

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

REVERSE CULTURE SHOCK AMONG INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION EXCHANGE STUDENTS

MA Thesis

Ola M.A. Agha

200017108

Advisor: Dr. Nurgül KELEŞ TAYŞİR

Istanbul, 2021

T.C. İSTANBUL TİCARET ÜNİVERSİTESİ

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

REVERSE CULTURE SHOCK AMONG INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION EXCHANGE STUDENTS

MA Thesis

Ola M.A. Agha

200017108

Advisor: Dr. Nurgül KELEŞ TAYŞİR

Istanbul, 2021

ABSTRACT

Reverse Culture Shock (RCS) is concerned with the readaptation process to the home country the expatriates go through upon their return after leaving the host country. The purpose of this research is to undertake hypothesis testing to test whether the respondents faced reverse culture shock upon reentry and to establish the relationship between RCS and demographic factors of the respondents. A cross-sectional survey design is used to fulfill the objectives of the study. Primary data was collected from a sample of 136 respondents by completing an online questionnaire adopted from Seiter and Waddell (1989). The data is analyzed by the use of SPSS 25 using independent t-test and one-way ANOVA. The results indicate that the Business Administration/ MBA international students who participated in exchange programs and went back home do not differ significantly in their RCS regarding gender, age, education degree level, length of trip, and time since returning home. Finally, the results related to cultural intelligence and RCS show that there is a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and total cultural intelligence, motivational, behavioral, and cognitive cultural intelligence, while there is a weak non-significant positive relationship between RCS and metacognitive cultural intelligence.

Keywords: *Reverse culture shock, Business Administration/MBA, Exchange programs, Cultural intelligence, and Demographic factors.*

ÖZET

Ters Kültür Şoku, expatların ev sahibi ülkeyi terk ettikten sonra döndüklerinde yaşadıkları ülkeye yeniden adaptasyon süreci ile ilgilidir. Bu araştırmanın amacı, katılımcıların ülkelerine döndüklerinde ters kültür şoku ile karşılaşıp karşılaşmadıklarını test etmek ve Ters Kültür Şoku ile katılımcıların demografik faktörleri arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını test etmektir. Çalışmanın amaçlarını yerine getirmek için kesitsel bir anket tasarımı kullanılmıştır. Birincil veriler, literatürde de kullanılmış olan ölçeklerden yararlanılarak Seiter and Waddell (1989) online anket yöntemiyle 136 katılımcıdan oluşan bir örneklemeden toplanmıştır. Veriler, bağımsız t-testi ve tek yönlü ANOVA kullanılarak SPSS 25 kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, değişim programlarına katılan ve eve dönen Uluslararası İşletme/MBA öğrencilerinin eğitim düzeylerine göre Ters Kültür Şoklarında önemli farklılıklar olduğunu göstermemektedir. Cinsiyet, yaş, seyahat süresi ve eve döndükten sonra geçen süre açısından Ters Kültür Şoklarında önemli ölçüde farklılık göstermemektedir. Son olarak, CQ ve RCS ile ilgili sonuçlar, RCS ile toplam CQ, motivasyonel, davranışsal ve bilişsel CQ arasında orta düzeyde anlamlı bir pozitif ilişki olduğunu, RCS ile üstbilişsel CQ arasında ise zayıf ve anlamlı olmayan bir pozitif ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler*: Ters kültür şoku, İşletme/MBA, Değişim programları, Kültürel Zeka ve Demografik faktörler.*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like first to express my appreciation to my supervisor Assist. Prof. Nurgül KELEŞ TAYŞİR for her guidance and support during my MBA. Although we were contacting each other online, and I have never met her in person because of the status quo, she was always ready to reply whenever I had questions about my research. I would also like to thank all the international students who participated in this research for their time and support.

Many thanks to Turkey and Istanbul Commerce University for giving me the chance to pursue my MBA with a merit-based scholarship. I have to express my gratitude and appreciation to my family especially, my mom, for her continuous prayers, encouragement, patience to listen to me whenever I needed to talk and share my journey's details with her, and to my dad, my role model who motivates me and believes in me. Thanks a million to my siblings, especially Hala and Asil. I would like to thank Hala for her endless patience and support. She taught me how a person could struggle and achieve the best by ranking 1st in her Master's program. I am also grateful to have Asil preparing each meal for me, for being by my side during this journey, and for pushing me to do better. I would also never forget my grandma's and grandpa's continuous prayers and motivation.

You all mean the world to me. I couldn't have achieved this without you being by my side, and for that, I dedicate this paper to my parents, my lovely grandparents, and for my home country, the great GAZA, Palestine.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract

Acknowledgment

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

1. INTRODUCTION……..……..……...……..…1

Introduction……..……...…..…….…..…..1

1.1 Background of the study……1

1.2 Objectives of the Study…….....……..……..2

1.2.1 Main Objectives……....2

1.2.2 Specific Objective…….…2

1.3 Significance and Justification of The Study……..….2

1.4 Organization of the Paper…….…….…3

2. LITERATURE REVIEW…….……...……4

Introduction……..…….…...……..4

2.1 Studying abroad…….…...4

2.1.1 Exchange Students Definition……...……..4

2.1.2 Erasmus Student Network……..…….……5

2.1.3 Erasmus+Program……...……...…… 6

2.2 Acculturation and Re-acculturation……..…….…..…7

2.3 Cross-Cultural Adaptation…..……..…….....…...8

2.3.1 Sociocultural Adaptation.……...……..…..…..……9

2.3.2 Psychological Adaptation……..……....……..…..…….....10

2.3.3 U-curve Model of Cultural Adaptation…….…….……10

2.3.4 Culture Shock…….……..……...……..12

2.3.4.1 Previous Studies about Culture Shock…….....……..……13

2.4 Cross-Cultural Readaptation……..……15
2.4.1 W-Curve Model of Cultural Adaptation…….…..…....17
2.4.1.1 Stages of W-Curve……..……...17
2.4.2 Reverse Culture Shock…….……..……18
2.4.2.1 Difficulties faced with Reverse Culture Shock…….…….....……19
2.4.2.2 Previous Studies about Reverse Culture Shock……...….....….21
2.4.3 Reentry Theories ……...…..…….23
2.4.3.1 Affective aspect ……..……...…...……23
2.4.3.2 Behavioral aspect…….……..…..24
2.4.3.3 Cognitive aspect…….…..……...……...…24
2.5 Cultural Intelligence……..…….……26
2.5.1 Motivational Cultural Intelligence …….……...…….26
2.5.2 Behavioral Cultural Intelligence……..……26
2.5.3 Cognitive Cultural Intelligence……..…..……26
2.5.4 Meta-cognitive Cultural Intelligence……...…….…..…….26
2.5.5 Previous studies on Cultural Intelligence and Cultural Adaptation…….....27
2.6 Conclusion…….....……...…….……27
3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY……...…….……...28
Introduction……..……...……..28
3.1 Research Design……..…….……28
3.2 Data Collection Process……...……29
3.3 Sampling Technique……...……..29
3.4 Instrument for Data Collection…….……..……..30
3.4.1 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument…….……..……30
3.4.1.1 Validity of the Instrument…….…….....31
3.4.1.1.1 Content Validity…….……..…….31
3.4.1.1.2 Criterion-Related Validity……...……..31
3.4.1.1.3 Construct Validity……..…..……..32
3.4.1.2 Reliability of the Instrument…….…….……...……32
3.5 Unit of Analysis and Time Horizon…….……33

3.6 Research Questions and Hypotheses……..……..……..……33
3.7 Data Analysis Methods…….……..……...……..……35
3.8 Ethical Consideration……...……..……36
3.9 Conclusion……..……..……37
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS…….……...38
Introduction……..…….……..38
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....38
4.2 Relationship Between RCS and Demographic Factors…….……..……40
4.3 Relationship Between RCS and Cultural Intelligence……...…….……48
4.4 Conclusion.....53
5. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 57
5.1 Conclusion.....57
5.2 Limitations 58
5.3 Recommendations.....58
REFERENCES.....60
APPENDICES.....68

LIST OF TABLES **Pages**

Table 1: Reliability Statistics.....33
Table 2: Frequency of Gender.....39
Table 3: Frequency of Degree Level…….....39
Table 4: Frequency of Age……..….....39
Table 5: Frequency of Trip Length…….....40
Table 6: Frequency of Time Since Return…….…..….....40
Table 7.1: Group Statistics on Gender.....……..…….....41
Table 7.2: Independent Samples T-Test for Gender.....…….....41
Table 8.1: Group Statistics on Degree Level.....43
Table 8.2: Independent Samples T-Test for Degree Level …….…….....43
Table 9.1: Group Statistics on Trip Length …….……..…….....44
Table 9.2: Independent Samples T-Test for Trip Length.…….…….....44
Table 10.1: Group Statistics on Time Since Return …...…….…….....45
Table 10.2: Independent Samples T-Test for Time Since Return.……..……...….....46
Table 11.1: Descriptive Statistics on RCS based on Age…….....47
Table 11.2: Test of Homogeneity of Variances ……...……..…….....47
Table 11.3: ANOVA Results For Age……...……..….…….....48
Table 12: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (RCS and cultural intelligence).....49
Table 13: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (RCS and motivational cultural intelligence).....50
Table 14: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (RCS and behavioral cultural intelligence).....51
Table 15: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (RCS and MCQ).....52
Table 16: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (RCS and CCQ).....53
Table 17: Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results……..……..……..….....54

LIST OF FIGURES **Page**

Figure 1: The U-Curve Model of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.....11
Figure 2: The W-Curve Model of Cultural Re-adaptation.....18

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BA: Business Administration

CQ: Cultural Intelligence

CCQ: Cognitive Cultural Intelligence

MCQ: Meta-cognitive Cultural Intelligence

MBA: Master's of Business Administration

RCS: Reverse Culture Shock

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

Ed: Edition

No: Number

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter firstly discusses the background of the study, which will help the reader grasp what this study is mainly about. Furthermore, both the general and specific objectives of the present research will be mentioned. Additionally, the researcher will shed light on the significance and justification of this study. Finally, the structure for the whole research paper will be mentioned at the end of this chapter.

1.1 Background of the Study

Exchange programs have become more frequent nowadays. Simmons (2014) argues that the changing marketplace is one of the factors that encourage individuals to join such programs to gain new skills to adapt to globalization. Many exchange students experience difficulties during the re-entry period when they return to their homes. However, they are not aware of the reentry period they are going through and how to discuss and share their experience with their friends and family without affecting their relationships. Adler (1981) refers to the reverse culture adaptation as at any stage, an expatriate goes through some changes and transformations when leaving the host country (p. 343). Thomas's (2009) argument goes in line with Adler's as he mentioned that some people think going back home is an easy process as the person is going back to the most intimate place to him/her. However, it is a challenging period full of adaptation stages to get familiar with the home country again. Raschio (1987) mentioned that when some students who returned home were asked about the readaptation period, they answered that their home seemed to be a weird world. In this study, the researcher is interested in measuring whether Business Administration/MBA international students face reverse culture shock when they return home after finishing their studies abroad. Additionally, this study aims to test whether there is a relationship between reverse culture shock and cultural intelligence.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

1.2.1 Main Objective

The main objective of this study is to investigate the reverse culture shock (RCS) of Business Administration/MBA international exchange students who went back home and to also establish the relationship between RCS and the cultural intelligence of the respondents.

1.2.2 Specific Objectives

The Specific Objectives of the Study are to:

- examine the RCS of Business Administration/MBA international exchange students who went back home.

- determine the relationship between RCS and Cultural Intelligence

- determine whether there is any significant difference in the level of RCS of the respondents belonging to different demographic categories such as gender, age, degree level, trip length, and time since return.

1.3 Significance and Justification of the Study

Most of the studies in the literature were conducted in the context of Europe and the USA, but this research will be conducted in the context of especially Business Administration or MBA international returnees. Thus, this study aims to emphasize the importance of the BA, MBA students' context. This study will contribute to the body of the RCS, including BA/MBA international students, particularly those who were part of the Erasmus+ exchange program and went back home. Furthermore, this research aims to understand that Erasmus+ exchange students, especially Business students, face readjustment issues upon reentry. Hence, this paper will

encourage the international offices in the home countries to be aware of the reentry period and the readjustment stages the students might go through to help the returnees by training them for the upcoming period. It can also be beneficial for the Business Administration/MBA international students to realize that it is normal to go through this period when noticing that others went through this. Additionally, this study can also encourage the families and friends in the home country to support the new skills the returnees may have. In addition, the international offices can motivate the students to move on and smoothly readapt to their home by making them join some clubs or events so that the returnees can share their experiences with other colleagues to build awareness for the next generations.

