), socio-political (Ammassari, 2004) and

technological (Zweig, Chung & Vanhonacker, 2006) aspects of the transition. A comprehensive overview of the first 25 years of anthropological research on return migration is presented by Gmelch (1980).

From the intercultural point of view, a number of researchers focus on identity transformation among returning individuals (Maron & Connell, 2008; Ramji, 2006; Sussman, 2007). While there is little research available that addresses the ways in which individual characteristics affect the reverse migration processes, available studies suggest that gender and age of returning migrants are critical factors (Lucca-Irizarry & Pacheco, 1992; Magala & Rejmer, 2005).

Another research stream that deserves separate recognition is the re-migration of second (and subsequent) generation migrants. Noguchi (2005) describes the return migration of North Americans of Japanese descent to their ancestral homeland. The author points out that the majority of the respondents did not plan to re-migrate to Japan, however their newly gained interest in their ethnic roots (often gained only in the adulthood) and/or a marital relationship with a Japanese partner transformed what was initially a temporary sojourn, into re-migration. Noguchi (2005) stresses that, within the researched population, the reentry move was caused more by attraction to their ancestral homeland than by antipathy to the country of their birth. Possibly, this kind of transition contributes to respondents' perception of their identity as bicultural. This biculturalism provides the respondents with a way to free themselves of the external pressure to assimilate into Japanese society. Moreover, those participants who were parents wished their children would embrace a dual background.

Finally, Ley and Kobayashi (2005) argue that migration and re-migration cannot be understood as a linear process. Given the high mobility of today's 'global citizens', international transitions should be understood as a dynamic process, occurring transnationally, rather than as a static and accomplished outcome. The authors' conclusions correspond with that reached by Onwumehili et al. (2003), who argue for a multiple-re-acculturation model to explain international transitions.

3.8. Other repatriates

The literature on other repatriate groups is very fragmented. Very little systematic research has been done in relation to groups such as returning asylum seekers, diplomatic staff and their families, soldiers, journalists, and international health and development staff (La Brack, 2007). It could be hypothesized that the dominance of the corporate reentry literature is directly related to the financial benefits and potential profits embedded in management research. There is a great need for more diversified repatriation research. More attention should be directed at cross-disciplinary studies incorporating psychological, cultural and socio-political aspects of reentry.

4. Reentry: practices

Despite the fact that reentry challenges have been widely documented in the literature, surprisingly few reentry support practices have been systematically investigated. While a number of writings describing repatriation support practices are available (e.g. Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Furuya et al., 2007; Stevens et al., 2006), a great majority of them lack empirical support and consequently should be seen as tentative suggestions rather than definitive recommendations. Caligiuri and Lazarova (2001) compile a comprehensive list of practices that should be taken into consideration in dealing with the reentry transition of returning employees. Within the corporate context, these strategic repatriation practices include pre-departure briefings, reentry training and coaching, career planning meetings, written guarantees of employment, mentoring, organization reorientation programs, financial counselling, lifestyle counselling, transition periods for reintegration, as well as a proactive and extensive communication scheme during the expatriation phase. Reentry training, the most often employed support practice, will be discussed here in detail.

4.1. Reentry training

Several publications on international HR provide brief recommendations for successful repatriation of intercultural sojourners. Reentry training and coaching are among the most often recommended strategies (Adler, 1981; Anderson, 2001; Arthur, 2003; Black et al., 1992b; Black, 1992; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2001; Cox, 2004; Forster, 1994; Furuya et al., 2007; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1987; Hammer et al., 1998; Martin & Harrell, 1996; Martin & Harrell, 2004; McDonald, 1993; Nelson, 2005; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Stroh et al., 1998; Tung, 1998). Sadly, the literature assessing the content, the potential impact and the utility of such services is scant and mostly limited to theorizing about the potential design of reentry sessions (Hammer et al., 1998; Harvey, 1989; Martin & Harrell, 1996; Martin & Harrell, 2004; Sussman, 1986).

