

FLINDERS UNIVERSITY

**Abroad One More Time: Understanding
Re-Expatriation Intentions among Overseas Returnees
– An Emerging Economy Perspective**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Nga Thi Thuy Ho

B. Ec (National Economics University),

M. PAcc (The University of Sydney)

Business School, Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences,
Flinders University, Adelaide, Australia

October 2015

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	i
List of figures	v
List of tables	vi
Abstract	viii
Statement of declaration	x
Publications	xi
Acknowledgements	xii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. Research background.....	3
1.3. Research problem and research questions	10
1.4. Objectives of the research	11
1.5. Research context.....	12
1.6. Research methodology	13
1.7. Contributions of the study	14
1.8. Outline of the thesis.....	16
Chapter 2: Literature review	18
2.1. Introduction	18
2.2. The concepts of self-initiated expatriates, returnees, self-initiated re-expatriation and brain circulation	19
2.2.1. Self-initiated expatriates versus assigned expatriates	19
2.2.2. Self-initiated expatriates versus migrants	24
2.2.3. Returnees.....	27
2.2.4. Self-initiated re-expatriation	29
2.2.5. Brain circulation.....	34
2.3. Theoretical foundations	35
2.3.1. Theories explaining pull-push forces	36
2.3.2. Theories explaining re-entry experiences	43
2.3.3. Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)	46

2.3.4. Integrating pull-push theory and the theory of planned behaviour	49
2.4. Literature related to factors influencing returnees' intentions to re-expatriate	49
2.4.1. Pull-push forces	50
2.4.2. Re-entry experiences.....	61
2.4.3. The three predictors from the theory of planned behaviour.....	67
2.4.4. Integrating factors in pull-push theory and the TPB	70
2.5. Chapter summary.....	71
Chapter 3: Conceptual framework and research hypotheses	72
3.1. Introduction	72
3.2. Development of a preliminary theoretical framework	72
3.3. Development of hypotheses	73
3.3.1. Host-country pull forces	73
3.3.2. Home-country pull-push forces	76
3.3.3. Re-entry experiences.....	79
3.3.4. The three predictors of the TPB	81
3.3.5. Mediated linkages of the three predictors of the TPB	81
3.4. Chapter summary.....	85
Chapter 4: Research context and methodology	86
4.1. Introduction	86
4.2. Research context.....	87
4.2.1. Overseas Vietnamese and Vietnamese returnees.....	87
4.2.2. Vietnam's current approach to brain drain	92
4.3. Justification for survey methodology	94
4.4. Questionnaire design and administration	98
4.4.1. Specification of the data needed	98
4.4.2. Operationalisation of constructs	99
4.4.3. Drafting the questionnaire.....	106
4.4.4. Review and pre-testing of questionnaire.....	108
4.4.5. Assessment of reliability and validity of measures.....	110
4.4.6. Response strategy.....	112
4.5. Sampling strategy	117
4.5.1. Sampling methods.....	117

4.5.2. Selection of participants	117
4.5.3. Data collection procedure	118
4.6. Sample profiles	119
4.7. Data analysis strategy	124
4.8. Chapter summary.....	125
Chapter 5: Analysis of Survey Data.....	126
5.1. Introduction	126
5.2. Data preparation	126
5.2.1. Checking data entry	127
5.2.2. Treatment of missing data.....	128
5.2.3. Identifying outliers.....	128
5.2.4. Assessment of data normality	131
5.3. Measurement models.....	131
5.3.1. Goodness of fit indices.....	133
5.3.2. Measurement model of intention to re-expatriate	136
5.3.3. Measurement model of expected outcomes from re-expatriation.....	137
5.3.4. Measurement model of life dissatisfaction	143
5.3.5. Measurement model of career dissatisfaction	144
5.3.6. Measurement model of community embeddedness	145
5.3.7. Measurement model of career embeddedness	148
5.3.8. Measurement development for reverse culture shock.....	150
5.3.9. Measurement model of interaction readjustment.....	155
5.3.10. Measurement model of work readjustment.....	156
5.3.11. Measurement model of general readjustment	156
5.3.12. Measurement model of attitude toward re-expatriation.....	158
5.3.13. Measurement model of subjective norm.....	159
5.3.14. Measurement model of perceived behavioural control.....	159
5.4. Score and the normality of new construct	161
5.5. Construct validity	162
5.5.1. Convergent validity	162
5.5.1. Discriminant validity	164
5.6. Common method bias.....	166

5.7. Model testing	167
5.7.1. Assessment of model fit	167
5.7.2. Hypotheses testing	168
5.8. Additional analysis	179
5.9. Chapter summary.....	182
Chapter 6: Discussion and conclusion	183
6.1. Introduction	183
6.2. Summary and discussion of research findings	184
6.3. Theoretical implications	199
6.4. Practical implications	202
6.5. Limitations of the study and future research	206
6.6. Conclusion.....	209
Bibliography.....	211
Appendices	232
Appendix 1: Summary of the measurement of key constructs.....	232
Appendix 2: Ethics approval	238
Appendix 3: Survey instruments	240
Appendix 4: A legend to the labelling of the items.....	258
Appendix 5: Mahalanobis distance of outliers	262
Appendix 6: Assessment of univariate and multivariate normality	264
Appendix 7: EFA results of expected outcomes from re-expatriation	268
Appendix 8: EFA results of RCS	272
Appendix 9: Correlation matrix.....	276
Appendix 10: Reliability checks for all hypothesised constructs.....	277