1.4 Organization of the Paper

This research consists of 5 main chapters with details discussed in each chapter. First, chapter one is about the introduction, which has already been discussed. Second, chapter two reviews related literature, divided into four sub-chapters: studying abroad and exchange programs, acculturation and re-acculturation, cross-cultural adaptation, and cross-cultural readaptation. It also consists of previous studies about both culture shock and reverse culture shock. Third, chapter three explains the methodology used in the study, including the research design, data collection method, instrument used for data collection, the validity and reliability of the instrument used, sample and sampling technique, research question and hypotheses, data analysis method, as well as the ethical consideration. Fourth, chapter four reports the results of the data analysis and discussion on those results. Finally, chapter five is about the conclusion of the study, and it provides recommendations for future researchers along with the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter starts with discussing the idea behind studying abroad and exchange programs especially, the Erasmus+ program. It mainly sheds light on one of the cultural readaptation problems the exchange students may face, especially the reverse culture shock. It includes the theoretical background of both cross-cultural adaptation and readaptation. Also, it provides a review of the different models of cultural adaptation and readaptation, such as U-curve and W-curve models, and the stages of these models. Additionally, it refers to some previous studies about reverse culture shock. It includes reentry theories to discuss the different aspects of reentry. Finally, it includes cultural intelligence and its dimensions.

2.1 Studying Abroad

The idea of cultural exchange programs for studying abroad has spread and increased dramatically in recent years. Felt (2011) points out that these programs benefit students in knowing the cultural context for themselves and other cultures. Cultural exchange programs can be available for both high school students and university students to study in a country other than their own for a specific period, and it helps them accept other cultures, improve their way of thinking, make them able to think critically, and help them understand the impacts of globalization.

2.1.1 Exchange Students

As mentioned in Merriam-Webster Dictionary (Merriam-Webster.com, n.d.), an "exchange student" is defined as "a student from one country received into an institution in another country often in exchange for one sent to an institution in the home country of the first". Also, in Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (ldoceonline.com, n.d.), it is defined as "a student who goes to a foreign country to study, usually as a part of a program". In addition to that, Daly (2007) referred to it as for a student, either an international or local, to move to another different university

abroad for a fixed time and to take some courses there then to transfer and equalize the credits of these courses to their home university.

Doyle et al. (2010) indicated the reasons that motivated the students from New Zealand to participate in a student exchange program and study abroad. The authors state that students prefer independence, are willing to develop relationship networks, and develop their educational and professional life. Exchange students need an orientation week in their home university during the pre-mobility stage to be prepared for the next period. This can be done by providing them with academic and general advice on how to submit a visa, the stages that they will go through, and help them with the accommodation (Doyle et al., 2010).

Boyd et al., (2001) conducted a study on a student exchange program and its effect on the behaviors of high school exchange students. They tested if the students faced some challenges and difficulties in the host country. It was found that when the students moved to the university in the host countries, some of them faced difficulties related to the financial grant, and others suffered from the lack of acceptance of people in the host country, especially the host families, as the students did not receive the expected support from them. On the other hand, some students did not face any difficulties, and their attitudes were positive. They believe that this experience made them more culturally aware, sensitive to other cultures and made them more excited to participate in community activities.

2.1.2 Erasmus Student Network

The Erasmus Student Network (ESN) is one of the networks concerned with student exchange programs in Europe, and it aims to support exchange students. The ESN network focuses on supporting and assisting students, particularly students who face problems in the new country during the exchange program period, including social, cultural, and academic support. It carries out several activities, including arranging meetings during the orientation week to break the ice between students and trips for Erasmus students in the same country or to other countries in Europe. Also, it offers language clubs, parties, and movie nights in addition to the mentor program in which they assign each Erasmus student a mentor responsible for helping them academically

and socially to reduce the difficulties they may face in the new environment ("Erasmus Student Network, ESN.org", n.d.).

2.1.3 Erasmus+ Program

The Erasmus Exchange Program is one of the programs that take place within the bilateral agreements between universities around the world. Teichler (2002) states that this program is one of the European Union programs that began to be added to the agenda in the 1970s until it was implemented and announced as a completely independent program in 1987. The program includes 27 member countries of the European Union, European economic countries. In addition to a candidate country such as Turkey. This exchange program includes two types: one for students and another one for academic staff. This program allows students from different countries to study abroad for a certain period which is a minimum of 3 months and a maximum of one year.

Lesjak et al. (2015) confirm that The European Erasmus Exchange Program aims to improve quality and increase the number of academics and students participating in the program to study abroad. Mainly it improves the educational network in the European countries in particular by exchanging knowledge among students participating in this program when they move and interact with each other in different universities around the world (Teichler, 2002).

Individuals can participate in the Erasmus exchange program on their own. Still, most of the time, it is preferred to apply with the assistance of the university where they study at. This means that the university is supposed to follow the European bilateral agreements. According to ("Erasmus+", n.d.), as mentioned on the European Union official website, there are two types of countries that carry out these agreements, including the member countries of the European Union and called “program countries” in addition to the “partnering countries”. It was indicated that the universities of the European Union member countries meet all the conditions of the Erasmus exchange program, while the eligibility of the other ones is related to specific conditions.

2.2 Acculturation and Re-acculturation

The acculturation phase is what the expatriates go through when they move to the host country, and the re-acculturation stage is what the returnees go through upon their return to the home country. Although both phases have the same idea of adapting to a new cultural system, Martin (1984) points out several differences between these two stages. First, the expatriate's prior expectations differ in both phases. In the acculturation phase, the sojourners expect to face difficulties and challenges during the cultural adaptation period. On the other hand, the sojourners do not expect difficulties upon returning to their home country. They believe that the country which they got used to its habits, activities, and daily lifestyles is not considered a new country for them. Thus, the turning point that the returnee goes through upon his/her return is a difficult period and does not meet their expectations that have to do with immediate integration with the traditions and values in the home country. This particularly happens when looking at the home country with a perspective dominated by the lifestyles, values, experiences, and activities that the returnees got used to in the host country.

Second, there is a lack of advanced preparation for this stage. Also, family and friends have an apparent effect on the returnees during this stage. For instance, the relatives do not expect the expatriate to experience challenges upon returning to the home country. As a result, this leads to a decrease in social support, which may develop later and lead to stress, anxiety, and tension. Martin (1984) emphasizes that the family's, friends', and relatives' support for the returnee are one of the most important points that help to re-adapt to the culture in a healthy way.

Third, Martin (1984) refers to "change" as an important distinction between re-acculturation and acculturation. A person who moves abroad is expected to have some changes in the culture and environment in the host country. The change the returnees face during the re-acculturation period has more effect on them because it includes the change in the surrounding environment and the internal changes that take place within the expatriates during their stay abroad. For instance, their actions, reactions, lifestyle, how they deal with people, and internal values change due to their experiences in the host country. Westwood Fisher, Lawrence, & Paul (1986) confirm this by indicating that the reverse culture shock experienced by returnees is often caused by the

experiences they went through, which leave an impact and changes in their inner values and behaviors.

Fourth, the sojourners' awareness of their changes is also one of the differences between acculturation and re-acculturation. When the expatriates return to their country, neither the people are aware of the changes nor do they. Sobie (1986) and Austin (1983) explain the reason behind this by indicating that these internal changes exist within the expatriates during their stay in the host country, but the effects of these changes begin to appear upon return to the home country. Therefore, these changes make the re-adaptation period and re-acculturation more difficult than expected.

The following section of the second chapter sheds light on the cross-cultural adaptation definition and its characteristics, including the two types of adaptation: psychological adaptation and sociocultural adaptation. Furthermore, the U-curve Model of cultural adaptation, its stages, and different researchers' views on this model, definition of culture shock, and previous studies about culture shock will be explained.

2.3 Cross-Cultural Adaptation

According to Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, cross-cultural means "involving or containing ideas from two or more different countries or cultures". Black (1988) states, adjustment refers to a person's comfort, adaptation, and acceptance of a new culture, environment, or place. Therefore, cross-cultural adjustment can be explained as a process of a person trying to adapt to living in a new country with a different culture and environment from their own country. Thus, the exchange students may face the cross-cultural adjustment process when moving to another country as it is a point when they find themselves in a new school, new friendships, new languages, and a new way of thinking. Then, they start to push themselves, trying to cope with the changes and adaptation challenges they would face.

Several researchers were interested in this area, and they defined and mentioned this concept in the same general way. For example, Kim (2001, p.31) defines cross-cultural adaptation as a

"dynamic process by which individuals, upon relocating to an unfamiliar cultural environment, establish (or reestablish) and maintain relatively stable, reciprocal and functional relationships with those environments". The time of moving to a new country and trying to adapt is considered as a continuous period. It takes some time, but this does not necessarily mean that it may reach an endpoint, but rather than that, it changes its shape by experience and the passage of time to make it easy for the person to come to a stage that he/she can endure the challenges (Kim, 2001).

Moreover, Li, Sano, and Ahn (2013) define it in the same manner as the other researchers as "the process of adaptation to living and working in a foreign culture" (p. 156). Chen (1990) defines cross-cultural adaptation as the stage that allows sojourners to gain flexibility and accept the new environment with its culture shock, which leads to different types of cross-cultural adjustments.

Several studies indicate that intercultural adaptation is multidimensional, including psychological and sociocultural factors (Searle & Ward, 1990). Hottola (2004) also demonstrates that cross-cultural adaptation is a dynamic stage that individuals go through when they move to a different new culture. Hence, they try to create and maintain a stable relationship with the new environment that keeps changing. In addition to that, Chiang (2015) shows another cross-cultural adaptation property: it can be self-evaluated.

When talking about cross-cultural adjustment, there are two types of adaptation: psychological and sociocultural adaptation. These two concepts are related to each other, but there is a clear difference between them regarding conceptual and practical aspects shown in psychological comfort or behavioral competence. (Ward & Kennedy, 1999).

2.3.1 Sociocultural Adaptation

The first type of intercultural adaptation is socio-cultural adaptation. It refers to the ability to harmonize and to get along with the interactive aspects of the host country. A person who moves to a country that is culturally different from his/her own country is to be able to acquire the skills in the host country and to have a general knowledge of what is appropriate and what is not. Several factors affect the individual's cross-cultural adaptation, such as prior cultural knowledge about the

host country, the duration of staying in the host country, language fluency, and cultural distance between the home culture and the host one (Ward & Kennedy, 1999).

2.3.2 Psychological Adaptation

Ward & Kennedy (1999) illustrate the second term of cross-cultural adaptation, psychological adaptation, that is related to the emotional satisfaction and the emotive facet of acculturation in the host country, as it includes the personal facets, the changes that a person undergoes in his life, and the ways of coping. This type requires measuring the level of stress, anxiety, depression, the satisfaction of one's self and his/her own life. Psychological adaptation is related to the changes in lifestyles, and to know how to cope with it. Ward and Kennedy (1999) illustrate that the stress the international students may have can be reduced by many factors such as the internal locus of control and humor. According to Zhang and Goodson (2011), psychological adjustment can be influenced by many factors such as gender, social support, the length of staying in the host country, and the language proficiency.

2.3.3 U-curve Model of Cultural Adaptation

Several studies are conducted to clarify and understand the stages of cross-cultural adjustment in which an expatriate or employee who moves from his/her country to a country with a different culture and environment goes through. It was identified that the U-curve model that Lysgaard (1955) presented is one of the models used to explain the stages of cross-cultural adjustment that people go through in the host country. Lysgaard (1955) came up with this model by conducting a study on Norwegian students who got accepted to study under the American Fulbright program to spend time studying in the U.S. He assumed that the process of intercultural adaptation and its stages has the form of "U".

As Lysgaard (1955) points out, this model consists of several stages that a person in the host country goes through. The first phase, "Honeymoon", begins with a high level of happiness,

adventures, and enthusiasm at the beginning of their existence when getting to know a new culture. Then gradually, the person begins to go through the next stage, “Culture Shock”, which includes trauma from the environment, people, food, and language. They may feel lonely and find it challenging to have the opportunity to make new friendships. As a result, they may face some challenges and struggles regarding communicating with national people or misunderstanding because of the differences of some of the verbal or non-verbal communication ways. Also, they may begin to make comparisons between their country and the host country at this stage. There may be a possibility for them to experience the feeling that the national people are superior to them, such as the Norwegian people in America, which causes tension, anxiety, and anger. Moving to the third period, “Recovery”, when they try to get to know people and try to be more open to learning more about this new culture and environment and try to know more about the methods of dealing with and understanding the national people, so this stage is entirely different and a turning point after the stage of culture shock. The fourth and final stage is very comfortable for the sojourners as they reach a high level of harmony and integration into the host country's culture.