The most thorough theoretical outlines of a reentry session are provided by Martin and Harrell (1996, 2004). Their publications contain a detailed outline of reentry training that distinguishes four training phases: pre-departure, overseas experience, pre-reentry and the reentry phase itself. The authors distinguish between the different needs of returning employees and those of repatriating students and suggest appropriate training designs for these two groups. Among other publications on reentry training and coaching, Sussman (1986) reviews the literature on the reentry process and points out three elements, which should be considered first when designing any reentry session: the background of the trainees, the timing of the reentry session and the place where the session should be conducted. Hammer et al. (1998) stress the importance of shaping accurate expectations for repatriates and their spouses in the reentry training programs. Yoshida, Hayashi and Uno (1999) disclose the shortage of existing reentry assistance programs for Japanese repatriates and advocate

the establishment of widely available reentry sessions. Such sessions should deal with a number of issues, including awareness, knowledge, emotions and skills. Finally, Harvey (1989) discusses the perceptions of personnel administrators of repatriation programs and concludes that, instead of looking at the broad spectrum of issues related to return transition, the administrators centre their ideas on the more tangible aspects of reentry, such as financial and tax assistance. His research indicates that an ideal reentry training program should include issues such as psychological distress and the personal concerns of the returning repatriates and their families.

While the scientific community does not provide much information on the traditional mode of reentry training and coaching, practitioners in the field have been publishing numerous articles on the role and impact of reentry training in a carefully planned repatriation strategy. Unfortunately, these publications rely on anecdotal evidence, mostly drawn from the personal experiences of the authors. Still, they are an indication that there are several issues of importance, which have not yet been addressed. Solomon (1995) describes the successful repatriation of a U.S. couple returning from an international sojourn in Belgium and stresses the fact that a reentry training program had a considerable influence on their effective re-adaptation. Frazee (1997) writes about the importance of and similarities between pre-departure training and post-arrival sessions. In her view, the more successful the adjustment in the host-country, the more difficult the repatriation process in the homeland. However, training can play a crucial role in recalling and reapplying the skills developed in the expatriation phase. Askalani (1998) quotes one of the training participants who confesses that such training was the best opportunity to think over and talk through all the emotional and cultural issues related to repatriation. Breukel (2003) advocates pre-reentry training and coaching, which (next to information on current developments in politics, culture and other social issues) could provide an opportunity to evaluate the expatriation experiences. Ripmeester (2005) claims that only individually customized, one-on-one session with a repatriate and their family can provide a thorough and relevant learning experience. Klaff (2002) presents a similar opinion, suggesting that a counsellor might be a great help for repatriates attempting to reintegrate into the home-country environment. Similarly, Hurn (1999) strongly recommends tailor-made, individual sessions.

The most thorough empirical investigation of reentry training services has been undertaken by Szkudlarek (2008), who interviewed 31 reentry trainers and coaches, and analyzed their reentry programs. This analysis includes issues such as timing, location, duration, group composition, methodology and thematic composition of a training session. Among the themes most frequently discussed during reentry trainings were new, internationally acquired skills and knowledge, interpersonal change and post-reentry life planning. Less frequently, the trainers covered issues such as social and political developments within the home-country, the emotional side of reentry transition, practicalities of return and networking. In her research, Szkudlarek stresses that while training can be a powerful tool in reentry transition, HR managers need to carefully consider which training provider to choose, since the agendas of such interventions can differ substantially. Moreover, the author points out big discrepancies between reentry theory and conducted training practices. Finally, she suggests a number of alternatives which could replace traditional reentry training and coaching. Among these are online reentry workshops, ongoing telephone coaching, non-profit sector support initiatives and in-company reentry sessions delivered by former repatriates. Within the student context, a number of reentry teaching and coaching materials are provided by the trainers themselves: a student reentry workbook by Denney (1987) and a reentry guide by Pusch and Loewenthal (1988). Studies assessing the impact of reentry training for student groups confirm their utility within the researched samples (Raschio, 1987; Westwood et al., 1986).

Finally, it is important to notice that the majority of studies on reentry training have been conducted within a corporate context or among student populations. Anderson (2001) shows that among private, public and nongovernmental organizations, the last mentioned provide the most thorough reentry support. Her research is indicative of need for a broader scope of research within reentry support programs. Such cross-sector investigations could provide inspiration for individuals managing reentry transitions in all three sectors.

While the intercultural field thoroughly deals with expatriate assistance, the subject of reentry support practices (variety, value and applications) remains underdeveloped within repatriation research. Taking into consideration the range of articles documenting psychological distress upon return, reentry assistance needs to appear higher on the agendas of both researchers and practitioners.