List of figures

Figure 1.1: FDI inflows into emerging and advanced economies (US\$ million).....	7
Figure 1.2: Economic growth of emerging economies and advanced economies (%)	7
Figure 2.1: Migrants	27
Figure 2.2: Returnees.....	28
Figure 2.3: Brain Drain, Reverse Brain Drain and Brain Circulation	35
Figure 2.4: The theory of planned behaviour for re-expatriation	48
Figure 3.1: Preliminary theoretical framework developed for this study	74
Figure 4.1: Outbound mobile Vietnamese students	90
Figure 4.2: Vietnam's GDP growth rate in 2000-2013 (%)	91
Figure 4.3: FDI inflows into Vietnam (US\$ million).....	92
Figure 5.1: One-factor congeneric model of intention to re-expatriate.....	137
Figure 5.2: One-factor congeneric model of non-career outcomes	141
Figure 5.3: One-factor congeneric model of career outcomes	142
Figure 5.4: One-factor congeneric model of life dissatisfaction	144
Figure 5.5: One-factor congeneric model of career dissatisfaction.....	145
Figure 5.6: Second-order CFA model of community embeddedness	148
Figure 5.7: Second-order CFA model of career embeddedness	150
Figure 5.8: Second-order CFA model of RCS	154
Figure 5.9: One-factor congeneric model of interaction readjustment.....	155
Figure 5.10: One-factor congeneric model of work readjustment.....	156
Figure 5.11: One-factor congeneric model of general readjustment	157
Figure 5.12: One-factor congeneric model of attitude toward re-expatriation.....	158
Figure 5.13: One-factor congeneric model of subjective norm.....	159
Figure 5.14: One-factor congeneric model of perceived behavioural control.....	160
Figure 5.15: Completely standardized structural coefficients for the theoretical model	171

List of tables

Table 2.1: SIEs versus AEs	20
Table 2.2: Self-initiated expatriates versus migrants.....	25
Table 2.3: Self-initiated re-expatriation versus self-initiated expatriation	33
Table 2.4: Theories explaining pull-push forces for self-initiated re-expatriation.....	42
Table 4.1: Questionnaire structure and content	107
Table 4.2: T-test results of late and early responses.....	115
Table 4.3: T-test results of paper and online responses.....	116
Table 4.4: Respondents' background	121
Table 4.5: Respondents' overseas studies	122
Table 4.6: Respondents' current work life	122
Table 4.7: Respondents' family life	124
Table 5.1: Univariate outliers with z score above +/- 3.29	129
Table 5.2: Summary of selected Fit Indices used for this study.....	135
Table 5.3: Assessment of the hypothesised model of intention to re-expatriate	137
Table 5.4: Varimax-Rotated Component Analysis Factor Matrix	139
Table 5.5: Assessment of the hypothesised model of non-career outcomes	140
Table 5.6: Assessment of the hypothesised model of career outcomes.....	142
Table 5.7: Assessment of the hypothesised model of life dissatisfaction	143
Table 5.8: Assessment of the hypothesised model of career dissatisfaction	144
Table 5.9: Assessment of the hypothesised model of community embeddedness	146
Table 5.10: Assessment of the hypothesised model of career embeddedness.....	149
Table 5.11: Rotated Component Matrix of RCS	153
Table 5.12: Assessment of the hypothesised model of RCS	154
Table 5.13: Assessment of the hypothesised model of interaction readjustment.....	155
Table 5.14: Assessment of the hypothesised model of work readjustment.....	156
Table 5.15: Assessment of the hypothesised model of general readjustment	157
Table 5.16: Assessment of the hypothesised model of attitude toward re-expatriation	158
Table 5.17: Assessment of the hypothesised model of subjective norm.....	159
Table 5.18: Assessment of the hypothesised model of perceived behavioural control	160
Table 5.19: Descriptive statistics of new constructs.....	161

Table 5.20: Assessment of discriminant validity – squared correlations between constructs and average variance extracted.....	165
Table 5.21: Model fit comparisons.....	168
Table 5.22: Standardised direct, indirect and total effects of factors	169
Table 5.23: The results of mediated linkages	175
Table 5.24: Total effects of factors on intention to re-expatriate (Returnees with obligation versus returnees without obligation)	181
Table 6.1: Summary of results for testing hypotheses 1 to 6	185
Table 6.2: Summary of results for testing mediation hypotheses 7 to 9	198

Abstract

This study investigates the reasons why returnees in an emerging economy, Vietnam, who have studied and/or worked abroad, and who have returned to their home country, intend to re-expatriate on their own initiative. This study integrates two key theoretical underpinnings, pull-push theory and the theory of planned behaviour, to explain their re-expatriation intentions. Other theories (e.g. expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, home country embeddedness, reverse culture shock and cross-cultural readjustment) are also used to explain particular pull-push forces or returnees' re-entry experiences. Using path analysis on a sample of 433 Vietnamese returnees, the study finds that pull forces from the host country and pull-push forces from the home country impact on the intentions to re-expatriate. There are three pull-push factors associated with home and host countries that have a significant impact on returnees' intention to re-expatriate: (1) dissatisfaction with career and life in their home country, (2) career and community embeddedness, and (3) expected career and non-career outcomes from re-expatriation. In terms of re-entry experiences, reverse culture shock has the strongest impact on intentions to re-expatriate while other re-entry factors have no significant effects (e.g. work readjustment and interaction readjustment) or weak effects (e.g. general readjustment). For the theory of planned behaviour, attitude toward re-expatriation and subjective norm affect returnees' intention to re-expatriate. Further, these factors either fully or partially mediate the role of pull-push factors on intentions to re-expatriate. The path analysis undertaken in this study suggests a more complex relationship at play and this reinforces the need for further research in this area. This study adds to the limited number of empirical studies on brain circulation and self-initiated re-expatriation of returnees in emerging economies. In particular, it plays a

modest but important role in filling the research gap of better understanding the social, emotional and psychological challenges that drive the behaviour of returnees in emerging economies when they return to their home countries. The results of this study will be helpful for organizations and governments, especially in emerging economies, to develop policies to alleviate skill shortages, recruit and retain highly skilled returnees.

Keywords: self-initiated expatriates, re-expatriation, returnees, emerging economies, brain circulation, re-entry experiences.

Statement of declaration

I certify that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university; and that to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

30 May 2015

Nga Thi Thuy Ho

Date

Publications

The following publications are based upon the research presented in this thesis, and may contain results and material presented herein.

Ho, T.T.N., Seet, P., & Jones, J. (has been accepted to be published). Understanding Re-Expatriation Intentions among Overseas Returnees – An Emerging Economy Perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*.