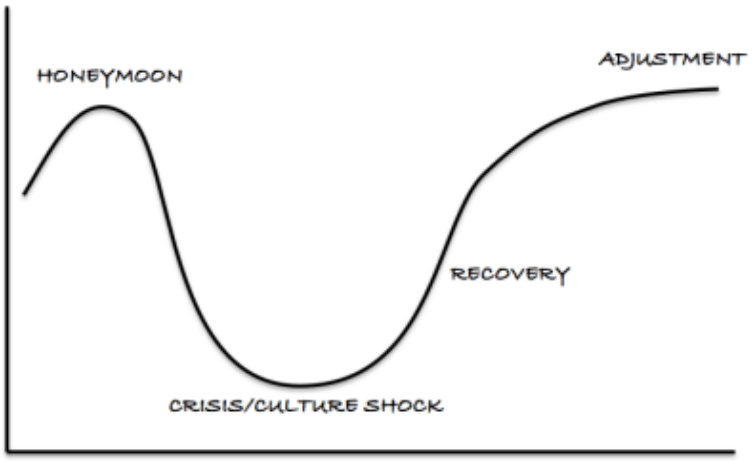


Figure 1 The U-curve Model of Cross-Cultural Adaptation (Lysgaard, 1955)

Some researchers support the U- curve model and its gradual stages; however, other researchers do not support the idea of this model. For example, Church (1982) mentioned that he considers this model "weak, inconclusive and overgeneralized” (p.542). Therefore, it cannot be applied to all students staying in the host country; for example, some students may go through the honeymoon

phase with the enthusiasm and adventures at the beginning of their movement abroad while they may not go through the other stages or there could be other students who do not go through the first phase in the first place at all.

On the other hand, Black and Mindenhall (1991) have a neutral point of view about the U-curve model. The authors state that Lysgaard referred to the means and the percentages in his model but did not refer to statistically testing the data and did not refer to continuous samples. They consider it as this model has no "consistent methodological rigors" (p.231) in which the results can't be generalized. Black and Mindenhall (1991) recommend future researchers, rather than focusing on the form of this U-curve model, have a theoretical plan to focus on the details and description of cross-cultural adjustment and learning nature.

2.3.4 Culture Shock

The term "Culture shock" was first mentioned by anthropologist Oberg (1960) regarding the international experiences people have when moving from one environment to another. Oberg (1960) gave a seminar about cultural misunderstanding where he described the symptoms of culture shock as an "occupational disease" that many people who are living away from their countries face, such as feeling lost, not achieving, frustration, delay, anger, and some other physical reactions.

In addition to that, Oberg (1960) explained that a person who is exposed to a culture that is different from his/her own goes through several stages, including the first stage, which is called xenophilia, in which the expatriate is in love with and attracted by people, their culture, customs and everything associated with this new environment. And then, they go through the next stage, which is xenophobia, where the person begins to hate the culture and may reach aggression and negative reactions against the host country, and that stage is considered culture shock. Although (1960) referred to culture shock as an occupational disease, Solomon (1994) defined culture shock as "an emotional and psychological reaction to the confusion, ambiguity, value conflicts, and hidden

clashes that occur as a result of fundamentally different ways of perceiving the world and interacting socially between cultures." (p. 58)

Taff (1977) and Winkelman (1994) agree that culture shock is about confusion, uncertainty, anxiety, and loneliness when exposed to an unfamiliar culture. Gilton (2007) highlights that many people experience culture shock, including people who move to a new country or people who live in their home country but live in an environment completely different from theirs, even if they are still in their country. Other people who can face it are the ones who return to their home counties after they have lived for a while in another country.

Black & Gregersen (1999) point out that the expatriates who are exposed to the challenges of culture shock are those who have no idea about the differences between cultures in general or have no idea of the host country's culture in particular and who are not prepared or previously informed about the nature and details of the culture of the host country. This can be represented by anger, anxiety and a feeling of homesickness.

Adler (1975) asserts that a culture shock occurs in any new shift in a person's life, where he/she may be exposed to it not only when he/she moves to a new country but may also occur within their own country when they change their profession or when their social status changes or when moving neighborhood to another one. Also, it could occur when a person moves from the family home to his/her own home. Despite all the negative symptoms and effects that a person passes through culture shock, it can have a positive side by boosting the person's relationships and allowing them to make new friendships easily and flexibly. Also, it may improve their way of thinking, teach them to accept the differences, to be aware of many things around them, provide them with knowledge on the discussion and communication skills and understanding of others, and the person learns how to face difficulties and challenges.

2.3.4.1 Previous Studies about Culture Shock

Sodjakusumah and Hans (1996) conducted a study on the culture shock faced by Indonesian students in New Zealand in which they pointed out the challenges that these students had as it was

difficult for them to build new relationships with New Zealand students. One of the reasons for the symptoms of culture shock they were exposed to was lacking interaction with the students of the host country. In addition, the language, specifically the slang language and drinking habits of New Zealand students and stereotypes and negative preconceptions of New Zealand students about Indonesian students, caused pressures, obstacles and reduced their active interaction with these students. Also, the different age categories and the different lifestyles have negatively affected Indonesian students.

Miller (1993) clarifies his view on culture shock in terms of the difficulties he faced by people in the host country by mentioning some methods and strategies for dealing with culture shock and how to cope with it by conducting a study at a university in Mexico. Mainly, he described it as an 18 wheeled truck that is hard to ride, showing the challenges and difficulties of adapting to the host country. He has personally experienced culture shock, although he is aware of the symptoms and effects. In the beginning, the stereotype of the national people and negative preconceptions harmed him, which made him feel anxious and confused. In addition to that, the various communication barriers, which made him feel uncertain. Despite all of these with time, this phase has affected him positively and made him more open to the differences in Mexican society. As a result, he began to adapt and accept the differences, which made it easy for him to start building new relationships.

As mentioned earlier about Adler's theory (1975), people may experience culture shock when going through any new shift. The study of the researchers Pyvis and Chapman (2005) follows and confirms this theory. The study demonstrates the culture shock experienced by a group of Singaporean students studying at a university in Singapore. They got accepted to study in Australia as a part of a cultural exchange program. Symptoms of tension and anxiety began to appear on them for several reasons, including the new academic environment in Australia, where students began to feel it’s difficult to adapt to the new teaching methods and the different curriculum of teachers as they did not have any pre-cultural idea about that, which was a barrier to them. And it affected their studies and their adaptation to the national students. In addition to that, the students had some concerns about being unacceptable to the national students. It also had a negative impact

on their group work. Thus, the students felt that they were out of the groups, which is one of the characteristics Oberg (1960) referred to.

2.4 Cross-Cultural Readaptation

Researchers are interested in studying culture shock and cross-cultural adaptation when moving abroad. Also, there is an apparent interest in the reverse culture shock and the challenges and difficulties the returnees face during the re-entry period. Thus, this readjustment process that these people go through is very similar or considered thoroughly the same as the process of cross-cultural adaptation (Shibuya, 2003).

Mooradian (2004) indicated two types of adaptation upon entry into a new country with a new culture other than the home country, including psychological and socio-cultural adaptation. The psychological one is concerned with the extent of personal satisfaction and satisfaction with the surrounding environment. It has to do with the personality when trying to be accustomed to a different culture. For socio-cultural adaptation, it is all about identifying and adapting the people moving to a new place with the host country's culture and with its people. Thus, as these two types represent cross-cultural adaptation, researchers also used these two types to describe and express the expatriates' readaptation. When expatriates return to their home countries, they start to seem unfamiliar to them after being accustomed to the host country. Regarding the two types of cultural readaptation, Ward and Kennedy (1999) pointed out that they are considered to be interrelated and there is an influence between them since both of them have predictors such as the language proficiency, social support, social contact with the host country. However, there are some differences between them from the empirical practical aspect and the conceptual aspect.

Researchers have defined reverse culture adaptation in several ways. For example, Adler (1981) considered cross-culture adjustment as any process of shift that people go through and the reverse culture adaptation as any phase where expatriates go through a change or transition, but when leaving a host country and returning to the home country.

Thomas (2009) illustrated that the reverse culture adaptation might appear to some people as an immediate return to the intimate domestic culture. However, reverse culture adjustment is a stage of adaptation and getting familiar with the home country's culture again. It's quite similar to the cross-cultural adjustment the expatriates go through when they leave their country.

Additionally, Butcher (2002) describes that this period is considered "grieving" because it not only requires the expatriates to be concerned with getting used to their home country and culture but also focusing on the process of getting used to losing their friendships which took them time to make in the host country after some time of getting used to this culture with its all differences. Also, they are supposed to get used to the loss of their memories, culture, routines, and experiences, as they know that it has completely ended. Thus, it would take time to get used to their previous home culture.

2.4.1 W-Curve Model of Cultural Adaptation

As we mentioned earlier, Lysgaard (1955) represented the process of cultural adaptation that expatriates go through in the host country with a U-curve model; moving to Gullahorn & Gullahorn's (1963) studies, they added a new U to this model by surveying students from America who received scholarships to study in France. Gullahorn & Gullahorn (1963) analyzed the stages the students went through when they returned to the U.S. It was evident that the American students went through stages similar to the ones faced in France. This also confirms what the researcher Martin (1984) referred to, that the phases of cultural adjustment during the presence in the host country are very similar to the periods of re-adaptation upon return to the home country. Thus, they came with a W-curve theory to describe the period of cultural readjustment that expatriates are going through after returning to their home country. Tohyama (2008) mentioned that the W shape consists of two parts. The first part is the same as the U represented in Lysgaard's model which shows the cross-cultural adaptation process, while the second part shows the reverse cultural readjustment process. In addition, the researchers modified these stages, as it was previously mentioned that the stages of the U-curve model consisted of four stages; later, Gullahorn & Gullahorn (1963) modified the stages of that model from four to three stages and added two more

stages to make the stages five stages as shown below: “Honeymoon, Culture Shock, Initial Adjustment, and Mental Isolation and Integration” (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963).

2.4.1.1 Stages of W- curve

As mentioned previously, this model consists of five phases that the expatriate goes through, whether upon moving to the host country or upon returning to their home country as shown below in Figure 2, including the first period called honeymoon, where the expatriate go through high levels of happiness and enthusiasm for the new experience and to get to know new people and a new culture; this may begin before moving to the host country or at the beginning of the period of staying there. Adler (1981) adds that the expatriate may also experience the second stage, which is called culture shock; when they start to compare between the home country and the host country, they face challenges and difficulties when they are trying to adjust and adapt to the new culture; as a result, they experience a feeling of tension and anxiety as the person begins to feel that he/she is not a guest or a tourist anymore in that country, but instead, he/she has to become a part of them. The third stage of “Initial Adjustment” as Adler points out, begins when an expatriate starts to adjust and adapt without having any anxiety or tension. Enthusiasm and positivity are among the feelings the expatriates have during this period for the new experience and begin to get used to the new lifestyle in the host country. Adler (1981) confirms this by describing expatriates' feelings as “more positive and effective” in this period.

Expatriates go through the fourth stage upon their return to their home country, where they begin to feel shocked about the changes that occurred during their absence from their home country and feel homesickness for their home that no longer exists as previously, a feeling of loneliness and nostalgia, and they wish to have a familiar culture and environment. The last stage is mostly about the expatriates’ belonging to and harmony with the host country’s culture or the home country’s after returning. Moreover, the repatriate reaches a level in which they feel they are part of this environment. Thus, this makes it easy to make new relationships and friendships especially when the returnees stop comparing their home country with the host country or vice versa (Adler, 1981).

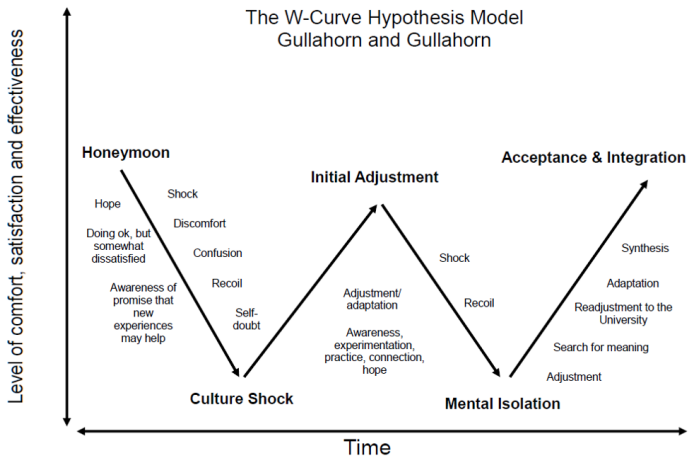


Figure 2 The W-Curve Model of Cultural Re-adaptation (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963)

2.4.2 Reverse Culture Shock

Gaw (2000) refers to it as "the process of readjusting, re-acculturating, and re-assimilating into one's own home culture after living in a different culture for a significant period of time" (p. 83). Mooradian (2004) indicates that the reverse culture shock affects the returnees negatively and may cause tension, pressure, and anxiety. The reason behind this is that the returnees are not aware of the changes in their personality, behaviors, and beliefs during their stay in the host country. Thus, if they insist on sticking to these changes, this will negatively affect them and their interaction with others. Additionally, the returnees' relatives, friends, and family are also not aware of the changes they went through. Therefore, they think that no change has occurred, and the returnees are entirely the same as before. Thus, a preparation period is needed for this stage for both the returnees and their families and other relatives.

Adler (1975) illustrates that there are not many differences between culture shock and reverse culture shock that the expatriates face while some of the differences between them may have to do with what the expatriates who return to the homeland expect, and whether they are aware of the change they went through or not.