5. Discussion

This paper presents an up-to-date overview of the literature devoted to cross-cultural reentry. The review brings together the theories of reentry transition, the concerns of different repatriating groups and an overview of support measures provided to returning individuals. The theoretical streams and considerations presented in this manuscript confirm the significance of repatriation transition for sojourning individuals, the organizations that manage the move, and the society as a whole. However, while the difficulties related to reentry transition have been largely acknowledged, academic documentation of the field is, for the most part, fragmented and a number of issues remain unaddressed. This, of course, had major consequences for the form this manuscript took, making it impossible to conduct a meta-analytical assessment, and resulting in a more descriptive literature review. Nevertheless, in this last section, I would like to direct the readers' attention to a number of issues that became apparent during the attempted reentry-field-integration undertaken by the author.

First of all, the academic community still needs to carefully consider and elaborate on the vocabulary employed within the field. Delineating the meaning for basic terms such as a repatriate, a reverse migrant or a Third Culture Kid will help to integrate the field and create meaningful distinctions between different categories of individuals in transition. The anthropological research on return migration, the intercultural literature on Third Culture Kids and the psychological studies of expatriate readjustment are almost exclusively presented as separate phenomena, with no intersecting links. This systematic isolation of different research streams results in a lack of understanding of the unique aspects of each of the groups, as well as a lack of assessment of the generic features of transition. Even fewer attempts have been made to conceptualize the repatriates' transition in terms of other forms of return. Jansson's work (1986), in which the author tries to conceptualize the reentry process of ex-convicts, former mental patients, returning Peace Corps Volunteers and ex-nuns provides an interesting departure point for further theorizing on reentry as a more widespread phenomenon. Moreover, incorporating knowledge from newly emerging streams (for example the concept of creolization and its relation to readjustment processes), can contribute to a better understanding of intercultural phenomena and the integration of different knowledge domains.

Second, this review demonstrates that a very limited number of theories on repatriation are available and even fewer issues have been investigated empirically in a systematic manner. For example, the W-curve of adjustment and the Cultural Identity Model both have very modest empirical substantiation. That puts in question the relevance of these theories for explaining the reentry transition. Similar, critique can be formulated with regard to studies that attempt to describe the specificity of reentry practices. The shortage of empirical data addressing the effectiveness and utility of available reentry support measures casts doubt on the relevance and practical application of these programs in managing repatriation transition.

Closely related to the previous issue is the problem of a very limited scope of populations investigated within the main-stream reentry research. For example, enquiries examining the relationship between demographic characteristics and the reentry process have been almost exclusively conducted among corporate U.S. repatriates and exchange students. Few of those studies have been replicated in other contexts. Consequently, it cannot be assumed that these results would be confirmed among other repatriating groups. The fragmentation of the field makes it difficult to draw conclusions that can be applied to wide ranges and types of returning populations. This in turn is symptomatic of the westernization of intercultural research, where West-originated theories are used to account for the intercultural complexity of cultural phenomena all over the world (Szkudlarek, 2009). Few researchers within the reentry field acknowledge the limitations related to the generalizability of results obtained in the U.S. context (Gregersen & Black, 1996). A very small number of cross-national studies and a limited global relevance of the U.S. based reentry reports are the most significant consequence. Moreover, the individual-centered Western approach does not incorporate the communal effects of repatriation (Losi, 2000). This partial operationalization of the reentry process reduces our understanding of the impact of the transition on the wider communities, within which the returnee is located (e.g. family, organization, neighbourhood, nation-state). Incorporating the social aspects of reentry into our research agenda would help in understanding the interrelatedness of individuals and the diverse communities to which they belong.

Furthermore, the majority of currently available research describes the reentry transition of corporate assignees. The concerns of other returning groups are largely neglected. This could be related to the commercialization of intercultural research as well as to the logistical difficulties involved in reaching different target groups. Consequently, in an academic context, this review argues for including a wider scope of reentry themes within repatriation research. At the same time, within the practice of reentry, this article calls for a broader access to various repatriating groups.

The methodological limitations of reentry research also deserve more attention. The majority of available studies apply only one method of data collection; surveys and interviews being the most often exploited procedures. Retrospective self-reporting dominates the field. Very few researchers use triangulation of research methods to cross-check the data, obtain depth and get a thorough understanding of the phenomena.

Finally, it is hoped that intercultural trainers, human resource officers and other professionals responsible for managing international transitions will benefit from this review. It can be a source of inspiration for their future programs and encourage reflection about practitioners' contributions to the field. In light of the difficulties faced by researchers in gaining access to different sojourning groups, facilitating contact with the returning individuals would greatly support academic efforts and stimulate the growth of the relevant literature. This, in turn, will impact the quality of the support programs offered and ease the reentry process for the individuals in transition.

