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# Coming Home: An Exploratory Quantitative Study of the Relationship Between Reentry Shock and Mindset

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# Coming Home:

# An Exploratory Quantitative Study of the Relationship Between Reentry Shock and Mindset

Julia Lee Fagen

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of Bethel University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

St. Paul, MN

2021

Approved by:

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Abstract

With a growing number of international secondary schools world-wide (International School Council, 2019) and a rise in the number of individuals repatriating to their home country after studying abroad (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018), there is a need for more information about how to support repatriates. This exploratory quantitative study investigated the correlation between reentry shock and mindset in individuals who attended an international primary and/or secondary international school in Taiwan, moved away from Taiwan, and then returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education. This study revealed a negative relationship between these two variables, however, the demonstrated negative relationship did not reach statistical significance. Further research examining the relationship between reentry shock and mindset could benefit the countless individuals who will experience repatriation in their lifetimes.

Dedication

To my best friend and husband, Matt, and our two kids, Snow and Theo. I could not have done this without all your love, support, and sacrifice. Thank you for cheering me on!

Acknowledgments

I have been very fortunate to work with many talented, dedicated, and genuinely caring people at Bethel University. First, I would like to thank my dissertation advisor, Dr. Mary Whitman. Mary's endless support and care for both my research and my well-being were invaluable as I worked towards completing this dissertation. I would also like to thank Dr. Tracy Reimer who personally welcomed me into the Bethel program from the very first residency, worked with me on my internship, and then served as one of my committee members. Tracy's kind and consistent encouragement helped me throughout my time at Bethel.

A very special thank you to Dr. Dan Long who introduced me to the field of study surrounding cross-cultural identity. Dan inspired me to work towards an Ed.D., and he encouraged me to focus my research on repatriation. Both personally and professionally, I consider myself exceptionally lucky to know Dan, as he always encourages me, challenges me, and most importantly, makes me laugh.

In my Bethel cohort, I unexpectedly made three life-long friends: Dr. Theresa Anderson, Dr. Pamela Patnode, and Dr. Kristine Flesher. Thank you, "musketeers", for all the conversation, love, and support. You all helped me feel connected and inspired, and I continue to learn from each of you.

I would like to extend my most heartfelt thank you to my family. My husband, Matt, is quite possibly the nicest and most selfless person on the planet, and I am thankful for him every day. Thank you, Matt, for being a fantastic life partner, a patient listener, a fearless supporter, and one who always helps me to see the good in things. Thank you also to Snow and Theo, my amazing kids. Without hesitation, Snow and Theo have cheered me on from the very beginning of this work. What a gift.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

## Chapter 1: Introduction

Since the year 2000, the number of international primary and secondary schools has more than tripled, and there are now approximately 5.6 million students attending more than 11,000 international primary and secondary schools worldwide (International School Council, 2019). Concomitant with the increase in the number of international primary and secondary schools, the number of international students seeking higher education in the United States has nearly doubled since the year 2000 (Institute of International Education, 2020a). In the 2019-2020 school year, more than one million international students traveled to the United States to attend a college or university (Institute of International Education, 2020a). Many international students seek to stay in the host country post-graduation to pursue employment opportunities. However, in the past decade, the rates of repatriation post-graduation have increased significantly, especially in the People's Republic of China (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018).

Between 1978 and 2017, a total of 5,194,900 Chinese students traveled abroad to pursue education, with 83.73% of these students returning to China after graduation (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018). Taiwan, also known as the Republic of China (R.O.C.), ranks seventh in the world in sending students to the U.S. to study (Institute of International Education, 2020b). In 2019/2020 school year, a total of 23,724 students from Taiwan traveled abroad for study (Institute of International Education, 2020a). The process of repatriating to one's home culture after living abroad can be taxing, and many individuals experience significant challenges readjusting upon returning to their home culture (Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Gray & Savicki, 2015; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Li & Gale, 2018; Presbitero, 2016).

**Background of the Study**

Individuals who leave their home country to live, work, or study abroad are influenced by the experience of being immersed in a different culture (Berry, 1997; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1962; Pollack, Van Reken, & Pollock, 2017). When individuals return to their home country, they can experience *reentry shock* (Sieter & Waddell, 1989; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010), sometimes called *reverse culture shock* (Oberg, 1960)*, repatriation* (Adler, 1981; Sussman, 2000; Sussman, 2002) or *reacculturation* (Berry, 1997; Berry, 2005; Onwumechili, Nwosu, Jackson, & James-Hughes, 2003). Reentry shock can affect an individual regardless of the amount of time that the individual spends in the host country (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012). The experience of traveling abroad can change how an individual thinks of one's self, family, and home culture (Chang, 2010; Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Gaw, 2000; Huff, 2001; Le & Lacost, 2017).

Individuals who experience reentry shock can experience a sense of isolation (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012) and a sense of not fitting in with those in their home culture who did not travel abroad (Chang, 2010; Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019). When experiencing reentry shock, individuals may struggle to maintain relationships with those they left behind in their host culture (Gorp, Boros, Bracke, & Stevens, 2017), and they may have trouble reconnecting with friends and family when they return to their home culture (Chang, 2010; Gorp, Boros, Bracke, & Stevens, 2017; Le & Lacost, 2017). With the increased number of individuals from the People's Republic of China that will experience repatriation (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018), and the known impact that repatriation has on individuals and families, there is a need for continued exploration of factors that may be beneficial in supporting the process of sojourning home.

There is a growing body of research about how mindset can affect one's views of that individual's own abilities and how one reacts and responds to adverse experiences. Entity theorists, or individuals with a *fixed mindset*, view their abilities as non-malleable, and tend to have a negative reaction to adverse or challenging experiences (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). Those with a fixed mindset view setbacks and perceived failures as an indication of their lack of ability, and often give up when faced with challenges (Aditomo, 2015; Hochanadel & Finamore, 2015). When examined over time, individuals with a fixed mindset do not perform as well academically as their peers with a growth mindset (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007) and are less motivated to overcome perceived challenges, attributing their perceived failures to variables outside of their control (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995).

Conversely, incremental theorists, or individuals with a *growth mindset*, tend to exhibit higher levels of resilience when faced with adversity (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007), and these individuals tend to attribute success to the effort put into that situation or challenge (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). When faced with perceived failures or challenges, individuals with a growth mindset tend to view these obstacles as situations that can be worked on and overcome with effort (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007).

A growth mindset is a malleable skill that can be developed over time when techniques for improving this mindset are modeled (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Seaton, 2018). Students that have teachers who model a growth mindset are more

likely to develop a growth mindset themselves (Seaton, 2018). Children who have parents who use process praise, recognizing the effort put into learning new skills and overcoming challenges, develop a growth mindset (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018).

**Statement of the Problem**

The process of returning home after living abroad is a complex and highly individualized experience with multiple variables that can impact the transition. These transitions back home after living abroad can be difficult due to an individual's experience of being embedded in another culture's values, social dynamics, and specific cultural expectations (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Chang, 2010; Gorp, Boros, Bracke, & Stevens, 2017; Le & Lacost, 2017; Pritchard, 2011). When an individual returns home from time abroad, the traveler's experiences have often shaped how the person sees both the home community and oneself, making the readjustment home more difficult than the individual may have anticipated (Adler, 1981; Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012; Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2002). Readjusting to one's home culture can be more difficult than the adjustment made when expatriating to the host culture (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Linehan & Scullion, 2002).

While scholars have provided significant evidence regarding the external support systems that help individuals in the repatriation process (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Gorp et al., 2017; Huff, 2001; Li & Gale, 2018), less is known about the internal support systems that may be beneficial when facing reentry to the home culture. Specifically, while researchers have found evidence that some individual traits can have an effect on the reentry experience (Presbitero, 2016; Furukawa, 1997; Van Der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, Chiu, Lonner, Matsumoto, & Ward,

2013), scholars and practitioners lack information about the ways in which internal support systems, especially those that are malleable, such as growth mindset, can help to alleviate reentry shock among repatriates.

**Statement of Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to explore the correlation between reentry shock and mindset as reported by individuals who identified Taiwan as their home, attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, and returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education after living abroad. Through a quantitative approach using surveys distributed to participants, demographic data was gathered, and scales were used to measure levels of reentry shock and the individual's mindset (fixed or growth).

**Research Question**

The primary research question of this study was: What relationship, if any, exists between reentry shock and mindset in individuals who attended a primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan to live abroad, and then reentered Taiwan to work in the field of education?

**Null Hypothesis**

$H1_0$: There is a no correlation between reentry shock and mindset.

**Significance of the Study**

While the expatriation and repatriation experiences are not new phenomena, in the past two decades there has been a steady and significant rise in the number of students that take advantage of international educational opportunities (Institute of International Education, 2020a). As the number of students studying abroad continues to climb, there has also been a rise in the quantity of students sojourning home to live and work after their studies, especially in the

People's Republic of China (P.R.C.). In the P.R.C. between 1978 and 2017, a total of 83.73% of students that left to attend school and to work abroad returned to their home country (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018).

Researchers have extensively examined international students and their experiences expatriating to colleges and universities abroad (Aldawsari, Adams, Grimes & Kohn, 2018; Lértora & Croffie, 2019; Park, Lee, Choi, & Zepernick, 2017; Wang, Li, Noltemeyer, Wang, Zhang, & Shaw, 2018). Recent studies have focused specifically on the transition of African international students to U.S. universities (Mwangi, Changamire, & Mosselson, 2019), Japanese students and their adjustment to a U.S. university (Sato & Hodge, 2015), Taiwanese students' adjustment to a U.S. university (Wang, Wang, Heppner, & Chuang, 2017) and Chinese international students and their adjustment to U.S. universities (Li, Heath, Jackson, Allen, Fischer, & Chan, 2017; Tsai, Wang, & Wei, 2017).

In general, far less research has been conducted about process of sojourning home (Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018). In addition, the research that has been conducted is scattered across several different domains and in a wide variety of different contexts (Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018). Much of the reentry research has been gathered in the context of employees of multinational companies who are returning home after working abroad (James & Azungah, 2020; Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010; Shen & Hall, 2009; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007). Researchers have also examined the reentry experiences of students who have participated in short and long-term study abroad programs (Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Gaw, 2000; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010; Gray & Savicki, 2015) and youth who have participated in expedition programs (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012). Very little research has been

conducted examining the reentry experiences of international students returning to their home country after completing college or university abroad. The research that has been conducted is culturally specific, leaving several gaps in the research (e.g., Chang, 2010; Jung, Lee, & Morales, 2013; Le & Lacost, 2017; Li & Gale, 2018; Pritchard, 2011).

Examining protective factors that may be helpful to individuals that expatriate for schooling or for employment and then repatriate to their home country has the potential to help this growing population of highly mobile individuals (Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018). While researchers know that cultural intelligence (Presbitero, 2016), personality (Furukawa, 1997; Van Der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, Chiu, Lonner, Matsumoto, & Ward, 2013), and social support (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Huff, 2001) can be critical factors in how an individual repatriates, researchers know less about how to help individuals develop malleable skills, like growth mindset, that may be helpful through the challenging process of living abroad and returning home.

Although there is abundant research about the many ways in which growth mindset can help individuals to overcome challenges (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, Chiu & Hong, 1995; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Truax, 2018), there has been far less research focused on populations outside of the United States (e.g., Aditomo, 2015; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999; Hussein, 2018; Zeng, Chen, Cheung, & Peng, 2019; Zeng, Hou, & Peng, 2016). After an extensive literature review, no evidence was discovered regarding the correlation between reentry shock and mindset. Gathering more information about the mindsets of individuals in context to the reentry experience may provide insight into how reentry shock relates to an individual's mindset and

how developing a specific mindset may assist individuals who are preparing to experience the process of sojourning home.