Ho, T. T. N., Seet, P., & Jones, J. (Forthcoming Book Chapter). From Brain Drain and Brain Gain to Brain Circulation: Conceptualizing Re-Expatriation Intentions of Vietnamese Returnees. In L. Tran & S. Marginson (Eds.), *Internationalisation in Vietnamese Higher Education*: BTW Springer.

Ho, T.T.N., Seet, P., & Jones, J. (2014). *Understanding Re-Expatriation Intentions among Overseas Returnee Professionals*. Proceedings of the 2014 Academy of Management Annual Meeting, Philadelphia, USA.

Ho, T.T.N., Seet, P., & Jones, J. (2014). *Conceptualizing Re-Expatriation Intentions of Returnee Professionals in Emerging Economies*. Proceedings of the Australia and New Zealand International Business Academy, Auckland, New Zealand.

Acknowledgements

I acknowledge that the pursuit of my PhD is not a solo journey. I owe a special debt of gratitude to number of individuals. First, I hold a deepest gratitude to my wonderful supervisors – Associate Professor Pi-Shen Seet and Dr Jane Jones. I could not complete this thesis without their constructive, insightful comments and feedback, their assistance, support, and encouragement during my PhD progress. Their wealth of expertise and a tremendous amount enthusiastic make this research journey a most enjoyable one. I am so fortunate to work with them and learn from them.

Special thanks also go to Professor Phyllis Tharenou who provided me with her invaluable insights and comments on developing scales and survey questionnaire. Her critical feedback was of value in enhancing the quality of my thesis. My sincere thanks also go to other academic and professional staff at Flinders Business School who helped me overcome a lot of hurdles in the PhD process.

I sincerely thank my dear friends and colleagues in Vietnam who helped me with the data collection. My thanks are to my survey participants who spent their time and shared their valuable experiences and knowledge with me. I also thank my Vietnamese friends in Australia and in Vietnam who helped me with translation and backward translation of the survey questionnaire.

I would also like to express my gratitude to Ms Patricia Yong for her assistance in proofreading my thesis and journal articles. My thanks are also to my fellow PhD candidates for their knowledge sharing and their companionship during my PhD candidate.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my husband, Dr Hung Hoang. I thank him for his encouragement, understanding and supporting me throughout this thesis. I thank him for his invaluable advices about research method, statistics and data analysis. My husband and beloved daughter are my amazing strengths to overcome any difficulties in life. I am also grateful to my supportive family members for their unconditional love and endless support.

Finally, thanks go to the Australian Government for the financial support through the Endeavour scholarships, which enabled me to undertake my PhD study in Australia. I also would like to thank my case managers and staff at Scope Global Pty Ltd for their support.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

The purpose of this thesis is to examine why returnees from an emerging economy, Vietnam, intend to go back abroad on their own initiative (hereafter referred to as self-initiated re-expatriation). Returnees are people who are born in one (home) country, go abroad to another (host) country for the purposes of higher education and/or work for more than one year and then return to their home country to work as professionals for the long term. Self-initiated re-expatriation refers to the return abroad (which may be the host country or a different country) by returnees for a long term period (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014) and where returnees have to self-initiate their own re-expatriation (Baruch et al., 2013).

Returnees are valuable human resources for emerging economies because they bring back advanced knowledge and skills from more developed economies (Tran, Marginson, & Nguyen, 2014). However, they may re-expatriate if, for example, they are unhappy and do not adjust well to their home country (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Re-expatriation will be critical for the home country government as they may lose these talented people to other countries. Therefore, investigating the reason why returnees intend to re-expatriate is very important for the home country government in terms of retaining these highly skilled returnees.

Losing these highly skilled human particularly causes major problems for Vietnam, especially its ambitions to transition from a socialist-oriented market economy to modern, industrialised country by 2020 (Quang, 2013; The World Bank, 2012).

Meanwhile, Vietnam is negotiating access to Trans-Pacific Strategic Economic Partnership Agreement (TPP) in the near future (Krist, 2015). Although the TPP promises many opportunities for Vietnam, such as a wider export market for Vietnam's products, it will also bring challenges for Vietnamese enterprises which will face higher foreign competition as foreign products, services and capital will be able to access Vietnam's market with greater ease (The Vietnamese Ministry of Finance, 2015). In order to prepare for these significant changes, Vietnam needs to not only attract but also retain highly talented Vietnamese with strong global competencies, given the growth in importance of human capital as a source of competitive advantage which underscores the importance of talent in the economy (Jones et al., 2012). Vietnamese returnees who possess advanced skills, knowledge, international experiences and foreign language proficiency from developed countries, are vital for Vietnam's continued economic growth (Gribble, 2011; Pham, 2010). These returnees may also bring international linkages and technologies from the host country (Pham, 2010). Thus, finding the reasons why returnees intend to re-expatriate will be critical for the Vietnamese Government in order to develop and implement appropriate policies to help returnees settle down and retain talent in Vietnam.

The introduction chapter of this thesis first discusses the research background which includes the rationale for this thesis (section 1.2). Next, the research problem and research questions are presented in section 1.3, followed by objectives of the research in section 1.4. Section 1.5 briefly explains why Vietnam is chosen as a research context. This chapter also provides a brief discussion on the research methodology (section 1.6) and contributions of the study (section 1.7). Finally, an outline of the thesis is presented in section 1.8.

1.2. Research background

Nowadays, we find evidence of advances in communication that provide job information to job-seekers everywhere, no matter where they are physically located, advances in transportation that help people to easily move across national borders, and also, the demand for skilled professionals in both developing and developed economies (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011; Tharenou, 2015b). This leads to a large and increasing number of talented individuals who develop their careers outside their home country in a variety of modes and types (Baruch et al., 2013). Typical forms of international work include: (1) assigned expatriates (AEs) who are sent by their companies abroad to carry out certain tasks in the host country (Andresen, Biemann, & Pattie, 2015); (2) self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) who differ from AEs in that they move overseas in search of work with little or no organizational sponsorship and often have contracts or conditions that are no different to that of locals (Andresen et al., 2014; Biemann & Andresen, 2010); and (3) students who are studying overseas.