This paper presents the state-of-the-art in reentry research. While a number of issues related to repatriation have been addressed in the literature, the reentry field desperately needs more systematic research that is also broader in scope. Extensive theory building and in-depth, comprehensive empirical investigations will not only improve our understanding of intercultural transitions; more importantly, they will allow practitioners to make better informed decision about the implementation of reentry support programs for those who need them.

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Appendix A

Study characteristics.

Article	Number of respondents	Host-country ^a	Home-country ^a	Function	Methodology	Research timing	Control group	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
Adler (1981)	200	Mixed	CA	Assignees	Interviews and survey	Post		
Adler and Bartholomew (1992)	50	N/a	US	Firms	Survey	N/a		
Ammassari (2004)	304	N/a	CI, GH	Elite returning migrants	Focus group, interviews and survey	Post	Yes	
Anderson (2001)	15	N/a	AU	Firms	Interviews and survey	N/a		
Arthur (2003)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Training manual	N/a		
Askalani (1998)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Baruch et al. (2002)	1	N/a	GB	Firms	Case research	N/a		
Baughn (1995)	212	Mixed	US	Assignees	Survey	Post		
Black (1992)	174	Mixed	US	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.56–0.96
Black and Gregersen (1990)	77	JP	US	Assignees	Survey	During		0.60–0.80
Black and Gregersen (1991)	201	Mixed	US	Assignees, spouses	Survey	Post		0.79–0.96
Black et al. (1992a)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Black et al. (1992b)	N/a	Mixed	JP, CH, FI, US	Assignees, spouses	N/a	N/a		
Bonache and Brewster (2001)	1	N/a	ES	Firms	Case research	N/a		
Bonache et al. (2001)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Brabant et al. (1990)	96	US	Mixed	Students	Survey	Post		0.37–0.79
Bretsch (1954)	93	Mixed	US	Children	Survey	Post		
Breukel (2003)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Brislin (1981)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Butcher (2002)	50	NZ	HK, MY, SG, TH	Students	Interviews	Post		
Caligiuri and Lazarova (2001)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Cassarino (2004)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Chamove and Soeterik (2006)	205	N/a	NZ	Students	Survey	Post	Yes	
Cox (2004)	101	Mixed	US	Missionaries	Survey	Post		0.83–0.96
Cox (2006)	21	US	Mixed	Students	Survey	During		
Denney (1987)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Training manual	N/a		
Enloe and Lewin (1987)	40	AU, CA, GB, US	JP	Children	Survey	Post		
Feldman (1991)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Firmin et al. (2006)	24	Mixed	US	Children	Interviews	Post		
Forster (1994)	124	Mixed	GB	Assignees	Survey	Post		
Frazer (1997)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Fry (2007)	N/a	N/a	JP	Children	Literature study	N/a		
Furukawa (1997)	199	Mixed	JP	Adolescents	Survey	Pre During Post		0.72–0.93
Furuya et al. (2009)	305	Mixed	JP	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.77–0.96
Furuya et al. (2007)	305	Mixed	JP	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.65–0.82
Gama and Pedersen (1977)	31	US	BR	Assignees	Interviews	Post		
Gaw (2000)	66	US	Mixed	Students	Survey	Post		0.83–0.89
GMAC (2008)	154	N/a	Mixed	HR managers	Survey	N/a		
Gmelch (1980)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1987)	89	Mixed	US	Assignees, spouses	Survey	Post		
Goodman (1990)	N/a	Mixed	JP	Students	Ethnography	Post		
Gregersen (1992)	174	Mixed	US	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.80–0.93
Gregersen and Black (1992)	321	Mixed	US	Assignees	Survey	During		0.72–0.90
Gregersen and Black (1996)	173	Mixed	JP	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.74–0.94
Gregersen and Stroh (1997)	104	Mixed	FI	Assignees, spouses	Survey	Post		0.61–0.91
Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963)	N/a	N/a	US	Students	Interviews and survey	Post		

Appendix A (Continued)