Further research in this area is potentially valuable for colleges and universities as they prepare their international students for a return to their home country, especially individuals who may share a similar cultural background and similar schooling experience. Research in this area could also be beneficial to multinational companies who intend to support employees after an international posting (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; James & Azungah, 2020; Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010). There are many professions that include short- and long-term international travel, including United States government positions in the military and state department. Exploring mindset in this context of cross-cultural exchange and repatriation has the potential to expand the base of knowledge about mindset in general and contribute to the body of research currently being conducted in the field of mindset.

**Definition of Terms**

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined as follows:

*Culture Shock: "*…an intense, negative affective response, both psychological and physiological, experienced by new expatriates when faced with unfamiliar symbols, roles, relationships, social cognitions, and behavior" (Sussman, 2000, p. 355).

*Fixed Mindset:* Individuals that possess a fixed mindset believe that intelligence is non-malleable or "unchangeable" (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007, p. 247).

*Growth Mindset:* Individuals that possess a growth mindset view intelligence as a, "malleable quality that can be developed" (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007, p. 247).

*International School*: An educational institution located outside of the United States where curriculum is delivered either entirely or partly in English.

*International Students*: Individuals who attend an educational institution outside of their home country.

*Reentry Shock*: The process of adjustment that occurs when returning home after sojourning abroad (Seiter & Waddell, 1989; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010). Associated with the terms *repatriation* (Gray & Savicki, 2015; James & Azungah, 2020; Kranz & Goedderz, 2020; Le & Lacost, 2017; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Smith & Kearney, 2016), *reentry* (Kranz & Goedderz, 2020; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010), and *reverse culture shock* (Gaw, 2000).

**Organization of the Remainder of the Study**

Chapter Two includes a review of the literature that relates to this exploratory quantitative study, including research related to reentry shock, mindset, and the conceptual frameworks that were applied to this study. In chapter Three, methodology for this study is presented. Chapter Four includes the results and findings, and chapter Five contains a discussion of the findings, including recommendations for additional research in this field of study.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to explore the correlation between reentry shock and mindset as reported by individuals who identified Taiwan as their home, attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan, and then returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education after living abroad. This literature review is intended to provide background information about international secondary schools, the theoretical framework for this study, reentry shock (and related terms), and mindset. Through the examination of these topics, this literature review aims to connect the information researchers have gathered about these topics in order to create a foundation for the current exploratory quantitative study.

### International Secondary Schools

In 2019, the International School Council reported that approximately 5.6 million children attended more than 11,000 international primary and secondary schools located around the world. Since the year 2000, the number of children attending international primary and secondary schools located outside of the United States increased five-fold (International School Council, 2019). In the last two decades, the number of international schools increased from 2,584 schools in the year 2000 to 10,438 schools in the year 2019 (R. Gaskell, personal communication, August 5, 2019).

The People's Republic of China (P.R.C.) recently reported a dramatic increase in the amount of private schools operating in the country. Between 2017 and 2018, the P.R.C. added 5,815 private schools, marking an increase of 35.4% in private schooling options (Ministry of Education People's Republic of China, 2019). The People's Republic of China also hosts the greatest number of international schools with 864 private international schools (R. Gaskell,

personal communication, August 5, 2019). With the development of international Chinese-Owned Private Schools (iCPS), the P.R.C. has seen a significant rise in enrollment in Western-style private schools that include instruction in English. In the 2018/2019 academic year, approximately 563 international Chinese-Owned Private Schools (iCPS) enrolled approximately 245,500 students (R. Gaskell, personal communication, August 5, 2019). Parents in the P.R.C. enroll their children in private Western-style secondary schools with instruction in English with the hope that this will increase their child's chances of being accepted at top-tier colleges and universities and international careers abroad (International School Counsel, 2019).

**International student population and repatriation.** Although some international students pursue staying in the host country for employment opportunities, there is a growing trend of individuals returning to their home country after schooling abroad. In 2018, the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China reported that 5,194,900 Chinese students traveled abroad for educational purposes between 1978 and 2017 (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018). The P.R.C.'s Ministry of Education reported that 83.73% of these students then returned to China after completing their studies (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018). Taiwan is not included in the statistics from the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, however, Taiwan, also known as the Republic of China (R.O.C.), ranks seventh in the world in terms of sending students to the United States for international study (Institute of International Education, 2020b).

## Theoretical Framework

**Reentry shock theory.** While culture shock describes the experiences of many who move abroad and must adjust to new surroundings, new cultural expectations, and new relationships (Oberg, 1960; Sussman, 2000), reentry shock theory is rooted in the repatriation

experiences of those returning home after sojourning abroad. Reentry shock is synonymous with the term *reverse culture shock* which has been defined as, "the process of readjusting, reacculturating, and reassimilating into one's own home culture after living in a different culture for a significant period of time" (Gaw, 2000, p. 83-84). While sojourners may excitedly anticipate their journey back home after time spent in a host culture, the repatriation experience can involve a significant period of readjustment due to the changes that individuals experience when traveling abroad (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). Gullahorn and Gullahorn's 1963 seminal study examined the readjustment phase of repatriation and proposed that travelers should anticipate a similar transition period to what was likely experienced when expatriating. The experience of returning home can be accompanied by a period of reentry shock which can include feelings of isolation (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012), grief (Chamove & Soeterik, 2006), depression and anxiety (Davis, Suarez, Crawford, & Rehfuss, 2013). Educating individuals about reentry shock and providing support to those that experience reentry can help to reframe the process (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019) and assist with the readjustment phase of sojourning home (Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010; Young, 2014).

**Repatriation and Cultural Adjustment**

Early research that explored the effects of repatriation and reverse culture shock was conducted in the context of the experiences of soldiers as they reentered their home country after their time of service abroad (Scheutz, 1944). Researchers in the 1950s and 1960s continued to examine the effects of both expatriation (Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960) and repatriation (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963) and developed theories based on participants' reported experiences.

As a result of interviewing 200 Fulbright scholars who expatriated to Norway, Lysgaard (1955) developed the U-Curve Theory which was meant to describe the process of expatriation and adaptation to another culture over time. In Lysgaard's (1955) U-curve, individuals who expatriate go through four critical phases of adjustment: honeymoon, culture shock, adjustment, and mastery. Lysgaard's (1955) U-curve theory proposed that individuals followed a specific pattern of transition, and within a general timeframe of transition, as they moved through their cultural adjustment.

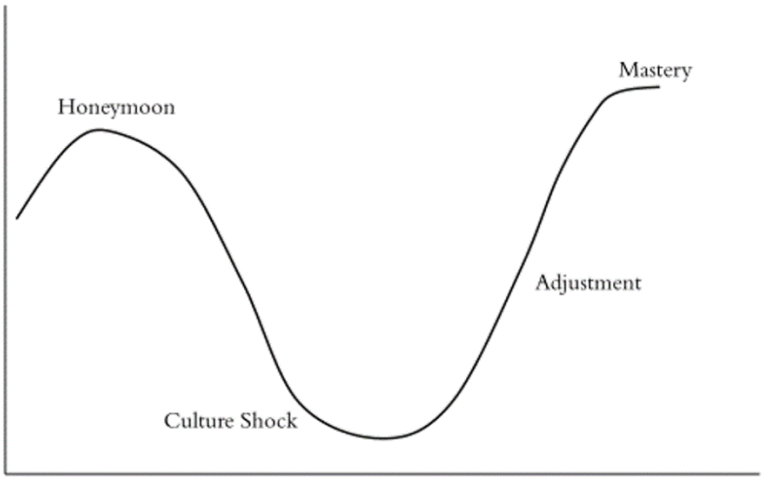


*Figure 1*. The four phases of transition as described by Lysgaard's (1955) U-curve theory.

In their seminal repatriation research, Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) presented the W-Curve Theory which extended Lysgaard's (1955) U-Curve Theory. When sojourners make the transition between cultures (expatriating or repatriating), they can encounter an adjustment period that is more complex than a U-shaped curve that includes only one phase of initial shock and then recovery (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). Cultural adjustments are unique to individuals and their circumstances, and periods of adjustment experienced by expatriates and by

repatriates can be impacted by the variables of "interaction and sentiment" (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963, p. 41).

According to Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963), a sojourners's cultural adjustment period can be influenced by several factors including how well an individual adapts to a host country, how valued or understood an individual feels in a host or home culture, and by the frequency with which they have meaningful interactions with others. Individuals that move geographically within one country can also experience a period of adjustment as they adapt to the social norms and expectations of their new environment (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963).

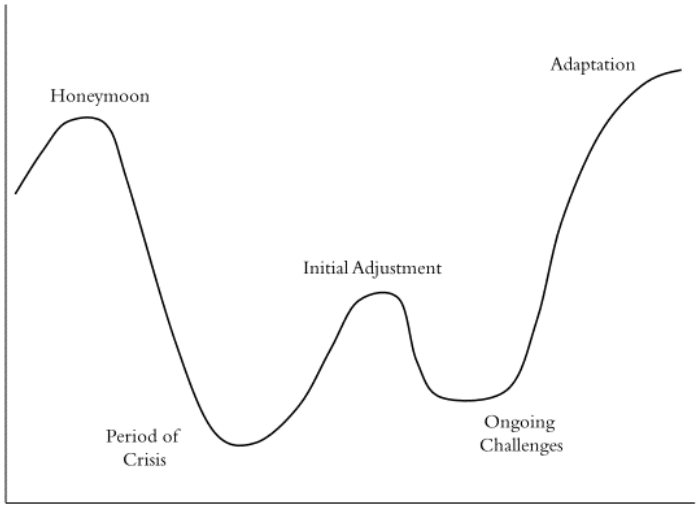


*Figure 2.* The W-curve of cross-cultural transition as described by Gullahorn & Gullahorn (1963).

**Acculturation strategies and culture shock.** Berry (1997) described four acculturation strategies that individuals can use when adapting to a new cultural environment: *assimilation, separation, integration, and marginalization* (p. 9). Individuals that *assimilate* interact frequently with the host culture and their former cultural identity is not maintained. *Separation* occurs when one keeps the host and home culture entirely separate, and *integration* occurs when

one works to interact with both the home and host culture, maintaining aspects of both. When an individual does not maintain their home culture nor do they interact with others from the host culture, *marginalization* occurs (Berry, 1997).

When moving from one culture to another, individuals experience *acculturation* (group level) and *psychological acculturation* (individual level) (Berry, 1997; Graves 1967). The process of acculturation is highly individualized, and one's experiences can vary widely based on various personal attributes and circumstances, making the ease or severity of the adjustment and acculturation process for each person difficult to predict (Chien, 2016). However, when one experiences great psychological distress when adjusting to a new culture, that individual can experience *culture shock* (Oberg, 1960). Oberg (1960) described culture shock as "an occupational disease" that is "…precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (p. 177). Sussman (2000) defined culture shock as, "…an intense, negative affective response, both psychological and physiological, experienced by new expatriates when faced with unfamiliar symbols, roles, relationships, social cognitions, and behavior" (p. 355).