Some of these talented individuals may return to their home country after a significant period of working or studying in another country (often more than 1 year) due to family related reasons or better career opportunities in their home country (Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri, 2007; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). In particular, many emerging economies have recently experienced an increase in the number of returnee professionals/graduates from more advanced economies due to the high demand for skilled labour required to support the high economic growth in these emerging economies. For example, the return rate of Chinese overseas graduates has increased (40-47% from 2008-2010, compared to 30% from 2005-2007) (National Bureau of Statistics of P.R. China, 2011).

Recently, Vietnam has also attracted an increasing number of overseas Vietnamese, who have graduated and/or worked overseas, back to Vietnam (Le, 2014).

This study focuses on the experiences of this group of returnees who initially came from an emerging economy, Vietnam, have gone abroad to work or study, and then returned to their home country. In other words, this study examines those returnees who have had at least one extended experience out of their home country and are back working in different professions in their home country. Their initial overseas experience may have been organizationally assigned or self-initiated and may have been for work, studies or overseas experience or a combination of these. Some of them, after returning or repatriating back to their home country, may be considering going overseas again for an extended period on their own initiative.

It is important to examine returnees' re-expatriation intentions as it is highly likely that the motivation to go abroad may differ significantly among those going for the first time, as compared to those going for the second or more times. There are two reasons that explain why the motivations of initial expatriates may differ from that of re-expatriates. First, the latter group may have encountered additional psychological and social factors upon repatriation/re-entry back to their home country (Tharenou, 2010, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Second, the motives for re-expatriation may differ from other stages of expatriation (e.g. initial expatriation) due to the different life-cycle stages (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996). SIEs who initially expatriate are normally young, and in the early phase of their careers, thus, exploration is central to their decision to expatriate (Inkson & Myers, 2003). In contrast, returnees are predominantly in the establishment stage (Inkson & Myers, 2003). The establishment stage refers to the

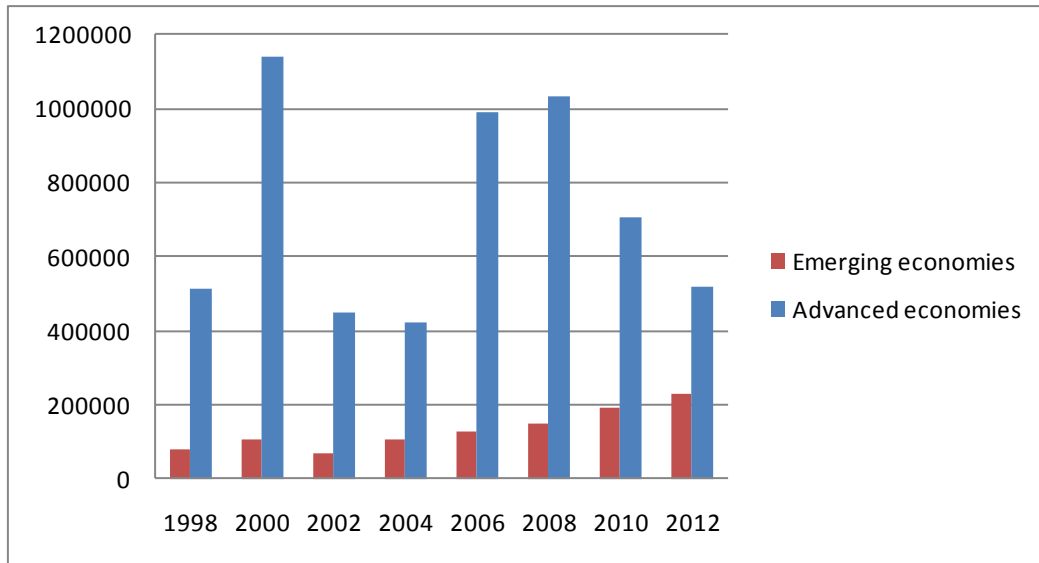
stage where individuals focus on developing the relationships in their families and career advancement in their work (Super et al., 1996). Returnees who intend to re-expatriate are normally older and have been abroad for extended periods for work and/or study purposes. Thus, re-expatriation is more likely to occur at the establishment stage for such returnees, which means family factors are more central in their decisions to re-expatriate (Richardson, 2006).

Further, prior research on SIEs tends to focus on explaining why highly-skilled individuals move to another country (expatriation) (e.g. Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills, 2011; Shaffer et al., 2012; Thorn, 2009) or return to their home country (repatriation) (e.g. De Cieri et al., 2009; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). In contrast, there is a lack of research on why individuals who have returned to their home country (returnees) then go abroad again (re-expatriation) (Näsholm, 2012; Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). In fact, repatriation does not necessarily mean the end of the expatriation process (OECD, 2008; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Several recent studies have shown a noticeable number of returnees who come from OECD countries re-expatriate (OECD, 2008). Similarly, some studies on Chinese returnees (e.g. Tung, 2007; Wadhwa et al., 2009) indicate that 10 to 20% of returnees state that they are strongly inclined to re-expatriate. Therefore, it is necessary to understand why SIEs undertake more than one international move and to capture the dynamic nature of international mobility as an ongoing process.

Additionally, the bulk of expatriation research (e.g. Begley, Collings, & Scullion, 2008; De Cieri et al., 2009; Suutari & Valimaa, 2002; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) has been done in the context of returnees who initially come from developed economies working