There are several studies on reverse culture shock and the difficulties that expatriates face. For example, Gullahorn & Gullahorn (1963) indicate that these people do not expect to face difficulty upon their return to their home country, and also, they are not aware that there may be a tangible change in their relations with family, friends, and others. Martin (1984) adds they do not feel the extent of the change that this experience has on them during their time being away from their countries, such as changes in their behaviors, way of thinking, lifestyle, and personality, but upon their arrival to their country, they begin to feel this difference and they feel that it is not their country anymore or there was a major change occurred during their absence from it; as a result, this affects the way they communicate And their interaction with people in their country (Black, 1992).

Dettweiler et al., (2015) and Gaw (2000) indicate the difficulties of the re-adaptation process to the environment, culture, and people the returnees face in the home country. Nevertheless, many of the returnees find ways to cope with the difficulties faced in this period. For example, some of the repatriates consider this period as an opportunity to share their experiences with friends and family regarding the changes they encountered during their stay abroad. Additionally, other returnees would overcome the difficulties by staying in touch with people who stayed abroad for a period to share their experiences. On the other hand, other repatriates would prefer to share the challenges they faced with specialized consultants rather than with other people.

2.4.2.1 Difficulties Faced with Reverse Culture Shock

Sussman (1986) refers to the period after returning to the home country and the challenges that returnees go through, including the unpredictability of the challenges that they may face as they believe that they may face these challenges when moving to another country, but there is no possibility to face these challenges upon their return to their home country. As a result, one of the difficulties that returnees may face includes two types of changes, including the personal changes that happen to them while they are outside their country or the changes that happen to their country during their absence. In addition, they also face several problems from family and close friends, as they do not expect that any change has occurred to the returnees, but rather they imagine that they are just the same as before. Also, friends and family do not seem interested in the idea of

sojourn and the returnees' experience abroad and what changes happened to their behaviors when they left their home country, which negatively affected them during the readjustment period when arriving in their home country.

Some returnees have preconceptions about the cultural re-adaptation period. They predict that this period will be easier than the cross-cultural adaptation they encountered when away from their home country. However, many researchers indicated that the readaptation period is more difficult than the other phase faced in the host country. For instance, Raschio (1987) emphasizes that returnees' adaptation difficulties are mixed with feelings of emotional dissonance and may reach a state of isolation.

What confirms this is that when they compared the culture of their home country with the culture of the host country, they described their culture as a strange world (Raschio, 1987). Uehara (1986) explains that when he conducted a study to compare the difficulties faced by travelers returning to their country from abroad and between those faced by domestic travelers, it was found that they face more difficulties during the period of cultural readjustment than people who move from one city to another within their home country. In addition, he illustrated that the difficulties that American students faced during their re-adaptation to the U.S. after returning from outside were more than those faced by domestic travelers who move from one state to another inside the U.S.

A study by Furukawa (1997) on students from Japan who were accepted to study outside Japan and after their return to Japan was observed. However, a full year has passed since their return to their home country, it was found that they face more difficulties, challenges, and psychological problems than the Japanese who live there and have not moved outside the country.

Brabant, Palmer & Gramling (1990) compared female and male students who studied for some time in the U.S. during the re-adaptation period after returning to their home country. It was found that females faced more challenges and difficulties than males as they got used to freedom in the U.S., but when they returned to their country, they were supposed to get used to and adapt to the old traditions of their parents and their lifestyle.

Moreover, Werkman (1980) clarified the point of view of students from the U.S. who lived outside their country for about a year and described the period of re-adaptation when they returned to their home country as difficult, and they faced many challenges. They also mentioned that if they got the chance to move to another country other than their home country, the period of staying there at the beginning would be easier than the period they went through when they returned to the U.S. They showed their dissatisfaction and their feeling of nostalgia for the country they have already adapted to, where the culture of sojourn has become familiar to them.

Gama and Pedersen (1977) confirm this by assessing a group of students from Brazil when they returned to Brazil after they spent a period of their studies in the U.S. They expressed the challenges and difficulties they faced while trying to get used to the Brazilian lifestyle and re-adapting to their families and friends. It also negatively affected their personal lives, as they felt a lack of privacy. Also, this affects their profession as they refer to the lack of resources, which affects work efficiency.

2.4.2.2 Previous Studies about Reverse Culture Shock

Several studies focus on cross-cultural adaptation, specifically psychological adjustment for expatriates returning to their home country, the reverse culture shock, and the degree it affects the people returning to their home country and asking for assistance and support. Among these researchers, Gaw (2000), in which his study was about American students returning to America After a period of completing their studies outside their home country and was based on measuring the degree of the reverse culture shock that American students were exposed to upon their return, their psychological adaptation after their arrival to the US and seeing a counselor help them solve some of their problems. The questionnaire showed that cross-cultural re-adaptation is connected to two types of adaptation, whether personal or the one which is related to their college. It is also related to shyness or worries about their relationships with people close to them. Gaw (2000) illustrates that the most students who asked for support and counseling were those who went through a high degree of reverse culture shock and that the high level of reverse culture shock affected their relationships negatively. He added no apparent effect or relationship between the reverse culture shock that the students faced upon their return and intended to meet specialized

counselors. Another study by the researcher Jandova (2014) on Czech students who studied in the United States and then returned to the Czech Republic after a while sheds light on the reverse culture shock that the students faced and its effect on them after they returned to their home country.

The reverse culture shock had an effect not only on them but on their friends and the people close to them, such as their family; thus, their families indicated that they noticed a change in their behaviors and a change in some of their word choices as they started to use different special words; in addition to that, it affected the returnees negatively, as they felt changes in their relationships with their family and friends. It also affected the strength of these relationships; they no longer seem like before. It also made them unsatisfied with the people's behaviors in the Czech Republic, describing them as different. Jandova (2014) also added that their relationships with friends and their host family were very strong, and it was challenging to undergo any change, and they mentioned that they missed this environment and culture that became more familiar than their home countries.

Moreover, Thomas (2009) studied cultural exchange program students after returning to their home country. The focus was on studying their experience and the extent of the impact of the reverse culture shock on them at the beginning of their arrival to their home country, specifically in the first six months after their return. It was evident that these returnees had different experiences during this period due to several factors related to their personal lives or environmental factors and situations they went through. Besides, these experiences depend on the extent of the similarities and differences between the host country and their home country. As a result of the differences, many of them suffered during their arrival to their home country.

They found differences in being a responsible person, expressing their opinions freely, independence, and decision-making independently without anyone's interference. Also, differences in the size of the geographical area in both the host and home countries have different lifestyles. Finally, this study concluded that the process of cultural re-adaptation upon their return was affected and was more related to intimate and romantic relationships than the relationships with their relatives and families.

2.4.3 Reentry Theories

Martin and Harrell (2004) developed a model to illustrate reentry acculturation and divided it into affective, behavioral, and cognitive aspects. This matches Ward, Bochner, and Furnham's model (2001) which is called (ABC) acculturation model that indicates the process of reentry acculturation is multidimensional. It includes feelings, behaviors, and the mental aspect.

2.4.3.1 Affective Aspect

The first type of this model includes the psychological aspect of the returnees to their home country. This stage focuses on feelings and emotional reactions. Gullahorn and Gullahorn's (1963) model of Reverse culture shock, which is called W-Curve, is essential in this theoretical aspect. This model is an extension of the U-curve model (Lysgaard, 1955) and it includes four stages, namely, euphoria, culture shock, acculturation, and the stable state (Lysgaard, 1955). Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) indicate that the returnees returning to their home countries may have psychological and emotional reactions during these stages and, in turn, affect the period of re-adaptation upon return to the home country. Chamove & Soeterik (2006), Linehan & Scullion (2002), and Martin (1984) noted that the psychological challenges experienced by the repatriate might be more difficult than those experienced by the expatriate.

Chamove and Soeterik (2006) emphasize that the psychological pressure and negative feelings that repatriate experiences may be similar to the intense grief people suffer from the death of their loved ones. Moreover, Furukawa (1997) illustrates that several reasons lead to the challenges returnees go through, including no anticipation of the difficulties that a returnee will face upon returning to the home country, lack of prior preparation for this stage, and nostalgia for the period of staying in the host country.

2.4.3.2 Behavioral Aspect

Second, another aspect of re-entry focuses on the behaviors of returnees and is related to cultural learning theory. Black et al. (1992b) indicate that behavioral control plays a role in facilitating the re-adaptation process upon return to the home country. This can be done through cognitive adjustment before returning to the home country. For example, an expatriate goes through a transformative period when moving to another country, but they are supposed to learn new behaviors in the host country. Later, when they integrate into the host country and start to form new behavioral responses, this affects their behaviors in the home country and may lead to ignoring and forgetting them by focusing on the new behaviors. Thus, people returning to their home country are required to re-learn the social behaviors, some of the forgotten skills and norms of their home country.

Researchers have a question regarding the new skills the expatriate has when adapting to the host country's environment. Is it better to get rid of them when the expatriate returns to his/her home country or to keep these new skills and merge the new behavioral system with the old one (Selmer, Ebrahimi, & Li, 2000).

Some scholars support the idea of maintaining the new behavioral system. Ward et al. (2001) point out that the successful adaptation process in the host country is directly proportional to the success of the re-adaptation process in the home country when returning. Ward et al. (2001) believe that returnees can benefit from the acquired skills used in the host country, and it can somehow be applied again when they return to the homeland. On the other hand, Sussman (2002) concludes in his research that there is no relationship between adaptation to the host country and the re-adaptation process when returning to the home country.

2.4.3.3 Cognitive Aspect

There are two models that refer to the cognitive aspect: the expectations model and the cultural identity model. The first model highlights the importance of returnees' preconceived expectations about changes that may occur in the home country’s environment (Martin & Harrell 2004,

Szkudlarek 2010). These expectations influence the reentry adjustment period, whether these expectations have fully come true. Thus, there is a possibility for a reverse culture shock due to a lack of preconceived expectations about the upcoming experience (Martin & Harrell 2004).

Satisfaction with the re-entry period when entering the home country resulting from prior expectations leads to the facilitation of the readaptation process (MacDonald & Arthur 2005). On the other hand, dissatisfaction with the return period resulting from lack of preparation and lack of prior expectations leads to challenges and difficulties in adapting to the home country. However, Rogers and Ward (1993) are against the idea of having a relationship between preconceived expectations and psychological adjustment when returning to the home country. In contrast, Black (1992) does not agree with that and indicates that prior expectations increase satisfaction and job performance.

Martin & Harrell (2004) indicate that the cultural identity model explains the changes in identity that an expatriate goes through when moving to the host country and identity changes in the reentry. Shifts or changes in the identity that affects the returnees' belonging, values, and behaviors are caused by the transitional period that the expatriate goes through when he/she is in the host country. Thus, they try to change their identity to fit in the culture and environment of the host country (Cox 2004, Szkudlarek 2010).

Sussman (2000) found a model in which he explained identity alteration types: subtractive, additive, affirmative, and intercultural. People who are exposed to the first two types of identity shifts face more difficulties in the readjustment process. For instance, the relationship and the links between the repatriates who go through subtractive shifts and their families are weak. Additionally, the repatriates who go through additive shifts have a strong link with the host country. In contrast, returnees who face affirmative shifts have a strong relationship with their home country during their stay in the host country. Moreover, returnees who are exposed to the intercultural shift have established strong intercultural shift relationships during their stay abroad. Both types help with an easier readjustment process. However, these changes may begin to appear when returning to the home country and may cause difficulties with readjustment, particularly if there are "identity gaps" that negatively affect the communication skills (White 2015).

2.5 Cultural Intelligence

Ang and Van Dyne (2008) refer to cultural intelligence as the ability of an individual in a multi-cultural context with different ethnic and national identities to function effectively. Earley and Ang (2003) go in line with Van Dyne's (2008) definition by confirming that it refers to the person's ability to function well in different situations with cultural diversity. Earley and Ang (2003) define cultural intelligence as a multidimensional construct which is divided into four dimensions: Cognitive, Metacognitive, Motivational and Behavioral.

2.5.1 Motivational Cultural Intelligence

It refers to the extent to which an individual is interested, motivated, and confident to experience and to acquire new cultural behaviors in diverse situations. It also refers to how much they are into the different cultural interactions (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

2.5.2 Behavioral Cultural Intelligence

It refers to the individual ability to appropriately interact with people from different cultures, either verbally and non-verbally (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

2.5.3 Cognitive Cultural Intelligence

It refers to the individual's knowledge about the norms and values of two different cultures. It is also about knowing and being aware of the similarities and differences between the systems of different cultures such as the legal, economic, educational, and sociocultural systems (Ng, Van Dyne, Ang & Ryan, 2012; Earley & Ang, 2003).

2.5.4 Meta-cognitive Cultural Intelligence

Ang and Van Dyne (2008) refer to it as the awareness and the executive mental processes an individual has for successful interactions in cross-cultural situations.