Oberg (1960) acknowledged that most individuals move through the stages of transition successfully, eventually emerging with satisfactory levels of adjustment. However, the experience of culture shock can be a painful process including periods of extraordinary loneliness (Edwards-Joseph & Baker, 2012; Khawaja & Stallman, 2011), depression (Frank & Hou, 2019), and anxiety (Lombard, 2014). Individuals who experience culture shock can end up leaving their educational institutions or sponsoring companies due to the serious effects of the dislocation they feel when embedded in a culture outside of their own (Cruwys, Ng, Haslam, & Haslam, 2020). Researchers have examined how to ease the cultural transition for international

students when they move abroad to attend universities (Coles & Swami, 2012; Cruwys, Ng, Haslam, & Haslam, 2020; Elemoe & Türküm, 2019). By providing resources and support to those making a cultural transition in a host country, institutions can improve international student mental health (Khawaja & Stallman, 2011; Li, Heath, Jackson, Allen, Fischer, & Chan, 2017) and retain international students in their educational programs (Cruwys, Ng, Haslam, & Haslam, 2020; Park, Lee, Choi & Zepernick, 2017).

**Reentry shock, repatriation, and related terms.** Like expatriation, repatriation forces an individual to go through the experience of shifting between the expectations and values of one culture to the expectations and vales of another (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007). Although an individual returning to their home country may anticipate that going home will be less difficult compared to their move abroad, many individuals encounter another unexpected transition period upon their return (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). This transition period has been sometimes referred to as reentry shock (Sieter & Waddell, 1989; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010) or reverse culture shock (Gaw, 2000; Presbitero, 2016). Gaw (2000) described reverse culture shock as, "the process of readjusting, reacculturating, and reassimilating into one's own home culture after living in a different culture for a significant period of time" (p. 83-84). Like culture shock, reverse culture shock is associated with an individual feeling out of sync, isolated, stressed, and disconnected upon their return to their home country (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012; Chang, 2010; Sussman, 2001). While studies reveal that most individuals experience a period of transition when they return from abroad (Kranz & Goedderz, 2020), the contributing factors that impact the extent to which individuals experience this adjustment and the factors that can assist or inhibit

the process of adjusting back to an individual's home culture differ across participant populations (Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018).

The terms used to describe the process of returning home after sojourning abroad also vary across studies, with some research referring to the process as *reentry* (Kranz & Goedderz, 2020; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010) or *repatriation* (Gray & Savicki, 2015; James & Azungah, 2020; Kranz & Goedderz, 2020; Le & Lacost, 2017; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Smith & Kearney, 2016), and other research referring to the same or similar processes using the terms *reentry shock* (Seiter & Waddell, 1989; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010), *reverse culture shock* (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012; Huff, 2001; Young, 2014), *reentry friction* (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019) or simply *adjustment* (Lysgaard, 1955; Werkman, 1980). Gray and Savicki (2015) described the entanglement of these terms by stating, "Reentry is more complex than "reverse culture shock," though it seems to contain that component" (p. 264). While several different terms have been used by researchers when examining this phenomenon of returning home, there is significant overlap and interchange in the findings regardless of the terms used to describe the process.

**Repatriation studies.** Since Gullahorn and Gullahorn's (1963) seminal work, researchers have continued to explore the repatriation process to attempt to better understand the impact this transition has on individuals (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012; Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Chang, Yuan & Chuang, 2013; Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Gorp, Boros, Bracke, & Stevens, 2017; Pitts, 2016; Presbitero, 2016; Pritchard, 2011; Smith & Kearney, 2016), their families (Chang, 2010; Ramos, Mustafa, & Haddad, 2017), and their communities (Isogai, Hayashi & Uno, 1999; James & Azungah, 2020). Employees of multinational companies have also been examined as employers work to

understand how to support and retain employees through the repatriation process (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; James & Azungah, 2020; Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007). The reentry experiences of international students who attended a higher education institution in the United States and then returned to their home country after attending university have also been examined (Le & Lacost, 2017; Li & Gale, 2018).

As study abroad programs have become more common in higher education institutions, the reentry experiences of students attending study abroad programs have been the subject of research (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Gaw, 2000; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010) along with the reentry experiences of children of missionaries (Bikos, Kocheleva, King, Chang, McKenzie, Roenicke, & Eckard, 2009; Davis, Suarez, Crawford, & Rehfuss, 2013; Huff, 2001) and third culture kids (Peterson & Plamondon, 2009; Smith & Kearney, 2016) who return to their home country after growing up abroad.

**Repatriating to countries outside of the United States.** Although much of the research focusing on repatriation has focused on individuals returning to the United States, there have been some repatriation studies conducted that examine the experiences of individuals living outside of the United States. Some of the most recent research has focused on individuals repatriating to their homes in India (Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010), China (Guo, Porschitz, & Alves, 2013), Taiwan (Li & Gale, 2018), Korea (Jung, Lee, & Morales, 2013), Western Europe (Linehan & Scullion, 2002), Spain (S'nchez, Sanz Valle, Barba Aragón, 2010; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007), and Vietnam (Le & Lacost, 2017). In these international contexts, researchers have found that support provided by an individual's company

can assist with the process of repatriation, leading to higher levels of satisfaction with their employment (Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007). Chinese repatriates were motivated to move home to pursue job opportunities and to be near family (Guo, Porschitz, & Alves, 2013), while Vietnamese students returning home after attending university abroad expressed that the repatriation process was more difficult than expatriating to their host country (Le & Lacost, 2017). In Li and Gale's 2018 study, Taiwanese repatriates identified individual coping strategies that assisted with their repatriation. With a wide variety of individual, cultural, and contextual variables, it is not possible to generalize the findings from these international studies. However, these international studies point to the importance of taking into account the specific cultural characteristics that may impact the reentry experiences of individuals sojourning home.

**Reentry and impact on well-being.** The process that individuals go through when moving between cultures has been found to be highly individualized (Berry, 1997; Gray & Savicki, 2015; Smith & Kearney, 2016; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007), and one can be impacted by many factors when experiencing a cross-cultural move (location, political climate, economic climate, personal experiences), which in turn impacts one's reentry process overall (Berry, 1997). The number of variables that can impact one's experience when repatriating and the variety of criteria that have been used to identify participants in repatriation studies make it difficult to compare outcomes for repatriates (Berry, 1997; Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018).

Researchers have found that the process of reentry is often more difficult than sojourners anticipate (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Linehan & Scullion, 2002). While travelers can anticipate that expatriation will be challenging

because of moving to a culture outside of their own, they can underestimate the challenges in moving back home, unaware that the experiences abroad have impacted their habits (Chang, 2010; Le & Lacost, 2017), expectations (S'nchez, Sanz Valle, Barba Aragón, 2010), social connections (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012), and identity (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Sussman, 2001).

Sojourners repatriating can be surprised by the difficulties they experience when returning home (Christofi & Thompson, 2007), which can, in turn, magnify the challenges associated with repatriating leading to higher levels of reverse culture shock (Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010) and a longer repatriation transition period overall (Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007). Without support through this critical transition back home, researchers have found that multinational companies experience a higher rate of turnover (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010). Schools with study abroad programs that do not prepare students for the transition home see lower levels of student well-being which can impact a student's ability to reacclimate to their college or university upon return (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Young, 2014). Likewise, individuals working in academia that spend time abroad for work through their universities benefitted from assistance when reentering their home country, which led to higher levels of satisfaction and retention (James & Azungah, 2020).

In Chamove and Soeterik (2006) found that high school students that had participated in a year-long study abroad program and then returned home exhibited levels of grief, "comparable to those recently experiencing loss from death" (p. 215). Individuals who repatriate to their home country have also been found to experience high levels of depression, anxiety and stress (Davis, Suarez, Crawford, & Rehfuss, 2013). Feelings of isolation (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman,

2012) and feelings of being out of sync with the home culture (Bikos, Kocheleva, King, Chang, McKenzie, Roenicke, & Eckard, 2009; Chang, 2010; Le & Lacost, 2017) have also been found to impact those that repatriate.

Reentry into the home culture also impacts relationships with others as the experience of being immersed in another culture can change how individuals expresses themselves and, in turn, relates to others in their home culture (Chang, 2010; Le & Lacost, 2017). Because the individual may have adopted some of their host culture's practices or beliefs, family members back in the home culture may also need to adjust to personality changes exhibited by that individual (Chang, 2010). In a 2010 study conducted in China, mothers reported feeling as though their children were "strangers" upon returning from abroad due to the many changes their children underwent after living in a Western culture (Chang, 2010, p.172). Many of the children adopted aspects of Western culture when living in the U.S. (e.g., choice of clothing, style of communication) which resulted in their mothers reporting that they no longer understood their child's values or behaviors (Chang, 2010).

In Christofi and Thompson (2007) noted that sojourners experiencing repatriation after a study abroad program expressed feeling as if they were straddling two cultures and reported having a sense of not belonging to either their host or home culture after their return. Similar findings are reported in much of the literature examining the experiences of Third Culture Kids (TCKs) who grow up outside of their passport country. Many TCKs express feeling as though they do not belong in their home of origin or in their host country (Moore & Barker, 2012; Pollock, Pollock, & Van Reken, 2017), causing a sense of “rootlessness” throughout their lives (Fail, Thompson, & Walker, 2004, p. 322).

Gender can impact an individual's repatriation experience as women encounter more difficulties in their reentry process due to their "pioneering roles" in multinational corporations (Linehan & Scullion, 2002, p. 262). Females experience lower levels of psychological well-being when going through the repatriation process (Davis, Suarez, Crawford, & Rehfuss, 2013), as well as higher levels of stress and anxiety (Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010) than their male counterparts.

**Reexamining Lysgaard's u-curve theory.** Lysgaard's (1955) U-curve theory has been re-examined over time, and more recent research challenges the U-curve model. Some researchers suggest that the U-curve theory should not be used as a predictor of adjustment because the process of adapting to another culture is too complex with too many variables that can impact one's experience (Chien, 2016; Ward et al., 1998; Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004).

When examining the expatriation process, Ward et al. (1998) described the adjustment to a new culture as a learning curve (not a U-curve) with the most rapid adjustments taking place at the beginning of a transition to a new culture and a leveling off of adjustment in the time following. Chien (2016) found that, "…adjustment is a complex set of experiences influenced in various ways by different internal and external factors, different cultural expectations, and the student's adaptation, negotiation, and resistance to social norms in the host context" (p. 48).

**Protective factors that impact the repatriation experience.** As researchers have examined repatriation and the difficulties associated with the cultural adjustment to returning home, they have looked for factors that may explain the wide variety of experiences that sojourners have when returning to their home of origin. Some studies have suggested that the individual's expectations can impact the reentry to their home country (Kostohryz, Wells, Wathen, & Wilson, 2014; Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010; S'nchez, Sanz Valle, Barba,

& Aragón, 2010). When travelers expect that the return to their home country will be less difficult than expatriation, they can experience a greater level of friction upon their arrival home (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019). Managing expectations and providing education about the reentry process can help mitigate the effects of repatriation (Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010).

Social support can also be critical when reentering one's home country (Bikos, Kocheleva, King, Chang, McKenzie, Roenicke, & Eckard, 2009). When a sojourner has maintained meaningful relationships with those in their home country and then returned to that network of social support, the repatriation experience can be easier for that individual (Gorp, Boros, Bracke, & Stevens, 2017). Dykhouse and Bikos (2019) found that individuals who more deeply adapted to the host country they visited experienced more difficulty when making the readjustment back to their home country. Conversely, a deeper attachment to the host country was found to positively impact the repatriation process in Zou, Wildschut, Cable, and Sedikides's 2018 study that examined the repatriation experiences of international teachers. These researchers found that nostalgia for past experiences helped repatriates to psychologically adjust to their home country, experiencing greater satisfaction and higher levels of self-esteem (Zou, Wildschut, Cable, & Sedikides, 2018).