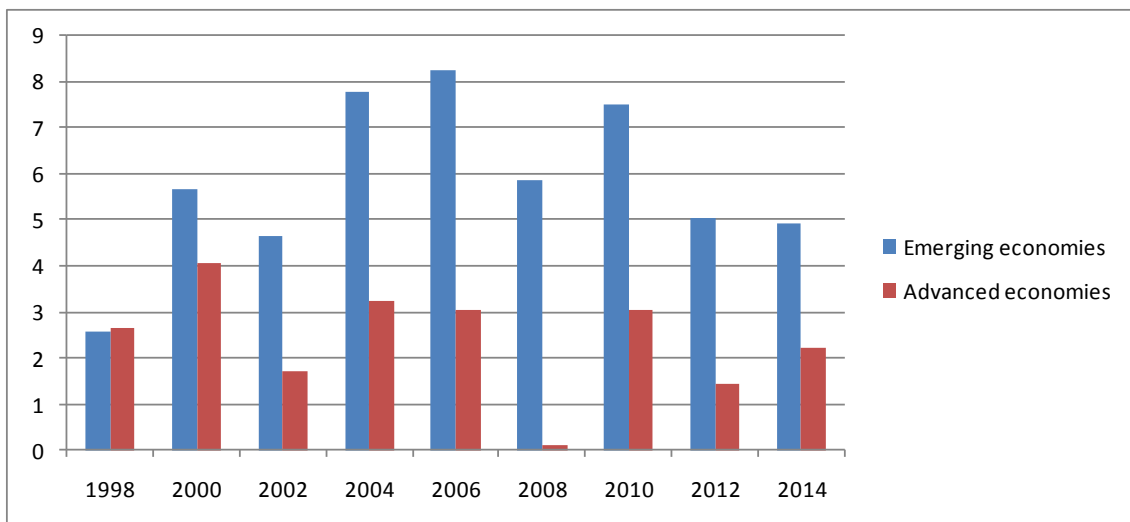
abroad in similar or less-developed countries and then returning home. This ignores a large and growing number of people whose home countries are emerging economies and who have gone overseas, often to more developed economies for work, studies and/or other experiences before returning home to oftentimes, more hardship contexts in their home countries.

Over the last few decades, emerging economies have transformed themselves to become more market-based economies, attracting a greater share of foreign direct investment (FDI) (see Figure 1.1) and enabling greater economic growth (see Figure 1.2) (Singh, 2010). Figure 1.1 shows that the gaps of FDI inflows between developed and emerging economies were significantly narrowed over the last decade. Figure 1.2 illustrates that the annual economic growths of emerging economies were more than two times those of developed economies since 2002. A concomitant issue accompanying economic growth is skill shortages and the need to recruit and retain highly skilled professionals (Scullion, Collings, & Gunnigle, 2007). One means of addressing this issue, and indeed reversing the so-called “brain drain”, is to attract overseas graduates and professionals who went abroad to study and/or work to return (Gribble, 2011). This reversal, however, may be temporary as returnees may go abroad again (in other words, re-expatriate), if for example, they are unhappy and do not adjust well to their home country.



Source: UNCTAD (2015)

Figure 1.1: FDI inflows into emerging and advanced economies (US\$ million)



Source: International Monetary Fund (2015)

Figure 1.2: Economic growth of emerging economies and advanced economies (%)

At present, much of the research on returnees in the context of emerging economies has been undertaken by “migration” researchers (e.g. Ho & Ley, 2013; Zweig, Chung, & Vanhonacker, 2006). The focus of their research has been on talented individuals leaving their home countries (brain drain) or talented graduates/professionals returning to their home countries (reverse brain drain) (Tzeng, 2006) with returnees bringing

skills and knowledge back from abroad (Zweig et al., 2006). However, researchers on brain drain or reversing the brain drain tend to perceive this international movement as a one way flow of skills, technology and capital; in effect, repatriation is viewed as the end point in the expatriation process. Highly skilled professionals who have left their home countries were once forced to choose between settling abroad (brain drain) or returning home (reverse brain drain) (Zweig, 2006). Nowadays, they have many opportunities to become “transnationals”, resulting in independent international moves or re-expatriations several times in their careers, in a phenomenon known as “brain circulation” (Saxenian, 2005; Tung, 2008). Surprisingly, although brain circulation has been recognised as a phenomenon for a number of years now (Tung, 2008), including brain circulation in emerging economies (Zweig & Han, 2010), most studies focus on returnees at the brain drain and reverse brain drain phases of the theory, and thus have not explored the re-expatriation phase. Although, a few studies (e.g. Saxenian, 2005; Tung, 2007) have focused on the outcomes of individuals moving transnationally, understanding the reasons or antecedents as to why people like returnees re-expatriate is still a significant gap in the literature.

In attempting to understand the phenomenon of re-expatriation among Vietnamese returnees, we also find that much of the extant literature on overseas Vietnamese or Vietnamese returnees focused on Vietnamese talent leaving Vietnam (brain drain) (e.g. Gribble, 2011; Nguyen, 2005, 2013, 2014; Schulmann, 2014) and or on these talent returning to Vietnam (reverse brain drain/ brain gain) (e.g. Anh, 2003; Le, 2014; Nguyen, 2012). Research on brain drain in the Vietnam context has focused on why Vietnamese students choose to study abroad and why they stay in the host country (Gribble, 2011). Meanwhile, research on reverse brain drain has found that overseas

Vietnamese return because of family attachment and better career opportunities in Vietnam (Le, 2014). Similar to research on other emerging economies, little is known about the brain circulation in Vietnam context.

This research aims to address this gap by focusing on the antecedents and factors affecting the intention of returnees from an emerging economy, namely Vietnam, to re-expatriate on their own initiative. The research therefore contributes to the current understanding of expatriation by providing new insights into the experience of a special group of expatriates (returnees), from an emerging economy and in a phase of expatriation or international mobility (re-expatriation/brain circulation) that is under-researched.

To that end, this study adopts a multi-theoretic perspective, by linking relevant economical, psychological and social factors to explain returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. As such, it builds on and contributes to two major theories namely, pull-push theory and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) to explain the motives behind re-expatriation. This study applies the theories of reverse culture shock (RCS) and cross-cultural readjustment to examine how returnees' negative reactions on re-entry to their home country, which are likely to prompt returnees to consider re-expatriating. This study draws on pull-push theory to explain the motives behind re-expatriation; that is pull or push forces from the home and the host countries. Pull-push theory has been used to explain the antecedents for expatriation and repatriation for more than three decades now (Glavac, 2000; Gmelch, 1980; Toren, 1976) including in the context of emerging East European, African and Asian economies (Chia, 2006; Finlay, Crutcher, & Drummond, 2011; Parutis, 2013). Pull-push is a generalized theory that can

conceptualize both economic (e.g. higher salary in the host country) and social/psychological factors (e.g. home country embeddedness) under particular pull-push forces (Baruch, 1995; Baruch et al., 2007; Baruch & Reis, 2015; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Home country embeddedness represents returnees' attitudes toward their links and fit with their careers and community in their home country, and sacrifices if they re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). This study also utilizes the TPB to link the intention to re-expatriate to actual re-expatriation (Van Breukelen, Van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004).