Article	Number of respondents	Host-country ^a	Home-country ^a	Function	Methodology	Research timing	Control group	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
Haan (1974)	77	Mixed	US	Peace Corps Volunteers	Survey	Pre Post		
Hammer et al. (2003)	817	N/a	Mixed	N/a	Survey	N/a		0.80–0.91
Hammer et al. (1998)	77	Mixed	US	Assignees, spouses	Survey	Post		0.69–0.89
Harrell-Bond (1989)	N/a	N/a	Africa	Refugees	Literature study	N/a		
Harris and Associates (1969)	1581	Mixed	US	Peace Corps Volunteers	Interviews	Post	Yes	
Harvey (1982)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Harvey (1989)	79	Mixed	US	Firms	Survey	N/a		
Hirshon et al. (1997)	265	LR, PH, YE	US	Peace Corps Volunteers	Survey	Post	Yes	
Huff (2001)	110	Mixed	US	Children	Survey	Post	Yes	0.81–0.95
Huffman (1989)	345	Mixed	US	Missionaries	Survey	Post		0.92
Hurn (1999)	N/a	N/a	N/a	Assignees	N/a	Post		
Hyder and Lovblad (2007)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Jansson (1986)	N/a	N/a	N/a	Peace Corps Volunteers, ex-convicts, ex-nuns, hospitalized in a psychiatric institution	Ethnography	Post		
Kanno (2000)	4	US	JP	Children	Narrative inquiry	During Post		
Kidder (1992)	45	Mixed	JP	Students	Focus group, interviews	Post		
Kim (2001)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Klaff (2002)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Kraimer et al. (2009)	88	Mixed	US	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.85–0.92
La Brack (2007)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Workshop	N/a		
Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001)	58	Mixed	Mixed	Assignees	Survey	Post		
Lazarova and Caligiuri (2004)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Lazarova and Cerdin (2007)	133	Mixed	CA, FR, US	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.66–0.83
Lazarova and Tarique (2005)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Ley and Kobayashi (2005)	56	CA	HK	Returning migrants	Focus group	Post		
Linehan and Scullion (2002)	50	Mixed	Mixed	Assignees	Interviews	Post		
Longworth (1971)	~ 3,500	Mixed	US	Peace Corps Volunteers	Survey	Post		
Losi (2000)	N/a	Kosovo	Albania	Refugees	N/a	N/a		
Lucca-Irizarry and Pacheco (1992)	117	US	PR	Students, university teachers	Survey	Post		0.89
Lysgaard (1955)	~200	Mixed	US	Students	Interviews	Post		
MacDonald and Arthur (2003)	8	Mixed	CA	Assignees	Interviews and survey	Post		
MacDonald and Arthur (2005)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Magala and Rejmer (2005)	53	KZ	PL	Returning migrants	Interviews	Post		
Maron and Connell (2008)	N/a	Mixed	TO	N/a	Ethnography	N/a		
Martin (1984)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Martin (1986)	173	DE, TR	US	Students	Survey	Post		
Martin et al. (1995)	248	ES, FR, GB, IT	US	Students	Survey	Pre Post		
Martin and Harrell (1996) and Martin and Harrell (2004)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Maybarduk (2008)	158	Mixed	US	Spouses	Survey	Post		0.92–0.94
McDonald (1993)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Moore et al. (1987)	255	Mixed	US	Missionaries	Survey	Post		
Napier and Peterson (1991)	99	Mixed	US	Assignees	Survey	Post		
Naumann (1992)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Nelson (2005)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Newton et al. (2007)	52 firms 10 HR managers	N/a	AU	Firms, HR managers	Interviews and survey	N/a		0.61–0.97
Noguchi (2005)	17	US	JP	Second generation migrants	Survey	Post		