Researchers have also explored how personality traits may be linked to cultural competence and connected to the experiences of the sojourners when moving between cultures (Huang, Chi & Lawler, 2005; Van Der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, Chiu, Lonner, Matsumoto, & Ward, 2013; Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004). Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, and Ferzandi (2006) found that, "expatriates who are emotionally stable, who are outgoing and agreeable, and who are high in openness to experience seem to function better than others" (p. 122). Individuals who move to another culture and have personality traits like agreeableness and conscientiousness

were also found to have higher levels of psychological well-being as they experienced a cross-cultural adjustment (Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004).

The importance of reentry training programs has been highlighted in much of the research about repatriation and reentry shock. Repatriates often report feeling that their experiences abroad are undervalued by those they return to in their home countries (Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010; Pollock, Pollock, & Van Reken, 2017; Smith & Kearney, 2016). By providing information and support about repatriation to those returning home, organizations can better prepare individuals for a successful readjustment (Pitts, 2016). Organizations that have established mentorships and outlets for repatriates to gather and discuss their experiences abroad have more success in retaining these repatriates (Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Shen & Hall, 2009; S'nchez, Sanz Valle, Barba, & Aragón, 2010; Wu, Zhuang, & Hung, 2014). Dykhouse and Bikos (2019) suggested that framing the repatriation transition with the term "re-entry friction" as opposed to "reverse culture shock" may positively impact participants, helping them to view the adjustment period as a progression rather than a fixed experience upon reentry (p. 96).

## Theoretical Framework

**Mindset theory.** Developed in the 1970s by Dweck et al., mindset theory is based on how individuals respond to challenges and setbacks, and how one's implicit theories about their intelligence and capabilities can impact outcomes across several domains (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck, 1975; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973). In research spanning the last several decades, studies have explored two distinct categories of mindset: fixed and growth. While individuals were found to have the same levels of ability, researchers found that the individual's mindset and approach to perceived challenges greatly impacted their performance (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973).

Individuals who possess a fixed mindset believe intelligence to be a fixed characteristic that is unmalleable and unchangeable (Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). When one has a fixed mindset, that person tends to retreat from challenging situations, lacking perseverance and confidence (Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016). Due to the perception of their abilities, those with a fixed mindset tend to spend less time addressing challenging situations and, as a result, achieve less academically (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016).

In contrast, individuals who possess a growth mindset believe intelligence to be malleable and attribute successes to hard work and dedication (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016). Individuals with a growth mindset believe that perseverance and personal effort can impact outcomes (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016) and, in turn, these individuals tend to extend greater effort (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999) and embrace difficult tasks (Yeager et al., 2016).

Research suggests that a growth mindset can be modeled and taught to others, thereby increasing an individual's ability to persist in challenging situations (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Truax, 2018).

**Learned Helplessness, Motivation, and Mindset**

In the 1960s, seminal research was conducted about how subjects respond to and adapt to trauma (Overmier & Seligman, 1967; Seligman & Maier, 1967; Seligman, Maier, & Geer, 1968).

Overmier and Seligman's (1967) research into the effects of trauma (using animals as subjects) led to decades of research into learned helplessness, motivation, and potential intervention models for individuals who have experienced trauma. Research initially examined how animal subjects responded after facing adverse events, and subsequently, the interventions that could be put into place in order to motivate and support the animals after experiencing trauma (Overmier & Seligman, 1967; Seligman & Maier, 1967; Seligman, Maier, & Geer, 1968). The research that Seligman, Maier, and Geer (1968) concluded that after animals experienced trauma, they could be trained and learn to overcome learned helplessness behaviors. This finding led researchers to investigate how an individual's past experiences, mindset, and motivation impact the response to perceived challenges (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973).

Dweck and Reppucci's (1973) seminal research explored the relationship between learned helplessness and achievement as experienced by children. A child's personality and motivation impacted how they responded to the failures and challenges they encountered, affecting how they persevered after experiencing failure (Dweck & Reppucci, 1973). Participants who attributed their inability to complete a difficult task to factors outside of their control tended to give up more easily and, "took less personal responsibility for outcomes" (Dweck & Reppucci, 1973, p. 115). Conversely, participants who were more persistent when faced with a challenge recognized that their own personal effort impacted outcomes (Dweck & Reppucci, 1973).

**Evolution of terms.** Several studies in the area of motivation and response followed, and researchers identified two distinct behavioral patterns: *mastery-oriented* and *helpless* (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck, 1975; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973). Mastery-oriented individuals were defined as individuals who persevere when faced with challenges, while individuals with

helpless behaviors were defined as individuals who avoid challenges (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). While mastery-oriented participants and helpless participants were found to have the same levels of general ability, researchers found that the way in which the participants approached challenges greatly affected how they performed overall (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973).

In subsequent research, the term *entity theorists* replaced the term *helpless*, and the term *incremental theorists* replaced *mastery-oriented* (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). Dweck (2006) began to refer to the two mindsets as *fixed* and *growth*, the terms most widely used in the field today.

**Fixed and growth mindset.** Individuals with a fixed mindset believe intelligence to be a fixed attribute that is unmalleable and unchangeable (Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). When individuals with a fixed mindset encounter difficulty, they tend to retreat from the challenge rather than persevere (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). When faced with difficult academic problems, having a fixed mindset impacts confidence and performance, with less time spent addressing perceived challenges (Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016) which can lead to lower academic achievement overall (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016).

In contrast, individuals with a growth mindset believe that intelligence can be developed through perseverance and personal effort (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016). Growth mindset enables an individual to view challenges as an opportunity to grow, and in turn, the individual tends to extend greater

effort to overcome perceived challenges (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). These individuals embrace difficult tasks (Yeager et al., 2016), value effort over performance outcomes (Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018), and set goals related to learning (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). Individuals with a growth mindset also tend to display higher levels of resilience, motivation, and growth in an academic setting (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999).

**Impact of mindset.** Much of the research about mindset has focused on academic performance and how one's mindset can directly impact academic outcomes. Research has shown that individuals with a growth mindset academically outperform individuals with a fixed mindset (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Smith, Brumskill, Johnson, & Zimmer, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016) and earn a higher grade point average than participants with a fixed mindset (Aronson, Fried, & Good, 2002; Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016). Students who have a growth mindset are less susceptible to demotivation when faced with challenges, which leads to better academic outcomes overall (Aditomo, 2015; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016). Growth mindset was also found to be a buffer against the effects of poverty in terms of student academic performance (Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016).

Growth mindset, along with well-being and perseverance, can contribute to individuals displaying higher levels of engagement in the workplace (Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2018; Zeng, Chen, Cheung, & Peng, 2019). When individuals who were exposed to bias and prejudice

in the workplace possessed a growth mindset, they maintained higher levels of belonging and satisfaction after experiencing the prejudice and bias, holding a "more positive outlook on the perpetrator of bias" (Rattan & Dweck, 2018, p. 683). Mindset also impacts consumer behavior in how individuals choose products and in how companies market and tailor consumers' experiences with their brands (Murphy & Dweck, 2016).

A 2016 study found that teaching growth mindset to Grade 9 students who were in the process of transitioning from middle school to high school positively impacted students academically (Yeager et al., 2016). However, after an extensive literature, no research has been found that examines the impact of mindset on cultural transitions, including expatriation and repatriation.

**Growth mindset as an intervention.** Similar to Seligman, Maier, and Geer's (1968) findings, Dweck (1975) published research that showed that individuals who previously displayed learned helplessness behaviors could be trained to overcome their learned helplessness behaviors, attribute success to effort, and find greater success when faced with challenging tasks. Since that time, researchers have also explored how the language that teachers and parents use can influence a child's mindset and, as a result, the child's academic achievement (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Patrick & Joshi, 2019; Seaton, 2018; Smith, Brumskill, Johnson, & Zimmer, 2018). When parents utilized process praise, emphasizing the value of effort, children developed a growth mindset and, in turn, had higher levels of academic achievement than their peers (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018). When teachers utilized growth mindset and taught the principals of growth

mindset, their students exhibited higher levels of motivation (Truax, 2018) and academic achievement (Seaton, 2018; Smith, Brumskill, Johnson, & Zimmer, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016). Recent research about the impact of peer language suggests that "mindsets are contagious" (King, 2019, p. 1) and individuals are influenced by the language and mindsets that their peers utilize (King, 2019; Sheffler & Cheung, 2019).

## Instrumentation and Measures

**Reentry shock scale.** In 1989, Jon Seiter and Deborah Waddell developed the Reentry Shock Scale (RSS). The RSS was developed by incorporating previous research about culture shock and reverse culture shock (Church, 1982; Freedman, 1986; Koester, 1986; Martin, 1984; Moore, Jones, & Austin, 1986; Sussman, 1986; Uehara, 1986). The RSS is a 16-item, 7-point Likert-type questionnaire that has a scaled response range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Since its publication, researchers have used the RSS as a tool to measure the reentry shock levels of students who are returning from studying abroad as part of a university program (Gaw, 2000; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010). Seiter and Waddell's (1989) RSS scale was also used in a study that focused on the identity formation and reentry shock levels of those who had spent between six and 60 months abroad (Kranz & Goedderz, 2020). The Reentry Shock Scale has been used for doctoral dissertation studies including research that examined the experiences of first-year college students and their return to their home culture (Anderson, 2016), the reentry shock levels of Saudi Arabian students returning home after study in the United States (Alkhalaf, 2019), and research that examined the reentry experiences of students who took part in a university's study abroad program (Steen, 2007).

Researchers have recognized that measuring the repatriation experiences of participants is difficult due to the highly individualized nature of the repatriation experience (Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018). As a result, some researchers have designed their own scales to use when measuring reentry shock (Kartoshkina, 2015) and many qualitative research studies that examine repatriation and reentry shock have been conducted to closely examine the personal experiences of repatriates (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012; Chang, 2010; Guo, Porschitz, & Alves, 2013; Jung, Lee, & Morales, 2013; Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010; Li & Gale, 2018; Pitts, 2016).

**Growth mindset scale.** The Growth Mindset Scale (Dweck, 1999; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995) is a three-item questionnaire that has a scaled response range from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). Higher scores on this scale would indicate an individual possesses a fixed mindset, while lower scores would indicate an individual possesses a growth mindset. Researchers have used this scale in studies surveying school-aged students (Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; King, 2018), as well as adults (Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2018; Thompson et al., 2013). Dweck et al. (1995) reported that only three items were used for this survey as "repeatedly rephrasing the same idea may lead to confusion and boredom on the part of the respondents" (p. 269).

The growth mindset scale was used to study the impact of mindset on academic outcomes (Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018). This scale was also used in a 2016 study conducted in Chile measuring the relationship between growth mindset, socioeconomic status, and academic achievement (Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016). Students were administered the growth mindset scale in King's (2018) study that investigated the potential contagion of mindset. The growth mindset scale was used to survey adults when examining the

relationships between transformational leadership, proactive personality, and work engagement (Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2018), and this scale was used in a study that investigated mindset and working memory (Thompson et al., 2013).

# Chapter 3: Methodology

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the correlation between reentry shock and mindset as reported by individuals who identified Taiwan as their home, attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, and then returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education after living abroad. Analysis included a Pearson test to examine the correlation between the self-reported levels of reentry shock and growth mindset, and a Mann-Whitney U test to examine other inferential statistics. Frequencies were measured using descriptive statistics.

## Research Design

This study was an exploratory quantitative, cross-sectional research study that examined the correlation between mindset and reentry shock. It addressed the gap in the research about this specific population, their reentry experiences, and the mindset that might be most helpful in assisting with the process of sojourning home. This study built on previous research about reverse culture shock (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012; Dettweiler, Unlu, Lauterback, Legl, Simon, & Kugelmann, 2015; Gaw, 2000; Huff, 2001; Presbitero, 2016; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010; Young, 2014) and aimed to address the current gap in research that examines malleable traits, such as growth mindset, and the effect that these malleable traits may have on the repatriation process.

## Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was based on two distinct theories. The first theory is Reentry Shock Theory, which is rooted in the study and research relating to sojourners returning home (Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Gaw, 2000; Gullahorn &

Gullahorn, 1963; Kranz & Goedderz, 2020). Mindset Theory focuses on the impact that an individual's mindset can have on overcoming challenges in a variety of contexts (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck, 1975; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973).

**Reentry shock theory.** Individuals who return home after living abroad can experience a significant, and sometimes surprising, period of readjustment (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). This process of reacclimating to a home culture is often difficult, and individuals can experience a range of challenges such as isolation (Allison, Davis-Berman & Berman, 2012; Li & Gale, 2018) cultural confusion (Chang, 2010; Raschio,1987), a change in values (Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010), and the inability to relate to others (Chang, 2010; Pitts, 2016). While most all individuals that repatriate experience some period of assimilation and readjustment to returning home, the process is highly individualized and can be impacted by a number of variables including social support (Bikos, Kocheleva, King, Chang, McKenzie, Roenicke, & Eckard, 2009), personality (Huang, Chi & Lawler, 2005; Van Der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, Chiu, Lonner, Matsumoto, & Ward, 2013; Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004), and mentorship (Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Shen & Hall, 2009; S'nchez, Sanz Valle, Barba, & Aragón, 2010; Wu, Zhuang, & Hung, 2014).

**Mindset theory.** Mindset theory is based on the impact that an individual's mindset can have on the ability to perform academic tasks (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin & Wan, 1999), to face challenges (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin & Wan, 1999), and to be effective in the workplace (Truax, 2018). Individuals with a fixed mindset view their intelligence and abilities as fixed characteristics that cannot be altered (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin & Wan, 1999). Individuals with a growth mindset view their intelligence and abilities as malleable and tend to face challenges with perseverance, extending more personal

effort which can impact outcomes across several domains (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin & Wan, 1999). Growth mindset can be taught to individuals, making it possible to improve personal (Rattan & Dweck, 2018), academic (Aditomo, 2015; Aronson, Fried, & Good, 2002; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007) and workplace experiences and outcomes (Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2018).

**Research Question**

The primary research question that guided this study was: What relationship, if any, exists between reentry shock and mindset in individuals who attended a primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan to live abroad, and then reentered Taiwan to work in the field of education?

**Null Hypothesis**

$H1_0$: There is a no correlation between reentry shock and mindset.

**Variables**

The variables in this study were the self-reported levels of reentry shock and self-reported levels of mindset.

**Instrumentation and Measures**

**Reentry shock scale.** For this study, Seiter and Waddell's Reentry Shock Scale (RSS) (1989) was used to measure the participant's level of reentry shock. This scale includes 16 items that are rated on a 7-point Likert scale. The mid-point value of this scale is 4 (neither agree nor disagree). Scoring of the RSS is done by totaling the item scores and then dividing by 16, producing an index score ranging from 1 to 7. An individual who experienced a very high level

of reentry shock would score a 7, while an individual with a score of 1 would indicate that no reentry shock had been experienced.

Questions on the RSS survey were developed by Seiter and Waddell (1989) based on previous culture shock and reverse culture shock research (Austin, 1986; Brein & David, 1971; Church, 1982; Freedman, 1986; Gama & Pederson, 1977; Martin, 1984; Moore, Jones, & Austin, 1986; Sussman, 1986; Uehara, 1986; Werkman, 1986). In their 1989 study which surveyed 54 study abroad participants and examined the overlap of locus of control, communication, and reentry, the average score for the reentry shock scale was 4.4 (MD.= 4.3; SD. = .96) with an alpha coefficient of .83; the 16-item reentry scale comprised the middle third of the measure.

This scale has been used by researchers to examine the reentry shock levels of students returning from a study abroad program associated with an educational institution (Gaw, 2000; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010). This scale was also used in a 2020 study aimed at determining the reentry shock levels of individuals who spent between 6 and 60 months abroad (Kranz & Goedderz, 2020). A number of doctoral dissertations have made use of the RSS to gather data about the repatriation experiences of first year college students (Anderson, 2016), the reentry experiences of international students return to their home country (Alkhalaf, 2019), and the repatriation process of students who studied abroad as part of their college education (Steen, 2007).

The Reentry Shock Scale was authored by two American researchers and was originally used to survey American students who returned from participating in a study abroad program (Seiter & Waddell, 1989). For this proposed study, some of the questions from the RSS survey were amended to be asked in the positive. Dr. Jon Seiter granted permission to amend the survey so that it could be used in this multicultural context, and he also granted permission for some of

the questions to be changed so that they were asked in the positive in order to provide respondents with a more balanced survey (greater equality in the number of questions asked in the negative and in the positive).

**Growth mindset scale.** The Growth Mindset Scale (Dweck, 1999; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995) is a three-item questionnaire that was developed by researchers in the 1990s and has since been used to measure mindset (fixed or growth) (Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018; Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2018; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; King, 2018; Thompson et al., 2013). This scale has a response range from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). To score this scale, the three items are averaged. Participants that score a 3.0 or below would be classified as entity theorists (fixed mindset) and participants with a score of 4.0 or above would be classified as incremental theorists (growth mindset) (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995).

Six validation studies that showed a high internal reliability ($\alpha$ = 0.94-0.98) were reported by Dweck et al. (1995). This scale was found to have a test-retest reliability of 0.80 over a two-week period (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). Two of these items were used in a large-scale study conducted in Chile (Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016) and items were translated into Spanish to make them accessible to the participants. In Claro, Paunesku, and Dweck (2016) found that a relatively high internal consistency was reported (Cronbach's $\alpha$ = 0.86). The growth mindset scale (Dweck, 1999; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995) is publicly available on Stanford's SPARQ website (http://sparqtools.org/mobility-measure/growth-mindset-scale/).

**Field Testing**

Field testing of the survey was completed by a number of current colleagues and by the dissertation advisor to confirm that directions were clear and to examine the flow of the survey

questions. Based on feedback, some modifications were made to the survey. A header was inserted before the Reentry Shock Survey (questions eight to 23). For this portion of the survey, because some individuals may have returned to Taiwan more than once, participants were instructed to base responses on their most recent move back to Taiwan. For these survey questions, participants were instructed that the terms "home or "home culture" referred to Taiwan, and the terms "abroad," "host culture," or "foreign" referred to experiences in countries outside of Taiwan. Minimal prompts reminding participants of this distinction were provided throughout this portion of the survey. For the final three questions of the survey where the Growth Mindset Scale was placed, a header was inserted that notified the participant that the last three questions were related to their thoughts about mindset.

On the Reentry Shock Scale, five items were rewritten so that questions were asked in the positive. The following survey items were reverse scored: 8, 11, 13, 18, and 21. The Growth Mindset Scale response scale was adjusted to reduce confusion when joined with other survey questions. In the original scale, 1 was correlated with "strongly agree" and 6 was correlated with "strongly disagree". For the purposes of this study, the response range for these three survey questions were 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Scoring was adjusted to reflect this change in response range.

**Research Site**

The research site for this study was an independent private school located in Taipei, Taiwan. Permission to access the alumni database was granted by the Head of School, and the gathering of potential participant names and correlating contact information was collected in coordination with the supervisor of the alumni relations office.

**Sampling Design**

The focus of this study was to gather data about the self-reported levels of reentry shock and mindset exhibited by individuals who returned home to Taiwan in order to examine the potential correlation between these two variables. For this exploratory study, participants were part of a convenience sample of adults who attended at least one international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan to live abroad, and then returned to Taiwan to live and work in the field of education.

At the research site, an alumni database is maintained, and alumni are asked to provide a physical address where they can be contacted. However, through interviewing the supervisor of the alumni office, it was made clear that the street addresses provided by alumni are often the addresses of the parents of alumni and often not accurate addresses for the alumni themselves. For this reason, participants for this exploratory study were limited to those that identified an educational institution where they were currently employed so that their residence in Taiwan could be verified through their employment at that educational institution.

Participants included in this study must have attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, moved abroad, and then returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education. Because some participants experienced more than one repatriation (returning to Taiwan earlier in life, then exiting, and returning again for work in education) participants were asked to complete the Reentry Shock Scale based on their most recent repatriation to Taiwan. The survey included demographic questions (time out of Taiwan, time since returning to Taiwan, reason for returning to Taiwan, and the number of times the respondent moved back to Taiwan for six months or more), the Reentry Shock Scale survey (Seiter & Waddell, 1989), and the Growth Mindset Scale survey (Dweck, 1999; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). A census sample of

participants who met the above criteria were used in order to gather information for this exploratory study.

**Data Collection Procedures**

Upon approval from Bethel University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), the anonymous survey link was sent via email to 49 potential participants. The link embedded in the email connected participants to the Qualtrics survey. To protect the privacy of all participants, no personal identifying information was collected, and no IP addresses were collected that connected the researcher to participants. A reminder was sent to all potential participants three days, and again seven days, after the original survey link was sent in order to gather as much data as possible. The survey remained open and available for two weeks. Data was collected and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software (Muijs, 2011).

**Data Analysis**

Out of 49 surveys sent, 17 were returned (35% return rate). Of these returned surveys, one was removed because the individual stated that they had never left Taiwan, which disqualified them from the study. When analyzing demographics data, 16 participant responses that met the criteria of the study were included. When examining data for the Reentry Shock Survey, 15 responses were valid. Fourteen of the participants filled out the Growth Mindset Survey, and the results are reflected in chapter Four. With a limited sample size, adjustments to data analysis were made. Pearson's r was used to analyze the relationship between reentry shock and mindset (research question one and hypothesis $H1_0$). Inferential nonparametric statistics were gathered using Mann Whitney U, and descriptive statistics were utilized to analyze frequencies.

## Limitations

This study had some limitations. The most significant limitation was the small sample size from which data was collected. The initial intention of the study was to examine the correlation between reentry shock and mindset and examine demographic variables to determine whether they moderated the relationship between these two variables. However, this study was conducted during the winter of 2020 when Covid-19 caused significant disruption world-wide. With the general uncertainty surrounding this time, it became unclear if accessing larger pools of potential participants would be possible; therefore, this was an exploratory study, and findings were not able to be generalized. With limited data, it was not possible to draw clear conclusions from the surveys completed and information provided.

Another limitation was that the participants were drawn from a convenience sample. When researchers use a convenience sample, results cannot typically be generalized (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, this was an exploratory study that aimed to provide data that could contribute to the gap in the current literature regarding reentry shock and mindset.

A third limitation was that all the potential participants were alumni of the school where the researcher currently worked, and some of the potential participants that met the criteria of this study were employed at the school where the researcher was an administrator. Although data was collected anonymously, there was the potential for bias in responses because of the proximity of the researcher and participants (Muijs, 2011; Patten, 2014). In order to mitigate this limitation, participants received information about the purpose of the study, along with an assurance that participation in this study was elective and in no way would impact the relationship between the researcher and respondent. Because of the use of an anonymous survey link, responses were disassociated from the participant names, and no personal identifying

information was collected (Creswell, 2014) making it impossible for the researcher to know who had chosen to participate in this study. Participants were provided information about how the anonymous data collection process worked, information about the researcher, identification of the potential benefits and harm, and a guarantee of privacy and confidentiality (Patten, 2014; Roberts, 2010). Participants were also provided with information about how participants were selected and information about the option to withdraw from the study at any time. Participants were notified that by completing the survey, they were providing informed consent (Patten, 2014).