2.5.5 Previous Studies about Cultural Intelligence and Cultural Adaptation

Kim et al. (2008) illustrate a relationship between cultural intelligence and cultural adaptation in the host country. They proved that the higher the level of cultural intelligence an individual has, the easier he/she adapts to the new environment in the host country.

Additionally, Presbitero (2016) states that cultural intelligence can lessen culture shock on the expatriates' adaptation process. This can also be applied to the reverse culture shock as it can be applied to the reverse culture shock as its effect on cross-cultural re-adaptation can be lessened by the cultural intelligence.

2.6 Conclusion

It is clear from this chapter that reverse culture shock was defined differently according to different researchers. Thus, the literature showed that culture shock is a highly researched topic while the light is not shed on the reverse culture shock as it does on the culture shock, especially regarding the Business Administration and MBA students. Hence, this means a gap exists on the subject which is supposed to be filled by this research study.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes the research design that is used to meet the research objectives (i.e., to measure the relationship between the RCS of international Business Administration/MBA students who went back home and the demographic factors). In addition, the relationship between RCS and Cultural Intelligence, and between the RCS and cultural intelligence dimensions (motivational, behavioral, cognitive, and metacognitive). Also, it will include the type of data and the method of data collection. Moreover, it will give details about the target population, the sample, and sampling techniques. Additionally, the research question and the hypotheses are highlighted in this chapter. Finally, after the data collection, the analysis methods are to be mentioned as well as the ethical considerations that are followed in this research.

3.1 Research Design

Kothari (2004) defined research design as "the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data." (p.31) Mainly, it is concerned with answering the research question and testing the hypotheses. This research aims to find out the relationship between the reverse culture shock and the demographic factors of participants. Hence, to achieve the objectives of this research, a cross-sectional survey design is used. According to Leary (2001), a cross-sectional survey can be done by giving a questionnaire to a group of participants. They are asked to answer some questions about themselves in a single specific shot of time without influencing the respondents.

One questionnaire is used which is divided into three sections in order to measure the Reverse culture shock (dependent variable) and the demographic factors (independent variable). Additionally, a correlational research design is used to test the five hypotheses (i.e., to measure if the RCS and demographic factors are related or not). The third section consists of a 20-item cultural intelligence scale (CQS) by Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2009).

3.2 Data Collection Process

Bhattacherjee (2012) states that "data collection methods can be broadly grouped into two categories: positivist and interpretive. Positivist methods are aimed at theory (or hypotheses) testing, while interpretive methods are aimed at theory building" (p.2-3) The present study's objective is to test the hypotheses. Thus, it follows the positivist method. Additionally, Bhattacherjee (2012) added that the positivist method prefers to use quantitative data. The data used in the present research follows this as the data used is numeric.

According to Kothari (2004), data types can be classified into two main types whether it is collected for the first time while conducting the study which is called (primary data), or it is previously collected and might be statistically analyzed by others which is called (secondary data). In the present study, primary data is collected. One of the common methods for collecting data is the questionnaires which can be easily used when the researcher and the participants are not in the same geographical areas (Sekaran, 2003). Thus, the present research is in line with this as the researcher and participants are in different regions. Also, it is considered as it's not costly and it saves time.

3.3 Sampling Technique

After finding suitable participants to participate in the online survey in this research, snowball sampling was used. It's one of the sampling techniques in which the survey respondents are asked to forward the survey to other potential respondents who may be part of their networks, and they have to meet the same requirements (Sedgwick, 2013). In this study, first Business Administration students who participated in exchange programs and returned home were contacted. The researcher has then asked the participants for assistance to guide the researcher for participants who fit to participate in the research study. Finally, other BA or MBA students who shared the same experience with those participants or traveled and went back home later also participated in the study. In total, 136 participants were contacted online.

3.4 Instrument for Data Collection

The instrument used for primary data collection is a structured self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire is in English. It's divided into three sections. The first section consists of questions related to personal and demographic variables such as (Gender, age, degree level while in the host country, length of trip, and time since returning home). The data in this section were analyzed using descriptive statistics.

Section two consists of a 16-item reentry scale to measure reverse culture shock which was adapted from the research of Seiter and Waddell (1989). The questions in this section were closed-ended questions designed with 5 points Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree "1" to strongly agree "5".

Section three consists of a 20-item cultural intelligence scale which was adapted from Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2009).

3.4.1 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

"Reliability is the extent to which the variables or set of variables is consistent in what is intended to measure. If multiple measurements are taken, the reliable measure will be consistent in their values. It differ from validity in that, it relates to not what should be measured, but instead, it relates to how it is measured" (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2013, p. 3) Thus, both validity and reliability are required to lessen the measurement error and make sure that this measurement is adequate.

3.4.1.1 Validity of the Instrument

According to Leary (2001), validity refers to whether the measurement measures what it is supposed to measure. Additionally, Sekaran (2003) adds that there are many tests used to test the

instrument's validity. Hence, he classified them into three types which are: content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity.

3.4.1.1.1 Content Validity

Content validity refers to the idea of how much each item in the questionnaire truly represents the construct that is supposed to be measured (Field, 2013). Face validity is considered an indicator for content validity (Sekaran, 2003), which refers to how much the measure or instrument covers what it is supposed to measure statistically and linguistically (Leary, 2001). Moreover, Bhattacherjee (2012) mentioned that asking a panel of experts can be one of the ways to test the content validity. In the present study, this has been done when the scale was developed and validated by (Seiter and Waddell (1989). It was also done when the CQ scale was developed and validated by Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2009). Furthermore, the researcher sought professors' points of view and the research participants before conducting the questionnaire. As a result, it can be clearly shown that the instrument is valid in terms of content validity.

3.4.1.1.2 Criterion-related Validity

Criterion-related validity is the extent to which a device can predict another measure by comparing it to objective criteria (Field, 2013). Bhattacherjee (2012) refers that it has two types which are: concurrent validity which means (whether the measure is related to a given current criterion or not) and predictive validity which means (whether the measure can be related to a future criterion or not).

Field (2013) argued that for criterion-related validity, it is often impractical to be measured. The reason is that, basically, this type of validity is assessed by conducting correlational analysis in which given scores can be related to real observations. He mentioned that this can not always be achieved because the objective criteria to be measured does not always exist. Bhattacherjee (2012) argues that criterion-related validity is sometimes not assessed in social sciences research. Thus, in the present study, the criterion- related validity is not assessed.

3.4.1.1.3 Construct Validity

"Construct validity refers to the extent to which the measurement questions actually measure the presence of those constructs you intended them to measure" (Saunders et al.,2009, p. 373). According to Sekaran (2003) & Bhattacherjee (2012), this type of validity can be tested by convergent and discriminant validity. One of the methods to assess the construct validity is using the factor analysis by using bivariate correlation in which several items are reduced statistically by combining them to a smaller group of factors (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The present research used the same factor analysis method during its development by (Seiter and Waddell (1989)). The same method was used in the CQS by Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2009). Thus, the instrument is valid in terms of construct validity.

3.4.1.2 Reliability of the Instrument

Drost (2011) refers to reliability as "the extent to which measurements are repeatable when different persons perform the measurements, on different occasions, under different conditions, with supposedly alternative instruments which measure the same thing." (p.106). Sekaran (2003), Field (2013) & Leary (2001) illustrates that there are three ways of testing the reliability which can be: test-retest reliability, split-half reliability, and internal consistency reliability. The most common way to test the reliability is by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient either by the given formula or by SPSS (Cronbach, 1970, as cited in Leary (2001)).

$\alpha = \square\square - 1(1 - \sum \square\square\square\square\square)$ (Cronbach, 1951, p. 299)

According to Cronbach (1951), Alpha can range from 0 to 1.00 in which 0 represents no reliability, and 1.00 the highest level of it. In the present study, alpha coefficient was obtained by SPSS 25. As shown below in the table, alpha coefficient for the RCS is 0.830 which shows a high level of reliability. Also, the alpha coefficient for the cultural intelligence scale is 0.877 which shows a high level of reliability.

Table 1: Reliability Statistics for RCS Scale And cultural intelligence Scale

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
RCS scale	0.830	0.827	16
cultural intelligence scale	0.877	0.881	20

3.5 Unit of Analysis and Time Horizon

First, "unit of analysis refers to the level of aggregation of the data collected during the subsequent data analysis stage." Unit of analysis can be individuals, groups, organizations, or dyads, etc. (Sekaran, 2003, p. 132). RCS has to do with the Business Administration/MBA students' reverse culture shock. Thus, to assess RCS, the level of individual students' re-entry shock has to be measured. Hence, the unit of analysis used in the present research is individual. Second, the time horizon in research can be either cross-sectional or longitudinal. The cross-sectional design is about collecting the data in a snapshot or one shot in a specific period while when collecting the data in a series of different points in time, this is called longitudinal (Sekaran, 2003; Saunders et al., 2009). This study follows the cross-sectional design because the data has been collected once over a period between February 2021 and June 2021.

3.6 Research Questions and Hypotheses

After reviewing the literature in the previous chapter and to fulfill the objectives of the present study, the following hypotheses have been outlined:

- **Research question 1**: Is there any relationship between RCS and demographic variables such as gender, age, degree level, trip length, and time since returning to the home country

of Business Administration/ MBA international students who studied abroad & went back home.

To answer the research question, the following hypotheses have been drawn:

H1: There is a significant difference between the men and women with regard to their RCS.

$$H1: \mu w \neq \mu m$$

Where: μw is the RCS faced by women and μm is the RCS faced by men.

H2: There is a significant difference between the students with different levels of degree with respect to their RCS.

$$H2: \mu u \neq \mu g$$

Where: μu, μg represent the RCS of students on the different levels of education: undergraduate and graduate.

H3: There is a significant difference between students' RCS based on their trip length.

$$H3: \mu s \neq \mu y$$

Where: μs, μy present the RCS of students on the different trip lengths: One semester, one year & above.

H4: There is a significant difference between the students' RCS based on the different periods of time the students have since returning home.

$$H4: \mu t1 \neq \mu t2$$

Where: μt1, μt2 present the RCS of students on the different periods of time the students have since returning home: One year or less, over a year.

H5: There is a significant difference between the students in different age categories with regard to their RCS.

$$\mu a1 \neq \mu a2 \neq \mu a3$$

Where: μa1, μa2, μa3 represent the RCS of students on the different age categories: 18-24 years, 25-35 years, and 36-45 years

- **Research question 2**: Is there any relationship between RCS and each dimension of cultural intelligence and the total cultural intelligence of Business Administration/ MBA international students who studied abroad & went back home.

To answer the research question, five hypotheses were highlighted:

H6: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the total cultural intelligence of the participants

H6a: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the motivational cultural intelligence of the participants

H6b: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the behavioral cultural intelligence of the participants

H6c: There is a significant difference between the RCS and the metacognitive cultural intelligence of the participants

H6d: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the cognitive cultural intelligence of the participants

3.7 Data Analysis Methods

The data will be analyzed with the help of SPSS 25 using descriptive statistics, independent t-test and one-way ANOVA. The demographic factors will be assessed using descriptive statistics. First, in the 1st research question, hypotheses 1 to 4 will be tested using an independent t-test because it tests whether the means of two groups are statically different or not (Bhattacherjee, 2012). ANOVA test will be used for the remaining hypothesis (5) because the age has more than two groups and RCS is measured on an interval scale. In hypothesis 5, if the result shows a significant difference, a post-hoc test should be used to show in which groups the exact difference lies by using the “Hochberg’s GT2 procedures". However, if the result in hypothesis 5 shows no

significant difference, there is no need to do the post-hoc test. In the second research question, H6 to H6d will be tested using Pearson's Coefficient Correlation. In order to find the strength of the correlation between the variables, the Pearson Correlation states that 0.8 or above= very strong, 0.5 or above = strong, 0.3 or above = medium, less than 0.3 = weak. It can be shown in the correlations table whether the correlations are significant or not. If the significance level is less than 0.05, this means the correlation is significant ($P<0.05$).

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Saunders et al. (2009, pp. 183 -184) illustrate that "ethics in research is appropriateness of your behavior in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work or are affected by it." Furthermore, Bhattacherjee (2012) mentioned that the following behaviors are some of the accepted ethical behaviors in scientific research which are "voluntary participation and harmlessness, anonymity and confidentiality, disclosures, and analysis and reporting". In the present study, the researcher confirmed that these ethical behaviors are taken into consideration in the following ways:

1- The participants were informed about the aim of conducting this research, who the researcher is, why the researcher is doing this research to make up their minds whether they would like to participate or not. There is an attachment paper in the appendix that confirms this.

2- No force or interference existed as the whole participants volunteered to participate in the survey.

3- The anonymity of the participants was done as the survey was conducted online and it had no questions about the participants' names or emails. Also, it was assured that this research is done for academic purposes, the information collected is confidential and will not be shared with any other individual or any organizations without prior permission.

4- Data was reported ethically and reasonably without any manipulation. The researcher assured that the hypothesis outlined first then the data were analyzed because manipulating the data to meet the researcher's interests or to divide the data into different portions in order to meet how the researcher would like the results of the hypothesis to be is considered unethical.