Oberg (1960)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Onwumechili et al. (2003)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
O'Sullivan (2002)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Paik et al. (2002)	12	Mixed	Mixed	Assignees, HR managers	Case study	N/a		
Pascoe (2000)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Peltonen (1997)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Podolsky (2004)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Pollock and van Reken (2001)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Interviews	N/a		
Punnett (1997)	~ 170	N/a	US	Assignees, spouses, HR managers	Focus group and interviews	During		
Pusch (1998)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Pusch and Loewenthal (1988)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Training manuals	N/a		
Ramji (2006)	20	GB	IN	Returning migrants	Interviews	During		
Raschio (1987)	18	Mixed	US	Students	Interviews	Post		
Rhoades (1977)	133	Mixed	ES	Returning migrants	Interviews	Post		
Ripmeester (2005)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Riusala and Suutari (2000)	301	Mixed	FI	Assignees	Survey	During		
Rogers and Ward (1993)	20	Mixed	NZ	Students	Survey	During Post		0.80–0.86
Rohrlich and Martin (1991)	248	Mixed	US	Students	Survey	Post		
Sahin (1990)	800	Mixed	TR	Students (second generation)	Survey	Post	Yes	0.82–0.90
Sasagawa et al. (2006)	141	Mixed	JP	Students	Survey	Post	Yes	0.55–0.78
Schlossberg (1988)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature review	N/a		
Schuetz (1945)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature review	N/a		
Schulz (1985)	127	Mixed	US	Families	Survey	During or Post		
Selmer et al. (2000)	121	HK	Mixed	Assignees	Survey	During	Yes	0.68–0.88
Solomon (1995)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Stein (1966)	62	CO	US	Peace Corps Volunteers	Survey	During Post		
Stevens et al. (2006)	305	Mixed	JP	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.75–0.90
Storti (1997)	N/a	N/a	N/a	Peace Corps Volunteers	Interviews	Post		
Storti (2001)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Interviews	N/a		
Stringham (1993)	3	N/a	US	Families	Diaries, ethnography, interviews and survey	Post		
Stroh (1995)	51	N/a	US	HR managers	Survey	N/a		0.62–0.75
Stroh et al. (1998)	266	Mixed	US	Assignees, spouses	Survey	Post		
Stroh et al. (2000)	266	Mixed	US	Assignees, spouses	Survey	Post		0.56–0.93
Sundquist and Johansson (1996)	398	SE	Latin America	Refugees	Interviews and survey	During or Post	Yes	
Sussman (1986)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature review	N/a		
Sussman (2000)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Sussman (2001)	44	N/a	US	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.60–0.92
Sussman (2002)	113	JP	US	Teachers	Survey	Post		0.67–0.92
Sussman (2007)	50	AU, CA	HK	Returning migrants	Interviews and survey	Post		
Suutari and Brewster (2003)	53	Mixed	FI	Assignees	Survey	During Post		0.48–0.92
Suutari and Välimaa (2002)	53	Mixed	FI	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.51–0.86
Szkudlarek (2008)	31	N/a	N/a	Trainers	Interviews	N/a		
Szkudlarek (2009)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Tamura and Furnham (1993)	1941	Mixed	JP	Children, adolescents	Survey	Post	Yes	
Thompson and Christofi (2006)	8	Mixed	CY	Students	Interviews	Post		
Triandis (1989)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Tung (1998)	409	Mixed	Mixed	Assignees	Survey	During or Post		
Uehara (1986)	58	Mixed	US	Students	Survey	Post	Yes	0.78–0.93
U.S. Peace Corps and Graul (1996)	1253	Mixed	N/a	Peace Corps Volunteers	Survey	Post		
Useem and Downie (1976)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Sánchez Vidal et al. (2007)	122	Mixed	ES	Assignees	Survey	Post		0.73–0.90
Ward et al. (2001)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		

Appendix A (Continued)

Article	Number of respondents	Host-country ^a	Home-country ^a	Function	Methodology	Research timing	Control group	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
Westwood et al. (1986)	46	CA	N/a	Students	Survey	During		
Westwood and Leung (1994)	45	HK	Mixed	Assignees	Interviews	During		
Wilson (1993)	272	Mixed	AU, EC, NO, SE	Students	Interviews and survey	Post		
Wise (2000)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Yoshida et al. (1999)	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	Literature study	N/a		
Yoshida et al. (2002)	512	Mixed	JP	Children while abroad	Survey	Post		
Yoshida et al. (2003)	486	N/a	JP	Non-returnee respondents	Survey	N/a		
Zweig et al. (2006)	100	Mixed	CN	Entrepreneurs	Survey	Post	Yes	

^a Country codes: Australia (AU), Brazil (BR), Canada (CA), China (CN), Colombia (CO), Cyprus (CY), Ecuador (EC), Finland (FI), France (FR), Germany (DE), Ghana (GH), Hong Kong (HK), India (IN), Italy (IT), Ivory Coast (CI), Japan (JP), Kazakhstan (KZ), Liberia (LR), Malaysia (MY), New Zealand (NZ), Norway (NO), Philippines (PH), Poland (PL), Puerto Rico (PR), Singapore (SG), Spain (ES), Sweden (SE), Switzerland (CH), Thailand (TH), Tonga (TO), Turkey (TR), United Kingdom (GB) United States of America (US), Yemen (YE), Mixed (5 or more different countries).

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