A fourth limitation was that the surveys used required participants to use a self-report measure. When using a self-report measure, participants may not always accurately respond to the questions being asked and may also respond with the answer that they deem as the correct answer, leaving room for bias in the interpretation of the results (Muijs, 2011). Also, when using a survey, participants may misinterpret questions asked, or they may answer the questions at a fast pace (Wright, 2005).

Protecting a participant's right to privacy is essential when gathering data for a study (Patten, 2014). For this study, asking participants about the passports that they hold could be viewed as an invasion of privacy. In the demographics section of the Qualtrics survey, participants were instead asked if they attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan. Because data about what passport(s) a participant holds was not gathered, a fourth limitation was that there may be respondents that do not hold a Taiwan passport but have come to consider Taiwan as their home due to the time spent here during their adolescent years.

Because participants were educated in an English curriculum college preparatory high school, English language proficiency was not an anticipated barrier. However, because

participants were in a cross-cultural context and, most often, speak more than one language, they may have had various interpretations of certain English words used in the survey. This was a possible limitation of this study.

A census sample was used so that every member of the population that fit the criteria of the study was invited to participate (Patten, 2014). Because of the relatively small sample size, results were difficult to generalize and were less precise (Patten, 2014). However, this research has the potential to build on research that has been conducted about reentry shock and about how mindsets impact cross-cultural adaptation. After an extensive literature review, no research that explored the correlation between reverse culture shock and a growth mindset was uncovered. This initial exploratory study can inform potential ongoing research related to these fields.

**Delimitations**

There were several delimitations of this study. The participants of this study were a convenience sample of individuals who attended one international school with possible connections to this researcher. The research design was quantitative in nature in order to examine results in two distinct categories (reentry shock and mindset). In this exploratory quantitative study, the sample size was relatively small due to the number of participants that met the criteria for the study. This study was conducted in Taiwan in order to gather data about the reentry experiences of that specific population. For the purposes of this study, *return* was defined as a period of greater than 6 months in order to distinguish cross-cultural moves from short term visits.

**Ethical Considerations**

When human participants are used for studies, researchers must protect participants from physical and psychological harm (Orcher, 2014). First drafted in 1978, The Belmont Report

states that when studies are conducted, a participant's rights must be protected by ensuring the study is conducted with respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (Rose & Abakar, 2018). Researchers must make sure that their human participants are fully informed about the study they are involved in, and researchers have a responsibility to ensure every measure is taken to protect the participants' privacy and confidentiality (Creswell, 2014; Roberts, 2010). Participants must be fully informed of the purpose of the study and should be provided information about the results of the study in order to avoid, "exploitation of the participants" (Creswell, 2014. p. 98). Those who participate in research studies must provide informed consent in order to participate in the research (Orcher, 2014). Researchers need to provide accurate results to participants, never falsifying results or changing the findings based on the expectations of those involved (Creswell, 2014).

For this study, using a database of alumni that was maintained by the school, potential participants were identified according to the criteria of the study. All demographic questions and both the Reentry Shock Scale and Growth Mindset Scale surveys were distributed and collected through an anonymous link sent via email. No personal identifying information was collected, and participant names were disassociated from responses to assure confidentiality (Creswell, 2014). Participants were provided information about the purpose of the research, information about the researcher, identification of the potential benefits and harm, and a guarantee of privacy and confidentiality (Patten, 2014; Roberts, 2010). Participants were also informed that they could skip any question that they deemed uncomfortable. Information about how participants were selected was provided, along with information about the option to withdraw from the study at any time. Before taking part in the study, all participants were notified that by taking the survey they were providing informed consent (Patten, 2014).

# Chapter 4: Results

## Introduction

The purpose of this exploratory research was to examine the correlation between reentry shock and mindset as reported by individuals who identified Taiwan as their home, attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, and returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education after living abroad. Analysis included a Pearson test to examine the correlation between the self-reported levels of reentry shock and growth mindset, and a Mann-Whitney U test to examine other inferential statistics. Frequencies were measured using descriptive statistics. The following is presented as an analysis of the data collected. In this chapter, descriptive data and inferential statistics are presented as relating to the research question that guided this study:

1. What relationship, if any, exists between reentry shock and mindset in individuals who attended a primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan to live abroad, and then reentered Taiwan to work in the field of education?

## Sample

In working closely with the alumni office at the research site, potential participants were identified. A convenience sample of 49 adults received an introductory email from the researcher with a link to an anonymous survey (hosted on Qualtrics) that included seven demographics questions, 16 questions from the Reentry Shock Scale (Seiter & Waddell, 1989), and three questions from the Growth Mindset Scale (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). This sample of 49 adults received a reminder invitation to complete the survey at three days after the initial email and again at seven days after the initial invitation email. Participants were given a total of

14 days to complete the survey. Some questions were personal in nature, and participants were provided the option to skip any question that they found uncomfortable.

A total of 17 individuals completed the survey, for a total response rate of 35%. However, in sifting through responses it was discovered that one respondent did not meet the demographic criteria of the study. Another participant did not complete a majority of the Reentry Shock Scale questions, and another participant did not complete the Growth Mindset Scale questions. The data collected was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Software. Both Pearson's r and Mann-Whitney U were used to generate inferential statistics, and descriptive statistics were used to measure frequencies.

**Relationship Between Reentry Shock and Mindset**

Research question one asked: What relationship, if any, exists between reentry shock and mindset in individuals who attended a primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan to live abroad, and then reentered Taiwan to work in the field of education? The null hypothesis ($H1_0$) stated that there would be no correlation between reentry shock and mindset. A Pearson correlation was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between reentry shock and growth mindset. As shown in Table 1, a negative relationship between these two variables was present, however, the demonstrated negative relationship did not reach statistical significance,

$r = -.196$, $p = .503$, $N = 14$.

Table 1

*Pearson Correlation for the Reentry Shock and Growth Mindset Scales*

| | | Reentry Shock | Growth Mindset |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reentry Shock | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.196 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .503 |
| | N | 15 | 14 |
| Growth Mindset | Pearson Correlation | -.196 | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .503 | |
| | N | 14 | 14 |

## Descriptive Statistics

Of the 16 respondents that completed the seven demographics questions, all indicated on the survey that they currently live in Taiwan (Table 2), work in the field of education (Table 3), and attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan (Table 4).

Table 2

*Frequencies for the Item: "I currently live in Taiwan."*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Yes | 16 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Table 3

*Frequencies for the Item: "I work in the field of education (either part-time or full-time)."*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Yes | 16 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Table 4

*Frequencies for the Item: "I attended an international or American primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan."*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Yes | 16 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

When asked how long the participant lived outside of Taiwan after attending primary and/or secondary school, responses were divided into three groups: individuals that lived outside of Taiwan for one to four years, individuals that lived outside of Taiwan for five to nine years, and individuals that lived outside of Taiwan for more than 10 years. As shown in Table 5, of the 16 respondents, two left Taiwan for one to four years, six left Taiwan for five to nine years, and eight left Taiwan for more than 10 years before repatriating.

Table 5

*Frequencies for the Item: "After attending an international or American primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, I lived in another country for..."*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | 1 to 4 years | 2 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 |
| | 5 to 9 years | 6 | 37.5 | 37.5 | 50.0 |
| | more than 10 years | 8 | 50.0 | 50.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 16 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

To investigate how many times an individual returned to Taiwan before moving back for their most recent repatriation, participants were asked how many times they returned to Taiwan for more than six months since departing the island after attending their primary and/or secondary schooling in Taiwan. As shown in Table 6, of the 16 participant responses, 12

reported only returning to Taiwan once, two reported returning twice, one participant returned more than four times, and one participant chose not to answer.

Table 6

*Frequencies for the Item: "Since leaving Taiwan after attending primary and/or secondary school, how many times have you returned to Taiwan and stayed for 6 months or longer?"*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | 1 time | 12 | 75.0 | 80.0 | 80.0 |
| | 2 times | 2 | 12.5 | 13.3 | 93.3 |
| | More than 4 times | 1 | 6.3 | 6.7 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 15 | 93.8 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 6.3 | | |
| Total | | 16 | 100.0 | | |

When respondents were asked when they arrived back to Taiwan from their most recent move, one individual returned less than a year ago, two individuals returned one to three years ago, two individuals returned four to six years ago, three individuals returned seven to nine years ago, and eight individuals returned 10 years ago or more (Table 7).

Table 7

*Frequencies for the Item:" In my most recent move back to Taiwan, I arrived..."*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Less than 1 year ago | 1 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 6.3 |
| | 1 to 3 years ago | 2 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 18.8 |
| | 4 to 6 years ago | 2 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 31.3 |
| | 7 to 9 years ago | 3 | 18.8 | 18.8 | 50.0 |
| | 10 years ago or more | 8 | 50.0 | 50.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 16 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

**Statistical Analysis**

For the question, "My reason for returning to Taiwan and living here now is…", participants could select more than one answer from the following: attending a college or university, an employment opportunity, a family obligation, a relationship, or other. None of the participants returned to Taiwan to attend university. As shown on Table 8, of the 15 participants that answered this question, nine listed employment as a reason for returning to Taiwan, four listed that they returned due to a family obligation, two returned for a relationship, and five participants chose "other" as a reason they returned to Taiwan. As stated above, due to the small sample size, examining the impact of moderating variables was not possible. However, of the 15 participants that responded to this question, it was noteworthy that those that returned for an employment opportunity experienced less reentry shock, and results neared statistical significance,

(N=15) = 12.500, p > .05.

Table 8

*Mann-Whitney U for Reentry Shock by Returning to Taiwan for Employment*

| | |
|---|---|
| Total N | 15 |
| Mann-Whitney U | 12.500 |
| Standard Error | 8.602 |
| Standardized Test Statistic | -1.802 |
| Asymptotic Sig.(2-sided test) | .072 |
| Exact Sig.(2-sided test) | .072 |

Using the Mann-Whitney U Test, data was examined to find the Mean Rank for four of the demographic questions. Fifteen respondents filled out the Reentry Shock Survey and answered the question, "After attending an international or American primary and/or secondary

school in Taiwan, I lived in another country for…". Data was recoded into two groups: one to nine years and More than 9 years (see Figure 3 for median frequencies).

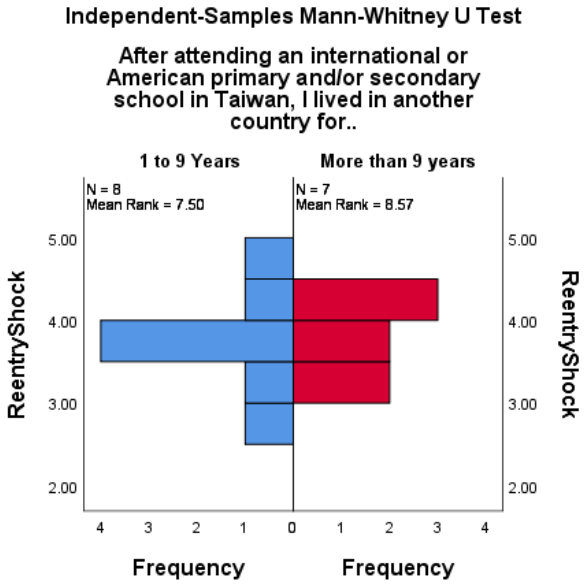


*Figure 3.* Mean Ranks for Reentry Shock by Length of Stay Abroad.

A total of 15 respondents filled out the Reentry Shock Survey and replied to the demographics question, "Since leaving Taiwan after attending primary and/or secondary school, how many times have you returned to Taiwan and stayed for 6 months or longer?". For this data set, responses were recoded into two categories: one time, or two or more times. Eleven of the participants reported that they returned to Taiwan for six months or longer one time, and four participants reported returning two or more times (see Figure 4 for median frequencies).