5- The limitations of the present study are mentioned for the benefit of future researchers and to help them avoid having the same problems.

3.9 Conclusion

In the present study, a cross-sectional survey design is used in one shot over a specific period to collect primary data from a sample of 136 international Business Administration/ MBA students. Participants were asked to complete an online questionnaire that was adapted from the study of Seiter and Waddell (1989). Finally, the data analysis part will be done by using the SPSS 25 by using the T-test and ANOVA test in order to determine the relationship between the participants' RCS and their demographic factors, and Pearson's Coefficient Correlation to test the relationship between the participants' RCS and their overall cultural intelligence, and between the RCS and the different dimensions of cultural intelligence.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter includes the results of the study and discussion of the findings. This chapter begins with the demographic profiles of the respondents. This is presented by mentioning and discussing the results obtained from the Business Administration/ MBA international students who studied abroad and went back to their home countries with regard to their reverse culture shock. Also, the relationship between RCS and the demographic characteristic of the respondents is mentioned. Finally, the relationship between the RCS and each dimension of the cultural intelligence and the total cultural intelligence is discussed.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The respondents' demographic profiles, including gender, age, degree level, trip length, and time since the return, are shown in following Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. In total, 136 participants responded to the questionnaire. Additionally, there are no missing values for the demographic variables. The table shows that most respondents 104 (76.5%) are females while 32 (23.5 %) are males. Additionally, most respondents 107 (78.7%) have a Bachelor's degree while 29 (21.3%) have a Master’s degree or higher.

Among the respondents, 86 (63.2%) are aged between 18-24 years, 47 (34.6%) are between 25-35 years, and 3 (2.2%) are aged between 36-45 years. Thus, it can be concluded that most participants' age range is young. In addition, 111 (81.6%) of the respondents stayed for one semester in the host country while 25 (18.4%) stayed for one year & above. Moreover, most respondents 80 (58.8%) have returned to their home countries over a year while it’s been one year or less for 56 (41.2%) of the respondents who went back home.

Table 2: Frequency of Gender

Gender					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	32	23.5	23.5	23.5
	Female	104	76.5	76.5	100.0
	Total	136	100.0	100.0	

Table 3: Frequency of Degree Level

Degree_Level					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor's degree	107	78.7	78.7	78.7
	Master's and higher	29	21.3	21.3	100.0
	Total	136	100.0	100.0	

Table 4: Frequency of Age

Age					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-24	86	63.2	63.2	63.2
	25-35	47	34.6	34.6	97.8
	36-45	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	136	100.0	100.0	

Table 5: Frequency of Trip Length

Trip_Length					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	One semester	111	81.6	81.6	81.6
	One year & above	25	18.4	18.4	100.0
	Total	136	100.0	100.0	

Table 6: Frequency of Time Since Return

Time_since_return					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	One year or less	56	41.2	41.2	41.2
	Over a year	80	58.8	58.8	100.0
	Total	136	100.0	100.0	

4.2 Relationship Between RCS and Demographic Factors

Is there any relationship between RCS of Business Administration/MBA international students who studied abroad and went back home and their demographic variables?

In order to answer the research question, five different hypotheses were highlighted:

H1: There is a significant difference between men and women with regard to their RCS.

An independent t-test is conducted to test this hypothesis. The results are shown in Tables 7.1, 7.2. The results of the t-test as shown in Table 7.1, reveal that on average, females (M = 3.5841, SD =0.64910) faced more RCS than their male counterparts (M = 3.5664, SD = 0.60657). However, this difference, -0.01773, at 95% confidence interval (-0.27342, 0.23796), is not statistically significant, t (134) = -0.137, p = 0.891 as shown in Table 7.2. Thus, we can conclude that there is no significant difference between genders based on RCS. As a result, hypothesis one is not supported. The present study replicates the findings of Akhtar, Kamal, Abdul Hayee & Imtiaz (2018) whose results also indicate no significant mean difference in RCS between males and females who are holders of foreign degrees in Pakistan. Additionally, Sussman (2001) highlighted no significant connection between males and females regarding RCS and difficulties upon reentry. (cited in Szkudlarek, 2009, p. 5).

In contrast, Brabant et al. (1990) mentioned a significant connection between gender differences and RCS as the authors highlighted that women are more sensitive and get more affected differently by reentry difficulties than men.

Table 7.1: Group Statistics on Gender

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RCS	Male	32	3.5664	.60657	.10723
	Female	104	3.5841	.64910	.06365

Table 7.2: Independent Samples T- Test for Gender

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances							T- test for Equality of Means		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
RCS	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	Lower	Upper
		.191	.663	-.137	134	.891	-.01773	.12928	-.27342	.23796
	Equal variances not assumed			-.142	54.652	.887	-.01773	.12470	-.26766	.23220

H2: There is a significant difference between the students with different levels of degree with respect to their RCS.

An independent t-test is conducted to test this hypothesis, and the results are shown in Tables 8.1,8.2. The results of the t-test, as shown in Table 8.1, reveals that, on average, participants who were doing Bachelor's degree (M = 3.6203, SD =0.59029) faced RCS more than the students who were doing their Master's (M = 3.4310, SD = 0.78051). Moreover, this difference, 0.18929, at 95% confidence interval (-.12629, .50487), is statistically non significant, t(37.119) = 1.215, p = .232 as reported in Table 8.2.Thus, we can say that there is no significant difference between Bachelor's degree holders and Master's degree holders with respect to their RCS. Thus, hypothesis two is not supported. This present research does not replicate the findings of Paige (2001) whose research indicates a significant mean difference between different degree holders with regard to the RCS and reentry challenges. Paige (2001) confirms that the more mature the person is and the higher education degree he holds, the easier his staying abroad will be, and the fewer reentry challenges will face.

Table 8.1: Group Statistics on Degree Level

Group Statistics					
	Degree_Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RCS	Bachelor's degree	107	3.6203	.59029	.05707
	Master's and higher	29	3.4310	.78051	.14494

Table 8.2: Independent Samples T- Test for Degree Level

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				T- test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
RCS	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	Lower	Upper
		4.999	.027	1.424	134	.157	.18929	.13289	-.07354	.45213
	Equal variances not assumed			1.215	37.119	.232	.18929	.15577	-.12629	.50487

H3: There is a significant difference between students' RCS based on their trip length.

An independent t-test is conducted to test this hypothesis. The results are shown in Tables 9.1 and 9.2. The results of the t-test as shown in Table 9.1, reveals that on average, the participants whose trip length was one semester (M = 3.5991, SD =0.64273) faced RCS more than the ones whose trip length was one year or above (M = 3.4950, SD = 0.61738). However, this difference, 0.10410, at 95% confidence interval (-0.17537, 0.38356), is not statistically significant, t (134) = 0.737, p= 0.463 as shown in Table 9.2. Thus, we can say that there is no significant trip length difference with regard to RCS. As a result, hypothesis three is not supported. The present study confirms what Suutari and Välimaa (2002) mentioned that there is no relationship between the length of the

trip in the host country and the readjustment challenges. (as cited in Szkudlarek, 2009, p. 7) while it is not in line with the findings of Paige (2001), who found that there is a significant difference between returnees' trip length with respect to their RCS. He illustrates the more the expatriate stays abroad, the more possibility for them to face challenges and unexpected RCS upon their return.

Table 9.1: Group Statistics on Trip Length

Group Statistics					
	Trip_Length	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RCS	One semester	111	3.5991	.64273	.06101
	One year & above	25	3.4950	.61738	.12348

Table 9.2: Independent Samples T-Test for Trip Length

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances							T- test for Equality of Means		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
RCS	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	Lower	Upper
		.659	.418	.737	134	.463	.10410	.14130	-.17537	.38356
	Equal variances not assumed			.756	36.670	.455	.10410	.13772	-.17504	.38324

H4: There is a significant difference between students' RCS based on the length of time since their return

An independent t-test is conducted to test this hypothesis. The results are shown in Tables 10.1 and 10.2. The results of the t-test as shown in Table 10.1, reveals that on average, the participants whose time since the return to home was over a year (M = 3.6008, SD =0.66267) faced RCS more than the ones whose time since the return to home was one year or less (M = 3.5502, SD = 0.60354). However, this difference, -0.05056, at 95% confidence interval (-0.27078, 016966), is not statistically significant, t(134) = -0.454, p = 0.651 as shown in Table 10.2. Thus, we can say that there is no significant difference between students whose time since return differs with regard to RCS. As a result, hypothesis four is not supported. The present study contradicts what Szkudlarek (2009) referred to. Szkudlarek (2009) illustrates that some authors such as (Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Sáchez Vidal et al., 2007) highlighted that there is a significant connection between the time since going back home and the RCS and reentry readaptation challenges. However, this present research goes in line with Cox's (2004, p.211) research.

Table 10.1: Group Statistics on Time Since Return

Group Statistics					
	Time_since_return	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RCS	One year or less	56	3.5502	.60354	.08065
	Over a year	80	3.6008	.66267	.07409

Table 10.2: Independent Samples T-Test for Time Since Return

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances							T- test for Equality of Means		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
RCS	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
		.068	.794	-.454	134	.651	-.05056	.11135	-.27078	.16966
	Equal variances not assumed			-.462	125.013	.645	-.05056	.10952	-.26730	.16619

H5: There is a significant difference between the students in different age categories with regard to their RCS.

To test this hypothesis, a one-way ANOVA is conducted, and the results are shown in Tables 11.1, 11.2, and 11.3. The results of the ANOVA test as shown in table 11.1, reveals that on average, the participants who are aged (18-24) (M= 3.6475, SD= 0.58731) faced RCS more than the ones who are aged (25-35) (M= 3.4854, SD= .67607), and the ones who are aged (36-45) (M= 3.1250, SD= 1.23111). This concludes the fact that the youth faced RCS more than the other older participants. This might happen because the young people may easily adapt to the host country when leaving home, comparing them to the other older people. In turn, the youth's RCS can be higher than the old people's according to the findindings of the present research. It could be seen from Table 11.2 that Levene's test is not significant. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance isn't violated. The results of the ANOVA test shown in Table 11.3 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between students in different age categories with respect to their RCS ($F = 1.787$; $p = 0.172$). Hence, hypothesis five is not supported. These results replicate the findings of (Hammer et al., 1998; Uehara, 1986) as referred to and cited in Szkudlarek (2009). On the other hand, this present research's results are not in line with Skudlarek's research (2009) as he illustrates that some authors such as (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Cox, 2004; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Hyder & Lovblad, 2007) concluded that there is a negative relationship between the age and

reentry challenges. When the returnees get older, the possibility of facing the RCS and reentry adaptation problems decreases.

Table 11.1: Descriptive Statistics on RCS Based on Age

Descriptives RCS								
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
18-24	86	3.6475	.58731	.06333	3.5216	3.7734	2.38	4.75
25-35	47	3.4854	.67607	.09861	3.2869	3.6839	1.88	4.63
36-45	3	3.1250	1.23111	.71078	.0668	6.1832	1.75	4.13
Total	136	3.5800	.63718	.05464	3.4719	3.6880	1.75	4.75

Table 11.2: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Test of Homogeneity of Variances					
		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
RCS	Based on Mean	2.813	2	133	.064
	Based on Median	1.379	2	133	.256
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.379	2	98.095	.257
	Based on trimmed mean	2.656	2	133	.074

Table 11.3: ANOVA Results for Age

ANOVA					
RCS					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.434	2	.717	1.787	.172
Within Groups	53.376	133	.401		
Total	54.810	135			

4.3 The Relationship Between RCS And Cultural Intelligence

Research question 2: Is there any relationship between RCS and each dimension of cultural intelligence as well as the total cultural intelligence of Business Administration/ MBA international students who studied abroad & went back home.

To answer the research question, five hypotheses were highlighted:

H6: **There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the total cultural intelligence of the participants**

The results show a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and cultural intelligence.

1. The direction of the correlation between the variables (from the Pearson correlation): a positive correlation between RCS and cultural intelligence as shown in Table 12.

2. The strength of the correlation between the variables: The correlation is 0.3 or above so the correlation is medium, and as shown here (r=0.470).

3. The correlation is significant. As shown in Table 12 Sig. = 0.000 which is less than 5 percent (P<0.05).

Table 12: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

(RCS And Total cultural intelligence)

Correlations			
		RCS	CQ
RCS	Pearson Correlation	1	.460**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	136	136
CQ	Pearson Correlation	.460**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	136	136

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

H6a: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the motivational cultural intelligence of the participants

The results show a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and motivational cultural intelligence.

1. The direction of the correlation between the variables (from the Pearson correlation): it's a positive correlation between RCS and motivational cultural intelligence as shown in Table 13.

2. The strength of the correlation between the variables: The correlation is 0.3 or above so the correlation is medium, and as shown here (r=0.444).

3. The correlation is significant as shown in Table 13. Sig. = 0.000 which is less than 5 percent (P<0.05). Ang, Soon, et al. (2007) confirmed that motivational cultural intelligence is positively related to cultural adaptation.