In so doing, the current study plays a modest but important role in filling the more general research gap of the need for a better understanding of the social, emotional and psychological challenges that drive the behaviour of returnees when they return to their home countries. Further, it has a number of theoretical implications and practical implications for home country governments and managers with respect to retain these talented returnees.

1.3. Research problem and research questions

In order to fill the gaps in the literature, this thesis will address the following research questions (RQs).

RQ 1: To what extent do host-country pull factors (career-related and non-career-related outcomes) influence the re-expatriation intentions of returnees? What is the relative importance of career-related outcomes and non-career-related outcomes in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions?

RQ 2: To what extent do home-country push factors (career and life dissatisfaction) lead to re-expatriation intentions? What is the relative importance of home-country push forces in comparison to host-country pull forces in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions?

RQ3: To what extent do home country career and community embeddedness deter returnees from intending to re-expatriate?

RQ 4: To what extent do returnees' negative re-entry reactions (RCS and poor cross-cultural readjustment) lead to re-expatriation intentions?

RQ 5: To what extent does each of the three predictors from the TPB (attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) have a significant effect on re-expatriation intentions?

RQ 6: To what extent do the three predictors of the TPB mediate the influence of pull-push factors on re-expatriation intentions?

1.4. Objectives of the research

The following three research objectives have been derived from the research questions presented above.

(1) To identify salient factors that influence Vietnamese returnees' intentions to re-expatriate.

(2) To explore the causal relationships between pull-push factors and the three predictors of the TPB (attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and

perceived behavioural control) in explaining Vietnamese returnees' intentions to re-expatriate.

(3) To identify the theoretical and practical implications of the study and areas for future research.

1.5. Research context

This research was conducted in an emerging economy context, Vietnam, for three main reasons. First, Vietnam has an increase in the number of returnees (Le, 2014; Vietnamnet, 2011) who are valuable human resources for Vietnam (Gribble, 2011). However, they may re-expatriate if they are not happy with living and working in Vietnam. Re-expatriation of these talent raise concerns for the Vietnamese Government as their skills and knowledge will benefit other countries rather than Vietnam.

Second, Vietnam has not been proactive in developing policies to attract and retain returnees compared to other emerging countries, such as China, Taiwan and India (Dang et al., 2010; Gribble, 2011; Nguyen, 2014). While there are a few government policies and projects aimed at attracting and retaining overseas Vietnamese to Vietnam, these policies or projects have not been effective (Dang et al., 2010; Tran et al., 2014). Therefore, finding the reasons why returnees intend to re-expatriate will be critical for the Vietnamese Government in order to come up with and implement appropriate policies to help returnees settle down and retain them in Vietnam.

Finally, I am from Vietnam and have experienced all three different expatriation stages (expatriation, repatriation and re-expatriation). I initially moved to Australia in 2008 to study a master course in Australia for two years. I returned to Vietnam after graduating

to fulfil the obligation to return as part of my scholarship. Two years after my return to Vietnam, I decided to re-expatriate to Australia for further postgraduate studies and I have also had the opportunity to do some part-time work. I personally understand re-entry experiences when returning to one's home country. I experienced RCS when my friends and colleagues did not seem interested in my overseas experiences. They were not concerned or interested in how hard I had worked in my studies and in my cultural experiences in Australia. I also found it was not easy to adjust back to my work and life in Vietnam. Thus, I chose Vietnam as a research context to illustrate why I and other Vietnamese returnees decide to re-expatriate.

1.6. Research methodology

This study used a quantitative method to empirically test the hypotheses and provide support for the conceptual framework developed from the literature. A quantitative method is used for two reasons. First, it allows us to draw conclusions from a much larger sample to population (Cameron & Price, 2009; Creswell, 2009). Second, this method allows an investigation into the causal relationship between variables in this study.

The data collection of this study was based on a survey questionnaire that was distributed to Vietnamese returnees. I collected data via some companies, organizations and the alumni associations of Vietnamese who have graduated from overseas. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) with path analysis was employed in order to empirically test the theoretical model from the data.

1.7. Contributions of the study

This study aims to make a number of theoretical contributions to the international human resource management (IHRM) literature and practical contributions to home-country government and managers.

First, prior expatriation research (e.g. Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2014; Thorn, Inkson, & Carr, 2013) has focused on why people expatriate or repatriate on their own initiatives. Meanwhile, prior migration studies have perceived global mobility as brain drain or reversing the brain drain (Tharenou & Seet, 2014; Tung, 2008). This study contributes to the extant literature on expatriation by examining returnees' intentions to re-expatriate which have not been fully explored in the literature. Supporting the brain circulation theory, this study indicates that the proposition that repatriation/reversing brain drain is not always an end point of the expatriation process.

Second, prior SIE research (e.g. Begley et al., 2008; De Cieri et al., 2009; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) has been undertaken in the context of returnees/repatriates who initially come from developed economies who have worked abroad in similar or less-developed countries and then have returned home country. Understanding the phenomenon of returnees from an emerging economy context is still a significant gap in the expatriation literature (Al Ariss, 2010; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013b; Guo, Porschitz, & Alves, 2013). This study sheds new light on understanding the experiences of an under-researched group in the expatriation literature, namely returnees from an emerging economy.

Third, most previous studies have focused on simple pull-push theory (Toren, 1976), that explains why people expatriate for economic or career reasons (Tharenou & Seet,

2014). This study has extended pull-push theory by exploring not only career factors (e.g. career outcome and career satisfaction) but also family (e.g. family outcome) and psychological factors (e.g. RCS).

Fourth, a few empirical studies (e.g. Caulfield, 2008; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gill, 2005) have investigated the links of re-entry experiences with re-expatriation intentions. However, these studies include a small sample size which may limit generalisability. The current study enriches our understanding of how re-entry experiences, including RCS and cross-cultural readjustment, affect intentions to re-expatriate through using a larger sample size.