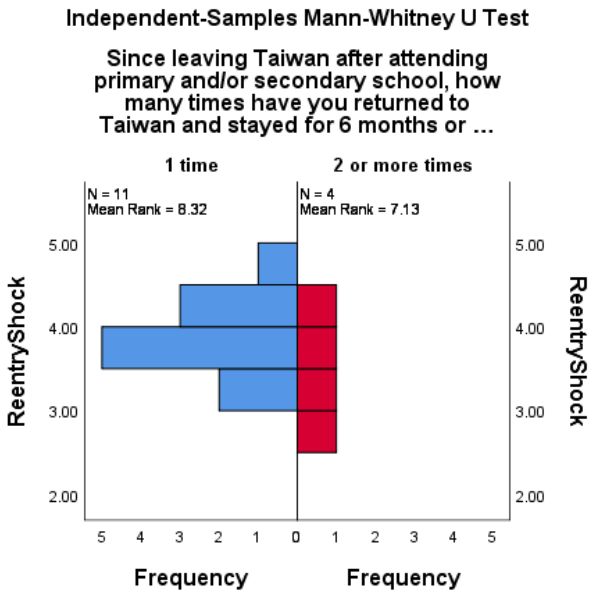


*Figure 4.* Mean Ranks for Reentry Shock by Number of Times Returned to Taiwan.

When participants were asked, "In my most recent move back to Taiwan, I arrived…", responses were recoded into two categories: nine years ago or less, and more than nine years. Of the 15 participants who completed both the demographics questions and the Reentry Shock Survey, eight returned nine years ago or less, and seven participants returned more than nine years ago (see Figure 5 for median frequencies).

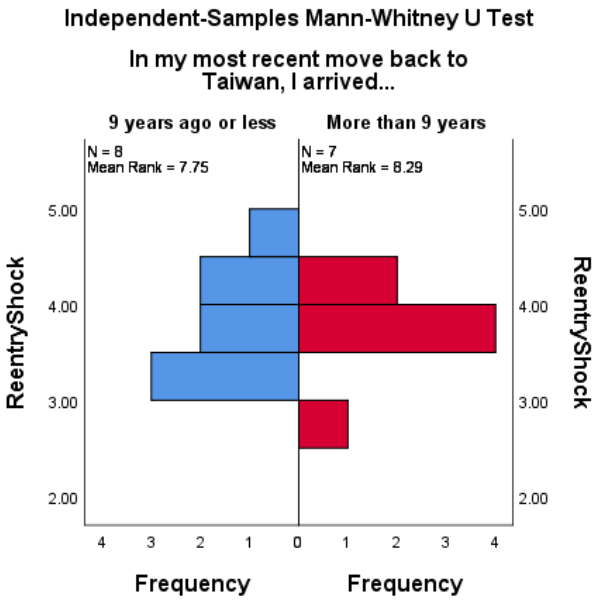


*Figure 5.* Mean Ranks for Reentry Shock by Recent Move Back to Taiwan.

When participants were asked, "My reason for returning to Taiwan and living here now (you can select more than one reason)", responses were recoded into two categories. Of the 15 participants who completed both the demographics questions and the Reentry Shock Survey, eight reported returning for an employment opportunity (see Figure 6 for median frequencies).

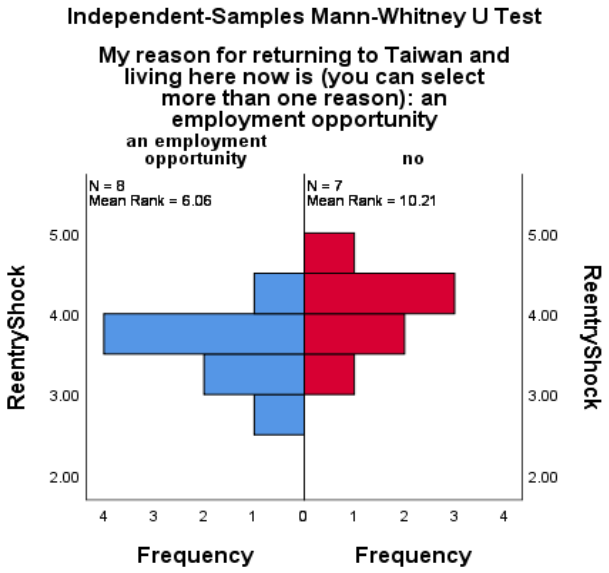


*Figure 6.* Mean Ranks for Reentry Shock by Reason for Returning: Employment.

**Summary of the Results**

Based on the results of the surveys returned, there was a demonstrated negative relationship between reentry shock and growth mindset, however, the results did not reach statistical significance. Due to this, the null hypothesis related to the correlation between these two variables could not be rejected. Moderating variables could not be examined due to the small sample size in this exploratory study, however, participants that stated that they returned to Taiwan for an employment opportunity displayed less reentry shock, and results neared statistical significance.

# Chapter 5: Discussion and Recommendations

## Overview of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative exploratory study was to investigate the correlation between self-reported levels of reentry shock and mindset in a group of individuals who identified Taiwan as their home, attended an international primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, and returned to Taiwan to work in the field of education after living abroad. Due to a small sample size, it was not possible to fully analyze demographic variables to investigate whether they moderated the relationship between these two variables. Therefore, analysis included a Pearson test to examine the correlation between the self-reported levels of reentry shock and growth mindset and a Mann-Whitney U test to examine other inferential statistics. Frequencies were measured using descriptive statistics.

Although expatriation has been widely studied, the experiences of sojourners who repatriate after spending time abroad has, in general, received less scholarly attention. When one repatriates after living abroad, that individual can experience isolation (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012), grief (Chamove & Soeterik, 2006), and a sense of being out of sync with those that did not travel abroad (Chang, 2010; Gorp, Boros, Bracke & Stevens, 2017; Le & Lacost, 2017). For multinational companies that move employees from country to country, it can be critical to support repatriates to retain them within their company (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010). Schools with study abroad programs have found that support is needed to successfully transition students back to the home country after their time abroad (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Young, 2014).

A growth mindset has been linked to greater academic achievement (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; Gunderson,

Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016), improved resilience when faced with a difficult task (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988;), and greater effort extended when working to overcome challenges (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). Growth mindset can also be taught (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Truax, 2018), making it a skill that individuals can develop and utilize in multiple settings.

Individuals that experience time away from their home country and then return are at risk for *reentry shock* (Sieter & Waddell, 1989; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010). With an increase in the number of individuals moving back to their home country after living abroad (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2018), exploring how mindset might support cross-cultural moves has the potential to provide a better understanding of how malleable skills might support this critical transition back home. After an extensive literature review, no research exploring the correlation between reentry shock and growth mindset was discovered.

For this exploratory quantitative study, an anonymous survey was sent to 49 individuals who met the criteria of the study. The survey included seven demographics questions, 16 questions from the Reentry Shock Scale (Seiter & Waddell, 1989), and three questions from the Growth Mindset Scale (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). Of the 49 individuals contacted, 17 completed the survey for a 35% response rate. One response was disqualified because the participant did not meet the criteria of the study, 15 completed the Reentry Shock Scale, and 14 completed the Growth Mindset Scale. Using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) data was analyzed, however, due to the limited data set, inferential and descriptive data were limited.

The initial aim of the study was to also examine demographic data and explore what factors might moderate the relationship between reentry shock and growth mindset. However, data collection was minimal due to a small sample size and low response rate. This study took place during a global pandemic which also limited options for data collection.

**Research Question**

The primary research question that guided this study examined the relationship between reentry shock and mindset in individuals who attended a primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, left Taiwan to live abroad, and then reentered Taiwan to work in the field of education. Using Pearson's r, a negative correlation was evident, however, the results were not statistically significant. For this question, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

**Conclusions**

Studies have found that individuals can experience significant levels of reentry shock when returning to their home country after time abroad (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019; Gaw, 2000; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). Possessing a growth mindset has also been found to have a significant impact on one's ability to view challenges as an opportunity to grow (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999), persevere when faced with discomfort (Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018), and academically outperform individuals with a fixed mindset (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; Gunderson, Sorhagen, Gripshover, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2018; Smith, Brumskill, Johnson, & Zimmer, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016). In this exploratory study, a negative relationship between reentry shock and growth mindset was

present. The demonstrated negative relationship did not reach statistical significance, however, because of the large gap in this area of study, there are several implications for future research.

**Implications for Theory and Practice**

The results of this study have implications for all that work with, support, or educate individuals who are preparing for or have experienced repatriation. A larger sample size would be necessary to confirm a negative relationship between reentry shock and growth mindset, however, initial findings in this exploratory study suggest that a negative relationship exists between these two distinct variables. The impact that mindset has on an individual's academic performance (Aronson, Fried, & Good, 2002; Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018; Yeager et al., 2016), workplace engagement (Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2018; Zeng, Chen, Cheung, & Peng, 2019), and levels of perseverance (Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Ehrlinger, Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999) is well-documented. Past studies revealed that growth mindset can be taught (Rattan & Dweck, 2018). Further exploration into the potential usefulness of developing a growth mindset when preparing individuals for repatriation is recommended.

Even with a relatively small sample size, several potential participants contacted the researcher when they received the invitation to take part in this study. One participant emailed the primary investigator to communicate that they had filled out the survey, but felt the questions were so general that the results would not be meaningful because of the complexity of the topic of repatriation. This participant pointed out that the survey did not explore an individual's language ability or social standing in the host or home culture. Another participant opened the survey, but contacted the researcher to say they did not think they would participate in the study

because although they had grown up in Taiwan, they had always considered the United States to be their home.

Expatriation and repatriation are highly individualized experiences, and in many ways, one person's experiences cannot be directly compared to another another's experiences because of the variety of factors that can influence this process (Berry, 1997; Gray & Savicki, 2015; Smith & Kearney, 2016; Vidal, Valle, Aragón, & Brewster, 2007). The questions received from potential participants point to the complexity of repatriation and the complexity of the experience of growing up in a cross-cultural environment.

Social support (Bikos, Kocheleva, King, Chang, McKenzie, Roenicke, & Eckard, 2009), personality (Huang, Chi & Lawler, 2005; Van Der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, Chiu, Lonner, Matsumoto, & Ward, 2013; Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004) and mentorships (Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Shen & Hall, 2009; S'nchez, Sanz Valle, Barba, & Aragón, 2010; Wu, Zhuang, & Hung, 2014) can impact experiences when expatriating or repatriating. In qualitative studies that explore repatriation, trends can be identified, however, qualitative studies are typically done with small sample sizes, and results cannot be generalized. Conducting additional large-scale quantitative studies would potentially provide an opportunity to gather more data that could be utilized to better prepare individuals for repatriation. Although studies conducted in different geographic regions would always face the problem of generalizability, large scale studies could be replicated across regions to gather geo-specific data and could potentially help identify overarching themes and protective factors applicable to the repatriation experience.

**Recommendations for Academics**

Researchers have examined how to support international students who expatriate to universities in the United States (Aldawsari, Adams, Grimes & Kohn, 2018; Letora & Croffie,

2019; Wang, Li, Noltemeyer, Wang, Zhang, & Shaw, 2018). Based on the results of this study, a recommendation for academics is to conduct further large-scale research into the impact of repatriation on sojourners moving between home and host country, and the potential protective factors to assist with this transition. Collecting data from a larger sample size would potentially provide generalizable results that could assist educational institutions, multi-national corporations, and government agencies to better understand how to support repatriates. Cross-cultural exchange is complex, and a mixed-methods approach to this research may yield more meaningful data to help to capture this unique experience.