Table 13: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
(RCS And Motivational cultural intelligence)

Correlations			
		RCS	Motivational_CQ
RCS	Pearson Correlation	1	.444**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	136	136
Motivational_CQ	Pearson Correlation	.444**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	136	136

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

H6b: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the behavioral cultural intelligence of the participants

The results show a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and behavioral cultural intelligence.

1. The direction of the correlation between the variables (from the Pearson correlation): it's a positive correlation between RCS and behavioral cultural intelligence as shown in Table 14.

2. The correlation is 0.3 or above so the correlation is medium, and as shown here (r=0.402).

3. The correlation is significant. As shown in Table 14. Sig.= 0.000 which is less than 5 percent (P<0.05). Ang, Soon, et al. (2007) confirmed that behavioral cultural intelligence is positively related to cultural adaptation.

Table 14: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
(RCS And Behavioral cultural intelligence)

Correlations			
		RCS	Behavioral CQ
RCS	Pearson Correlation	1	.402**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	136	136
Behavioral_CQ	Pearson Correlation	.402**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	136	136

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

H6c: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the metacognitive cultural intelligence of the participants

The results show a weak non significant positive relationship between RCS and metacognitive cultural intelligence.

1. The direction of the correlation between the variables (from the Pearson correlation): it's a positive correlation between RCS and metacognitive cultural intelligence as shown in Table 15.

2. The correlation is less than 0.3, so the correlation is weak, and as shown here (r=0.140).

3. The correlation is non significant. As shown in Table 16. Sig.= 0.104 which is more than 5 percent (P>0.05). This study goes in line with Jyoti & Kour (2015) and Jyoti et al. (2015). Their study revealed no significant relationship between the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and cultural adaptation.

Table 15: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
(RCS And MCQ)

Correlations			
		RCS	MCQ
RCS	Pearson Correlation	1	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.104
	N	136	136
MCQ	Pearson Correlation	.140	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.104	
	N	136	136

H6d: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the cognitive cultural intelligence of the participants

The results show a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and cognitive cultural intelligence.

1. The direction of the correlation between the variables (from the Pearson correlation): it's a positive correlation between RCS and cognitive cultural intelligence as shown in Table 16.

2. The correlation is higher than 0.3, and less than 0.5 so the correlation is medium, and as shown here (r=0.351).

3. The correlation is significant. As shown in Table 16. Sig.= 0.000 which is less than 5 percent (P<0.05). Konanahalli et al. (2014) also mentioned a positive relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and cultural adaptation while Jyoti and Kour (2015) confirmed the opposite.

Table 16: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
(RCS And CCQ)

Correlations			
		RCS	CCQ
RCS	Pearson Correlation	1	.351**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	136	136
CCQ	Pearson Correlation	.351**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	136	136

4.4 Conclusion

The results indicate that the respondents' RCS doesn't differ significantly based on the gender, age, degree level, trip length, and time since they returned home. The results indicate that the expatriates who spent longer periods abroad faced RCS less than the others who stayed for shorter periods. However, Paige (2001) illustrates that longer periods of staying in the host countries can lead to facing more RCS and challenges upon reentry. Additionally, the results show a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and total cultural intelligence, motivational, behavioral and cognitive cultural intelligence while there is a weak non significant positive relationship between RCS and metacognitive cultural intelligence. These results replicate some previous studies while contradicting others.

Table 17: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	Present Research results	Studies with Similar Results	Studies with Different Results
H1: There is a significant difference between the men and women with regard to their RCS.	Not supported	Akhtar, Kamal, Abdul Hayee & Imtiaz (2018) Sussman (2001) Szkudlarek (2009)	Brabant et al. (1990)
H2: There is a significant difference between the students with different levels of degree with respect to their RCS.	Not supported		Paige (2001)
H3: There is a significant difference between the trip length the students went on with regard to their RCS	Not supported	Suutari and Välimaa (2002)	Paige (2001)
H4: There is a significant difference between students' RCS based on their trip length	Not supported	Cox's (2004, p.211)	Szkudlarek (2009) (Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Sáchez Vidal et al., 2007)

H5: There is a significant difference between the students in different age categories with regard to their RCS	Not supported	(Hammer et al., 1998; Uehara, 1986)	(Black & Gregersen, 1991;Cox,2004;Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Hyder & Lovblad, 2007)
H6: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the total cultural intelligence of the participants	Supported	Ang, Soon, et al. (2007)	
H6a: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the motivational cultural intelligence of the participants	Supported	Ang, Soon, et al. (2007)	
H6b: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the behavioral cultural intelligence of the participants	Supported	Ang, Soon, et al. (2007)	
H6c: There is a significant difference	Not supported	Lin et al. (2012)	Jyoti & Kour (2015) and Jyoti et al. (2015)

between the RCS and the metacognitive cultural intelligence of the participants		Guðmundsdóttir(2015)	
H6d: There is a significant relationship between the RCS and the cognitive cultural intelligence of the participants	Supported	Konanahalli et al. (2014)	Jyoti and Kour (2015)

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main aim of this study is to explore whether the Business Administration/MBA international student returnees have encountered RCS or readaptation difficulties, to explore whether there is a relationship between the RCS and the demographic factors of the returnees. Also, to test whether there is a significant relationship between RCS and total Cultural Intelligence and between the RCS and cultural intelligence dimensions (motivational, behavioral, cognitive, and metacognitive). This chapter includes the conclusion of the study. Recommendations will also be provided on how to minimize RCS of the returnees. Finally, the limitations of this study will be outlined for future research.

5.1 Conclusion

Returning home after being done with an exchange program is a challenging experience. This study is in line with other previous studies which show that students who return from abroad suffer from RCS. The objective of this study is to find out whether there are significant mean differences in RCS among the participants in terms of their demographic factors such as gender, age, degree level, trip length, time since return. To achieve this, a cross-sectional survey method of data collection was used.

A structured self-administered questionnaire is adopted from the research of Seiter and Waddell (1989). The participants in this study were Business Administration/MBA international students who joined the Erasmus exchange program for six months, one year or above, and others pursued full degrees abroad. Students who participated were from different countries and went to different host countries. Data were analyzed using SPSS 25, and different tests were conducted which were descriptive analysis to determine the overall RCS, independent T-test to compare the mean differences for demographic factors. Also, ANOVA test was conducted for the age.

The independent T-test indicates no significant mean differences in RCS between male and female respondents. Additionally, they don’t differ significantly in terms of trip length and time since return and education degree level. Also, the ANOVA results revealed that the respondents’ RCS

does not differ significantly in terms of their age. As a result, there was no need to conduct a post-hoc test. Finally, the results related to the cultural intelligence and RCS show that there is a medium significant positive relationship between RCS and total cultural intelligence, motivational, behavioral, and cognitive cultural intelligence while there is a weak non-significant positive relationship between RCS and metacognitive cultural intelligence.

5.2 Limitations

Due to the time constraints, the researcher couldn't reach several returnees from different nationalities in order to compare the RCS in terms of cultural differences. Thus, most of the respondents were Jordanian students, and there was no balance between the differences in nationalities. Furthermore, the researcher was also unable to reach a wide range of sources such as families and friends of the returnees in order to explore more details about the returnees' adjustment process. Additionally, due to the time constraint, the researcher couldn't ask the participants for more interviews in order to be able to elaborate more about the stages of the readaptation process. Moreover, since some of the returnees went back home longer than 2-3 years ago, those returnees must have found it difficult to remember their exact initial readjustment process.

5.3 Recommendations for Future Research

This study suggests that to better understand RCS and readjustment difficulties, it is necessary to include a variety of areas for future research. Based on the findings of the study, the following suggestions have been developed for researchers investigating with exchange students.

First, reverse culture shock is a long process that requires a long time in order to expand more analytical frameworks for RCS, and to understand the long different stages of the re-adjustment process. Second, instead of a cross-sectional study, qualitative longitudinal interviews are

suggested to be used for investigating the reverse culture shock of future studies about returnees. Additionally, it is suggested to conduct more than one interview with returnees. For instance, three interviews can be conducted during three different periods of the exchange program such as: before the mobility interview, during the mobility interview, and after the mobility interview. Thus, this can give a wide range of results to compare between the three stages. Third, since this study is about Business Administration/ MBA students who faced reverse culture shock, it is suggested for the administrative staff in the universities to have some counselors for the returnees in order to guide the students about the readjustment period. Having guidance teachers or helping staff in universities will absolutely minimize the RCS's the returnees will face as they will be aware of what they might go through. Additionally, it can be beneficial for the students' success, especially the ones writing their thesis. They can be helped to see the academic differences between the two countries from different perspectives. In a nutshell, having a good administrative staff caring about the returnees can help to promote the future exchange programs and to enhance intercultural awareness among students. Finally, everyone who is involved in the exchange program should be part of this experience to encourage the returnees to reach their goals without having their academic scores in the home country affected negatively.

REFERENCES

Adler, N. J. (1981). Re-entry: Managing cross-cultural transitions. *Group & Organization Studies, 6*(3), 343

Adler, P. S. (1975). The transitional experience: An alternative view of culture shock. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 15*(4)13-23

Akhtar, M., Kamal, A., Abdul Hayee, A., & Imtiaz, S. (2018). Retrieved from https://www.pjprnip.edu.pk/index.php/pjpr/article/download/576/496/1065

Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2008). *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications*. Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K., Templer, K., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. (2007). Cultural Intelligence: Its Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2012). Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices (2nd ed.). Textbooks Collection. Book 3. http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/oa_textbooks/3

Black, J. S. (1992). Coming home: The relationship of expatriate expectations with repatriation adjustment and job performance. *Human Relations, 45*(2), 177–192.

Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (1991). When Yankee comes home: Factors related to expatriate and spouse repatriation adjustment. *Journal of International Business Studies, 22*(4), 671–694.

Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (1999). The right way to manage expatriates. *Harvard Business Review, 77*(2), 52–63.

Black, J. S., Gregersen, H. B., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1992b). Global assignments. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B. & Mendenhall, M. E. (1992). Toward a theoretical framework of repatriation adjustment, *Journal of International Business, 2*(4), 737-60.

Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1991). The U-curve adjustment hypothesis revisited: A review and theoretical framework. *Journal of International Business Studies, 22*(2), 231

Boyd, B. L., Giebler, C., Hince, M., Liu, Y., Mehta, N., Rash, R., Rowald, J., Saldana, C., & Yanta, Y. (2001). Does study abroad make a difference? An impact assessment of the international 4-H youth exchange program. *Journal of Extension, 39*(5), n5.

Brabant, S. C., Palmer, E., & Gramling, R. (1990). Returning home: An empirical investigation of cross-cultural re-entry. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14*, 387-404.

Butcher, A. (2002). A grief observed: Grief experiences of East Asian international students returning to their countries of origin. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 6*(4), 354-368.

Chamove, A. S., & Soeterik, S. M. (2006). Grief in returning sojourners. *Journal of Social Sciences, 13*(3), 215–220.

Chiang, S. (2015). Cultural Adaptation as a Sense-Making Experience: International Students in China. *Journal of International Migration and Integration, 16, 379-413.*

Church, A. T. (1982). Sojourner Adjustment. Psychological Bulletin, 91(3), 542.
Cox, B. J. (2004). The role of communication, technology, and cultural identity in repatriation adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 28*(3–4), 201–219.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*(3). 297-334.

Cultural Adaptation and Task Performance. *Management And Organization Review*, *3*(3), 335-371. doi: 10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x

Daly, A. J. (2007). Outbound student exchange at Australian and New Zealand universities: the effects of pre-departure decision-making, in-country experiences and post-sojourn outcomes (Doctoral dissertation. Retrieved from https://eprints.utas.edu.au/6736/

Dettweiler, U., Ünlü, A., Lauterbach, G., Legl, A., Simon, P., & Kugelmann, C. (2015). Alien at home: Adjustment strategies of students returning from a six months over-sea's educational programme. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 44*, 72-87.

Doyle, S., Gendall, P., Meyer, L. H., Hoek, J., Tait, C., McKenzie, L., & Loorparg, A. (2010). An investigation of factors associated with student participation in study abroad. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 14*(5), 471-490.

Drost, E. A. (2011). Validity and reliability in social science research. *Education Research and perspectives, 38*(1), 105-123

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). Cultural intelligence: individual interactions across cultures. Stanford University Press.

Erasmus Student Network | ESN.org. Retrieved from https://esn.org/about

Erasmus+. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/about_en

Felt, A. L. (2011). Emerging Youth Leaders: A Redesign of A Two-Way Youth Exchange Between The US And Senegal. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from http://digitalcollections.sit.edu/capstones/2461

Field, A. (2013). Discovering staiıstics using IBM SPSS statistics (4th ed.). Los Angeles, London, New Delhi, Singapore, Washington DC. SAGE.

Furukawa, T. (1997). Sojourner readjustment: Mental health of international students after one year's foreign sojourn and its psychosocial correlates. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 185*, 263-268.