Fifth, although the TPB is a well validated theory in explaining human social behaviour, prior studies have not tested this theory in the context of intention to re-expatriate. This study is the first to test the application of the TPB in understanding re-expatriation intentions, especially in the context of the Collectivist culture of Vietnamese returnees (Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

Sixth, by integrating pull-push theory and the TPB, this study provides a better understanding on how pull-push forces indirectly affect re-expatriation intentions through the mediation of the TPB variables.

Finally, this study provides a comprehensive understanding for managers and the government in the home country with respect to retaining returnees in emerging economies. Retaining these talented returnees will be critical for the home country's economic development as these returnees possess skills, advanced knowledge, international experience, and foreign language proficiency (Gribble, 2011).

1.8. Outline of the thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters, which are briefly outlined as follows. The first chapter has presented the background of the research, research problem, research questions, research methodology and contributions. A brief justification for Vietnam as the context of the study has been also included in this chapter.

Chapter 2 reviews research as to why returnees intend to re-expatriate. This chapter begins with the concepts of SIEs, AEs, migrants, self-initiated re-expatriation and brain circulation. Next, the main theories that explain re-expatriation intentions are justified, including pull-push theory, the TPB, expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, home country embeddedness, RCS and cross-cultural readjustment. Finally, this chapter identifies debates and gaps in the literature related to factors influencing re-expatriation intentions.

Chapter 3 presents the conceptual framework and hypotheses developed for this study. The conceptual framework is developed by integrating pull-push theory with the TPB. Based on the literature review, a number of hypotheses are developed to describe the causal links between pull-push forces, re-entry experiences, the three predictors of the TPB and re-expatriation intentions.

Chapter 4 provides a justification for Vietnam as a research context and outlines the quantitative methodology used for this research. The chapter provides justifications of the survey methodology and the steps taken in the questionnaire development and administration. The data analysis method and a brief summary of the sample are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the survey data collected for this research. The chapter begins with data preparation and data normality testing. Either the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) or exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is applied to address issues related the measurement constructs and to validate the constructs used in this study. Both convergent validity and discriminant validity are used to assess the construct validity. This chapter also indicates that common method bias is not problematic in this study. Further, the results from structural equation modelling (SEM) path analysis are presented to test the proposed hypotheses developed in Chapter 3.

The final chapter – Chapter 6 – summarises and discusses the research findings. Contributions of this study to theories and practices are identified. Finally, the limitation of this study and potential directions for future research are presented.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews research as to why returnees who have worked and/or studied abroad in more advanced/developed economies, and have returned to their home countries that are emerging economies, intend to re-expatriate on their own initiative. In particular, this chapter examines how their home country re-entry experiences affect this intention. The objective of this chapter is to identify key theoretical underpinnings, main research streams, debates and gaps in the literature rather than to develop hypotheses. Further, although returnees intend to re-expatriate by their own initiatives, their decisions are influenced by family, society and national contexts. Therefore, it is important to adopt different theoretical perspectives. Accordingly, the review includes both empirical and theoretical studies which come from a wide range of research areas, such as international migration, economics, human geography, psychology, international careers, and IHRM fields.

The chapter begins with a comparison of SIEs with AEs, and SIEs with migrants before presenting the concepts of returnees, self-initiated re-expatriation and brain circulation (section 2.2).

In the next section (section 2.3), theoretical justifications for why returnees intend to re-expatriate are discussed. In this study, pull-push theory and the TPB are key theoretical underpinnings. Other theories, including expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, family systems theory and home country embeddedness have been applied to explain particular pull- push forces. This study also applies the theories of RCS and

cross-cultural readjustment to examine returnees' negative reactions on re-entry to their home country which may prompt them to consider re-expatriating.

Section 2.4 reviews the literature related to factors influencing returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. This section first reviews pull forces from the host country and pull-push forces from the home country. Second, it reviews literature on returnees' experiences on re-entry to their home countries and the influence of their experiences on intentions to re-expatriate. Third, factors that influence returnees' intentions to re-expatriate from the TPB are reviewed. Finally, the integration factors in pull-push theory and the TPB are discussed. The last section (section 2.5) presents the chapter summary.

2.2. The concepts of self-initiated expatriates, returnees, self-initiated re-expatriation and brain circulation

This section provides a comparison of SIEs with AEs, and SIEs with migrants before presenting the concepts of returnees, self-initiated re-expatriation and brain circulation.

2.2.1. Self-initiated expatriates versus assigned expatriates

Although this study focuses on explaining why returnees, who have returned/repatriated back to their home country, intend to go overseas again for an extended period on their own initiative (referred to as self-initiated re-expatriation), it is important to set the context and definitions by reviewing the literature on SIEs as contrasted with AEs.

AEs are employees who are supported and transferred by an organization to undertake an international assignment (Andresen et al., 2014; Andresen et al., 2015; Baruch et al., 2013). In contrast, SIEs are individuals who voluntarily expatriate for foreign work (or international assignments) on their own initiative without being transferred or assisted

by employers (Andresen et al., 2014; Begley et al., 2008; Doherty, 2013; Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000).

The table 2.1 presents the key differences between AEs and SIEs, including: (1) motives for taking on overseas work, (2) choices and job security and (3) career types and mobility.