Researchers have found that reentry shock can occur regardless of time spent abroad (Allison, Davis-Berman, & Berman, 2012). Another recommendation for universities with international students and/or study abroad programs is to further develop programs and education around the repatriation experience to better prepare sojourners for the transition back home. Researchers have found that supporting repatriates leads to a higher retention rate (James & Azungah, 2020), which could be a benefit to instituting more formal education about repatriation.

The number of international primary and secondary schools has grown five-fold since the year 2000 (International School Council, 2019). In general, very little research has been conducted exploring the repatriation experiences of these international students who often go abroad for their post-secondary education. International secondary schools should aim to broaden their educational programs to include education about repatriation to better prepare students for this often-complex transition. International students often experience multiple repatriations (Onwumechili, Nwosu, Jackson, & James-Hughes, 2003), making this a critical area of study.

After an extensive literature review, no studies exploring the correlation between reentry shock and growth mindset were found. Further research into this potential correlation is recommended to ascertain whether developing programs to help individuals develop a growth mindset would be helpful in preparing one who is planning to repatriate.

**Recommendations for Practitioners**

International schools are unique in that they host students, faculty, and staff members who come from a wide range of cultural backgrounds. International school communities often have members that possess different value systems and a variety of cultural, familial, and personal norms and expectations. Embedded in these schools should be ongoing professional development to better understand the repatriation process for those in the community that will likely experience repatriation many times in their lives. Through further training and/or action research, school counselors and others working with individuals who are repatriating should aim to gain deeper understanding of the many protective factors associated with a successful repatriation experience.

This study revealed that individuals who returned to Taiwan had lower rates of reentry shock. The results of this study did not reach statistical significance; however, further exploration of this possible correlation could assist in a better understanding of this experience. Future studies focused on other possible moderating variables that may impact reentry shock and mindset could potentially assist researchers and repatriates as they work to better understand repatriation.

Several decades of research about repatriation and the journey home have been conducted. Practitioners in fields that encounter repatriates should draw on the existing data to assist in their planning and programming. By providing education to those who will be

experience repatriation, institutions could proactively prepare sojourners for some of the *reentry friction* (Dykhouse & Bikos, 2019) that they will likely experience.

**Concluding Comments**

While countless individuals have experienced repatriation, it remains an experience that is highly individualized due to the wide variety of personal, professional, and cultural variables that can impact one's reentry experiences (Berry, 1997; Chiang, van Esch, Birtch, & Shaffer, 2018). Many studies have focused on the experiences of expatriates (Aldawsari, Adams, Grimes & Kohn, 2018; Letora & Croffie, 2019; Wang, Li, Noltemeyer, Wang, Zhang, & Shaw, 2018), however, with a growing number of multi-national companies, government agencies, and international schools, a focus on the experiences of repatriates could potentially assist those that long to better understand themselves and their experience as they transition back home.

The aim of this exploratory quantitative study was to examine the correlation between reentry shock and mindset in individuals that attended a primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, moved abroad, and then returned to Taiwan to live and work in the field of education. A negative relationship between these two variables was present, however, the demonstrated negative relationship did not reach statistical significance. Initially, the researcher sought to examine demographic factors and how these factors might have moderated reentry shock and mindset. However, the sample size was not large enough to examine these moderating variables. Further research into the correlation between reentry shock and growth mindset using a larger sample of participants would help to build a better understanding of the repatriation experience and potential protective factors that may assist sojourners coming home.

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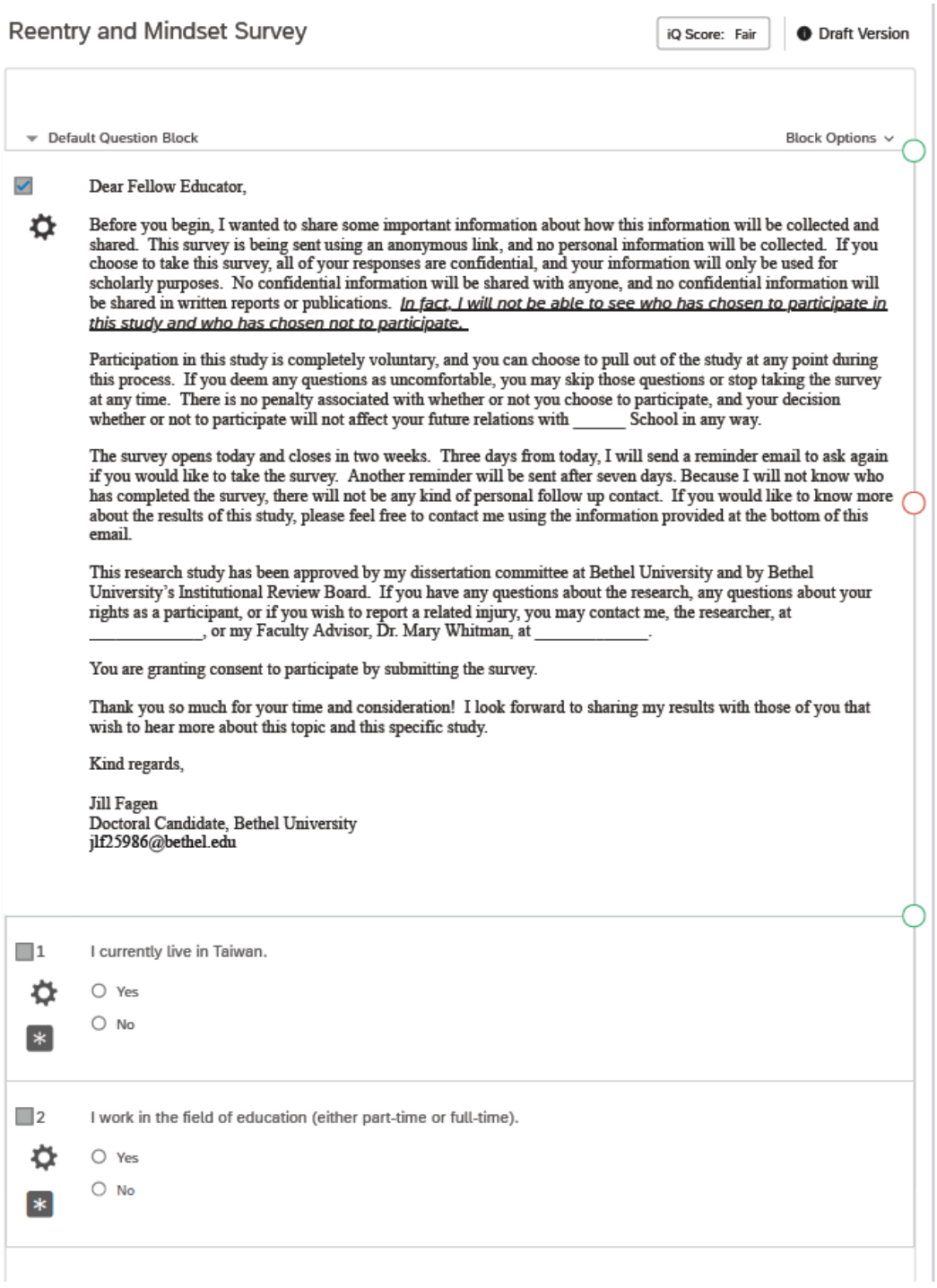
# Appendix A: Participant Survey



Reentry and Mindset Survey

iQ Score: Fair | Draft Version

Default Question Block — Block Options

Dear Fellow Educator,

Before you begin, I wanted to share some important information about how this information will be collected and shared. This survey is being sent using an anonymous link, and no personal information will be collected. If you choose to take this survey, all of your responses are confidential, and your information will only be used for scholarly purposes. No confidential information will be shared with anyone, and no confidential information will be shared in written reports or publications. *In fact, I will not be able to see who has chosen to participate in this study and who has chosen not to participate.*

Participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you can choose to pull out of the study at any point during this process. If you deem any questions as uncomfortable, you may skip those questions or stop taking the survey at any time. There is no penalty associated with whether or not you choose to participate, and your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your future relations with _____ School in any way.

The survey opens today and closes in two weeks. Three days from today, I will send a reminder email to ask again if you would like to take the survey. Another reminder will be sent after seven days. Because I will not know who has completed the survey, there will not be any kind of personal follow up contact. If you would like to know more about the results of this study, please feel free to contact me using the information provided at the bottom of this email.

This research study has been approved by my dissertation committee at Bethel University and by Bethel University's Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about the research, any questions about your rights as a participant, or if you wish to report a related injury, you may contact me, the researcher, at _____, or my Faculty Advisor, Dr. Mary Whitman, at _____.

You are granting consent to participate by submitting the survey.

Thank you so much for your time and consideration! I look forward to sharing my results with those of you that wish to hear more about this topic and this specific study.

Kind regards,

Jill Fagen
Doctoral Candidate, Bethel University
jlf25986@bethel.edu

1 I currently live in Taiwan.

- Yes
- No

2 I work in the field of education (either part-time or full-time).

- Yes
- No

3 I attended an international or American primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan.

- Yes
- No

4 After attending an international or American primary and/or secondary school in Taiwan, I lived in another country for..

| 1 to 4 years | 5 to 9 years | more than 10 years | I never moved away from Taiwan |
|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

5 Since leaving Taiwan after attending primary and/or secondary school, how many times have you returned to Taiwan and stayed for 6 months or longer?

- 1 time
- 2 times
- 3 times
- 4 times
- More than 4 times

6 In my most recent move back to Taiwan, I arrived...

- Less than 1 year ago
- 1 to 3 years ago
- 4 to 6 years ago
- 7 to 9 years ago
- 10 years ago or more

7 My reason for returning to Taiwan and living here now is (you can select more than one reason):

| attending a college or university | an employment opportunity | a family obligation | a relationship | other |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

Page Break

**For this next series of questions, please base your responses on your *most recent move back to Taiwan.***

**For the following questions, the terms "home" or "home culture" refer to Taiwan. The terms "abroad", host culture" or "foreign" refer to experiences in countries outside of Taiwan.**

8 When I returned (to Taiwan), people seemed interested in my experiences abroad.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

9 Life was more exciting in the host culture.

*"Host culture" would include culture(s) you have encountered outside of Taiwan.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

10 My friends (in Taiwan) seem to have changed since I have been gone.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

11 When I returned home (to Taiwan), I felt really content.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

12 I had difficulty adjusting to my home culture (Taiwan) after returning from abroad.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

13 Since my experiences abroad, I have become more understanding of my home culture's (Taiwan's) values.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

14 I miss the foreign culture where I stayed.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

15 I had a lot of contact with members of the host culture.

*For the purpose of this survey, "host culture" refers to the culture(s) outside of Taiwan.*

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

16 I feel like I have changed a lot because of my experiences abroad.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

17 When I returned home (Taiwan), I felt generally alienated.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

18 My friends and I have become closer since I have returned (to Taiwan).

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

19 Life in my home culture (Taiwan) is boring after the excitement of living abroad.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

20 I miss the friends that I made in the host culture.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

21 Since I have been abroad, I have become more accepting of my home culture's (Taiwan's) government.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

22 My friends and family have pressured me to "fit in" upon returning home (to Taiwan).

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

23 The values and beliefs of the host culture (abroad) are very different from those of my home culture (Taiwan).

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree or disagree | Somewhat agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Page Break

**The last three questions are related to your thoughts about mindset.**

24 You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can't really do much to change it.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Mostly disagree | Mostly agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

25 Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Mostly disagree | Mostly agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

26 You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.

| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Mostly disagree | Mostly agree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Add Block

End of Survey Survey Termination Options...