Gama, E., & Pedersen, P. (1977). Readjustment problems of Brazilian returnees from graduate studies in the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Adjustment, 1*, 46–59.

Gaw, K. F. (2000). Reverse culture shock in students returning from overseas. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 24*, 83-104.

Gilton, D. L. (2005). Culture shock in the library: Implications for information literacy instruction. Research Strategies, 20(4), 424-432. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.resstr.2006.12.013

Gregersen, H. B., & Stroh, J. K. (1997). Coming home to the arctic cold: Antecedents to Finnish expatriate and spouse repatriation adjustment. *Personnel Psychology, 50*(3), 635-654.

Guðmundsdóttir, S. (2015). Nordic expatriates in the US: The relationship between cultural intelligence and adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 47,* 175–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2015.05.001.

Gullahorn, J., E., & Gullahorn, J., T. (1963). An extension of the U-Curve hypothesis. *Journal of Social Issues, 19*, 33-47.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2013). *Multivariate Data Analysis*: Pearson Education Limited

Hottola, P. (2004). CULTURE CONFUSION-Intercultural Adaptation in Tourism. *Annals Of Tourism Research, 31*, 447-466.

Hyder, A. S., & Lovblad, M. (2007). The repatriation process –a realistic approach. *Career Development International, 12*(3), 264-281.

Jandova, P. (2014). Reverse Culture Shock: Czech Students Returning Home from the United States (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from https://is.muni.cz /th/fxmws/Reverse_Culture_ Shock_Jandova_Pavla.pdf

Jansson, P. D. (1975). Return to society: Problematic features of the reentry process. In C. N. Austin (Ed.), cross-cultural re-entry: A book of readings. Abilene, TX: ACU Press.

Jyoti, J., & Kour, S. (2015). Assessing the cultural intelligence and task performance equation: Mediating role of cultural adjustment. *Cross Cultural Management, 22*(2), 236–258. https://doi.org/10.1108/CCM-04-2013-0072.

Kim, K., Kirkman, B. L., & Chen, G. (2008). Cultural intelligence and international assignment effectiveness. In S. Ang & L. V. Dyne (Eds.), Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications (pp. 71-90). New York, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Kim, Y. (2001). *Becoming intercultural: An integrative theory of communication and cross-cultural adaptation* (p. 31).

Konanahalli, A., Oyedele, L., Spillane, J., Coates, R., Von Meding, J., & Ebohon, J. (2014). Cross-cultural intelligence: Its impact on British expatriate adjustment on international construction projects. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business, 7*(3), 423–448. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMPB-10-2012-0062.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques* (2nd Ed.). New Delhi: New Age International limited.

Leary, M. R. (2001). Introduction to Behavioral Research Methods (3rd ed.). Boston, London, Toronto, Tokyo, Sydney & Singapore: Allyn & Bacon

Lesjak, M., Juvan, E., Ineson, E.M., Yap, M.H., Axelsson, E.P., 2015. Erasmus student motivation: why and where to go? High Educ. 70, 845–865. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-015-9871-0

Li, Y. X., Sano, H., & Ahn, R. (2013). Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Chinese Students in Japan: School Adjustment and Educational Support. *International Journal of Progressive Education, 9*(3), 154-168

Lin, Y. C., Chen, A. S. Y., & Song, Y. C. (2012). Does your intelligence help to survive in a foreign jungle? The effects of cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 36*(4), 541–552. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2012.03.001.

Linehan, M., & Scullion, H. (2002). Repatriation of female international managers. *International Journal of Manpower, 23*(7), 649–658.

Longman. (n.d.). exchange student | meaning of exchange student in Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English | LDOCE. Retrieved from https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/exchange-student

Lysgaard, S. (1955). Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fulbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin, 7,* 45-51.

MacDonald, S., & Arthur, N. (2005). Connecting career management to repatriation adjustment. *Career Development International, 10*(2), 145–159.

Martin, J. N. (1984). The intercultural reentry: Conceptualization and directions for future research. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 8*, 115–134.

Martin, J.N. (1987) The Relationship between Student Sojourner Perceptions of Intercultural Competencies and Previous Sojourn Experience. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 11*, 337-355.

Martin, J. N., & Harrell, T. (2004). Intercultural reentry of students and professionals: Theory and practice. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett, & M. J. Bennett (Eds.), Handbook of intercultural training (pp. 309–336). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). Exchange student. In *Merriam-Webster.com dictionary*. Retrieved from https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/exchange%20student

Miller, E. J. (1993). Culture Shock: A Student's Perspective of Study Abroad and the Importance of Promoting Study Abroad Programs. Paper presented at the Annual Intercultural and International Communication Conference (10th, Miami,FL, February 25-27, 1993).

Mooradian, B. L. (2004). Going home when home does not feel like home: Reentry, expectancy violation theory, self-construal, and psychological and social support. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 13*, 37-50.

Ng, K. Y., Van Dyne L., Ang, S., & Ryan, A.M. (2012). Cultural intelligence: a review, reflections and recommendations for future research. In A.M. Ryan, F. T. l. Leong, & F. L. Oswald (Eds.), *Conducting multinational research projects in organizational psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Oberg, K. (1960). Cultural shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. Practical Anthropology

Paige, R. (2001). *Education for the intercultural experience*. Yarmouth, Me.: Intercultural Press.

Presbitero, A. (2016). Cultural intelligence (cultural intelligence) in virtual: cross-cultural interactions: generalizability of measure and links to personality dimensions and task performance. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 50*, 29-38.

Pyvis, D., & Chapman, A. (2005). Culture shock and the international student 'offshore'. *Journal of Research in International Education, 4*(1), 23-42.

Raschio, R. A. (1987). College students' perceptions of reverse culture shock and re-entry adjustments. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 28*(2), 156-162.

Rogers, J., & Ward, C. (1993). Expectation-experience discrepancies and psychological adjustment during cross-cultural reentry. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 17*(2), 185–196.

Sánchez Vidal, M. E., Sanz Valle, R., Barba Arago´ n, M. I., & Brewster, C. (2007). Repatriation adjustment process of business employees: evidence from Spanish workers. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 31*(3), 317-337.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2009). Research methods for business students fifth edition (5th ed.). Edinburgh Gate, Harlow,Pearson Education Limited

Searle, W., & Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14*, 449–464.

Sedgwick, P. (2013). Snowball sampling. BMJ, 347: f7511

Seiter, J. S., & Waddell, D. (1989). The Intercultural Reentry Process: Reentry Shock, Locus of Control, Satisfaction, and Interpersonal Uses of Communication

Sekaran, U. (2003). Research methods for business: A skill-building approach (4th ed.). United States of America: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

Selmer, J., Ebrahimi, B. P., & Li, M. T. (2000). Adjustment of Chinese mainland vs. western business expatriates assigned to Hong Kong. *International Journal of Manpower, 21*(7), 553–565.

Shibuya, Y. (2003). Reverse culture shock: a study of readjustment problems faced by the Japanese returnee company-wives (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://epubs.surrey.ac.uk/804948/1/Shibuya2004.pdf

Simmons, A (2014). The impact of long-term study abroad on the development of emotional-social intelligence in undergraduates. (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from http://fsu.digital.flvc.org

Sobie, J. H. (1986). The culture shock of coming home again. In C. N. Austin (Ed.), cross-cultural re-entry: A book of readings. Abilene, TX: ACU Press.

Sodjakusumah, Tutty & Everts, Hans. (1996). Strangers in a strange land - Indonesian students in New Zealand universities and the challenge in pastoral care. Paper presented at the ERA-AARE Conference, Singapore.

Solomon, C. M. (1994). Success abroad depends on more than job skills. *Personnel Journal, 4*, 51–59.

Sussman, M. N. (1986). Re-entry research and training: Methods and Implications. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10*, 235-254.

Sussman, N. M. (2000). The dynamic nature of cultural identity throughout cultural transitions: Why home is not so sweet. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 4*(4), 355–373.

Sussman, N. M. (2002). Testing the Cultural Identity Model of the cultural transition cycle: Sojourners return home. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 26*(4), 391–408.

Sussman, N. M. (2001). Repatriation transitions: Psychological preparedness, cultural identity, and attributions among American managers. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 25*(2), 109-123.

Suutari, V., & Välimaa, K. (2002). Antecedents of repatriation adjustment: New evidence from Finnish repatriates. *International Journal of Manpower, 23*(7), 617-634.

Szkudlarek, B. (2009). Reentry -A review of the literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34, 1-21

Szkudlarek, B. (2010). Re-entry: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 34*(1): 1-21.

Taff, R. (1977). Coping with unfamiliar culture. In N. Warren (Ed.), *Studies in cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 121-153). London: Academic Press

Teichler Urlich (ed.) (2002), ERASMUS in the SOCRATES Programme. Findings of an Evaluation Study. ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education. Lemmens: Bonn.

Thomas, S. L. (2009). Coming home: University exchange students' narratives of cultural re-entry (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved https://eprints from.utas.edu.au/10674/2/PhD_Final.pdf

Tohyama, N. (2008). Reverse culture shock and romantic relationships in college students reentering after study abroad (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from https://etd.ohiolink.edu/rws_etd/document/get/bgsu1206387236/inline

Uehara, A. (1986). The nature of American student re-entry adjustment and perceptions of the sojourn experience. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10*, 415-438.

Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). The psychology of culture shock. East Sussex, Great Britain: Routledge.

Ward, C. & Kennedy, A. (1999). The measurement of sociocultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 23*, 659– 677.

Werkman, S. L. (1980). Coming home: Adjustment of Americans to the United States after living abroad. In G. V. Coelho & P. I. Ahmed (Eds.). Uprooting and development: Dilemmas of coping with modernization. New York: Plenum Press.

Westwood, M. J., Lawrence, W. S., & Paul, D. (1986). Preparing for reentry:
A program for the sojourning student. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 9*, 221-230.

White, C.H. (2015). Expectation violations theory and interaction adaptation theory. In D.O. Braithwaite & P. Schrodt (eds.), *Engaging Theories in Interpersonal Communication: Multiple perspectives, 2nd Edition* (217-228). Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Winkelman, M. (1994). Culture shock and adaptation. *Journal of Counseling and Development,* 73(1), 121-126

Zhang, J. & Goodson, P. (2011). Predictors of international students' psychosocial adjustment to life in the United States: A systematic review. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35, 139–162.

Appendix 1: Introductory to Respondents

İSTANBUL TİCARET ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Institute of Social Sciences

Department of Business Administration

MBA Program

Dear Respondents,

This survey is purely for academic purposes. It aims to study the reentry challenges that international Business Administration/ MBA students face when they return to their home country. Only students who studied abroad (full degree or exchange programs) & went back to their home countries can participate in this survey. The answers from your questionnaire will be used for my thesis in partial fulfillment of a Master's Degree in Business Administration at Istanbul Commerce University in Istanbul, Turkey. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Thinking back on your feelings when you were back home, please indicate your degree of agreement with the following statements by ticking an appropriate number. (1 =Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Tick "3" if you are uncertain.

Appendix 2: The Questionnaire

1. Demographic factors

1. Gender
    - Female
    - Male
2. Age
    - 18-24 years
    - 25-35 years
    - 36-45 years
    - +46 years

3. Nationality ……...
4. Where have you studied abroad ? (Host Country) …….
5. The degree level in the host country
    - Bachelor's degree
    - Master's degree
    - PhD degree

6. Length of Trip
    - One semester
    - One year & above

7. Length of Time Since Return
    - One year or less
    - Over a year

2. The Challenges Faced When Returning Home (RCS)

In relation to the challenges of returning home, please indicate your degree of agreement with the following statements by ticking an appropriate number. (1 =Strongly Disagree (Very Dissatisfied) ; 5 = Strongly Agree (Very Satisfied)). Tick "3" if you are uncertain.

1- When I returned, people did not seem that interested in my experiences abroad.
2- Life was more exciting in the host culture.
3- My friends seem to have changed since I have been gone.
4- When I returned home, I felt really depressed.
5- I had difficulty adjusting to my home culture after returning from abroad.
6- Since I have been abroad I have become more critical of my home culture's values.
7- I miss the foreign culture where I stayed.
8- I had a lot of contact with members of the host culture.
9- I feel like I have changed a lot because of my experience abroad.
10- When I returned home, I felt generally alienated.
11- My friends and I have grown in seperate directions since I have returned.
12- Life in my home culture is boring after the excitement of living abroad.
13- I miss the friends that I made in the host culture.
14- Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home culture's government.
15- My friends and family have pressured me to "fit in" upon returning home.
16- The values and beliefs of the host culture are very different from those of my home culture.

3. The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities. Select the answer that best describes you as you really are (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree).

cultural intelligence dimensions	**Questionnaire items**
MC1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
MC2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MC3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
MC4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures
COG1	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
COG2	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.
COG3	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
COG4	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
COG5	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
COG6	I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures.
MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
MOT2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MOT3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
MOT4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
MOT5	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.

BEH1	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.