Table 2.1: SIEs versus AEs

	SIEs	AEs
Motives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual initiative (Andresen et al., 2014; Doherty, 2013) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal and organizational motives (Peltokorpi & Jintae Froese, 2009; Richardson & Mallon, 2005)
Choices and job security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own choice to expatriate or repatriate (Inkson & Myers, 2003) • Often without any pre-arranged jobs (Andresen et al., 2014). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selected by employers (Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005) • Often with jobs arranged by their company (Andresen et al., 2014)
Career types and mobility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boundaryless career (Inkson et al., 1997) • Higher organizational mobility (Andresen et al., 2015; Biemann & Andresen, 2010) • Weak company attachments (Inkson et al., 1997) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational career (Inkson et al., 1997) • Lower organizational mobility (Andresen et al., 2015; Biemann & Andresen, 2010) • Higher company attachments (Inkson et al., 1997)

Motives for taking on overseas work

The motives of SIEs for taking on overseas work initiate from the individual (Altman & Baruch, 2012; Andresen et al., 2014; Doherty, 2013; Inkson et al., 1997; Peltokorpi & Jintae Froese, 2009). In contrast, AEs have both personal and organizational motives for undertaking overseas assignments (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Peltokorpi & Jintae Froese, 2009; Richardson & Mallon, 2005). For AEs, their employing organization elects to send them overseas to fulfil organizational needs (McNulty, 2013; Suutari, Brewster, & Tornikoski, 2013). Therefore, AEs feel that they are under pressure from their organization to accept international assignments (Pinto, Cabral-Cardoso, & Werther Jr, 2012). For SIEs, the poor employment situation at home (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), their personal interest in developing international experiences (Cerdin, 2013; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Thorn, 2009), and host country attractions (Doherty et al., 2011) are considered more important factors.

Choices and job security

SIEs make their own choice to expatriate while their counterparts are selected by their employer (Carr et al., 2005; Inkson et al., 1997; Inkson & Myers, 2003). Most SIEs resign from their employment in their home country to expatriate (Inkson et al., 1997; Myers & Pringle, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2000) and use their own initiative to secure employment in the host country (Andresen et al., 2014; Vance, 2005). Most SIEs repatriate without any pre-arranged jobs while most AEs go on assignments and repatriate with jobs arranged by their company (Andresen et al., 2014; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Career orientations

SIEs have higher organizational mobility (Andresen et al., 2015; Biemann & Andresen, 2010), and weak company attachments (Inkson et al., 1997). The career type characterising AEs is an organizational career, while that of SIEs is referred to as a boundaryless career since SIEs use international experiences to develop skills for their future careers outside the boundaries of a single organization (Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari et al., 2013).

Research on self-initiated expatriates versus assigned expatriates

From the above discussion, most characteristics of AEs are significantly affected by their employing organization because they are selected and managed by their organization to complete their organizational tasks. Studies on AEs, therefore, have largely emphasised organizational perspectives, such as research on IHRM policies, including the selection, training, and repatriation of expatriates (Baruch & Altman, 2002; Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992b; Doherty, 2013; Stevens et al., 2006). Most studies on AEs have also focused on organizational factors (e.g. pressure from the organization), and overseas assignment related factors (e.g. positions, responsibilities, autonomies and skills offered by the assignments) (Pinto et al., 2012). Therefore, most studies on AEs (e.g. Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Briscoe & Schuler, 2004; Pinto et al., 2012; Selmer, 2004; Suutari & Brewster, 2003) largely originate from the IHRM or international management disciplines.

In contrast, SIEs are self-directed, less reliant on IHRM policies in terms of selection, training and repatriation, but IHRM policies are relevant in terms of recruitment, rewards management and motivation (Doherty, 2013; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). Thus,

several studies on SIEs (e.g. Cao et al., 2014; Doherty et al., 2011; Suutari & Brewster, 2000) also originate from the IHRM field.

Further, although SIEs make their own choices to expatriate independently from their organization, their choices are significantly affected by their family, social and national context (Altman et al., 2013; Baruch, 1995; Richardson, 2006; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Thus, studies on SIEs come from a wide range of disciplines. For example, career researchers (e.g. Doherty et al., 2013b; Guo et al., 2013) argue that the decision by SIEs to expatriate is a career choice, when SIEs take up international careers outside the borders of an organization or country. Economics researchers (e.g. Barrett & O'Connell, 2001; Dustmann, Fadlon, & Weiss, 2011) claim that SIEs refer to individuals who expect to gain economic benefits (such as higher salary) overseas. Studies relying on psychological perspectives assert that expatriation decisions arise from their behaviour, attitudes and feelings (Szkudlarek, 2010). Therefore, the research and literature on SIEs is not limited to only those from the IHRM field, but also comes from a wider range of sources, such as economics (e.g. Barrett & O'Connell, 2001; Dustmann et al., 2011), international careers (e.g. Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012; Doherty et al., 2013b; Guo et al., 2013; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Shaffer et al., 2012), psychology (e.g. Tharenou, 2010; Tharenou & Seet, 2014), human geography (e.g. Hugo, 2005, 2006; Lidgard, 2001) and international migration (e.g. Brown & Connell, 2004; Carr et al., 2005; Khoo, 2003). A further review of research on SIEs from the migration perspective will be discussed in detail in the next section.

Overall, the aim of this study is to examine why returnees intend to re-expatriate on their own initiative and it therefore draws more on SIE literature as this study does not

include the intention to return abroad by accepting international assignment. Therefore, although there are some differences between expatriation and re-expatriation, which will be presented in section 2.2.4, this study focuses on reviewing the literature on SIEs rather than AEs. The following section will discuss the concepts of SIEs and migrants from the perspective of migration research.

2.2.2. Self-initiated expatriates versus migrants

The previous sections have argued why the literature on SIEs originate not only from the IHRM field, but also from international careers, economics, psychology and human geography disciplines. This section addresses the concern about the distinctiveness or overlap between SIE research and migration research.

The concepts of SIEs and migrants, in contrast to the differences between SIEs and AEs, are less distinguishable (Andresen et al., 2014). As stated in section 2.2.1, most studies define SIEs as individuals who voluntarily expatriate for foreign work (or international assignments) on their own initiative without being transferred or assisted by employers. Migrants involve people who move across international borders (Berry & Bell, 2012). Both SIEs and migrants choose to go abroad on their own initiative (Andresen et al., 2014). Thus, the definitions of migrants and SIEs alone do not provide a clear point of difference (Berry & Bell, 2012).

Studies (e.g. Al Ariss, 2010; Andresen et al., 2014; Andresen & Walther, 2013; Baruch et al., 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012; Cao et al., 2012; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013a) have identified some criteria to distinguish the two groups: SIEs and migrants (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Self-initiated expatriates versus migrants

	SIEs	Migrants
Country of origin and destination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • From developed countries to developed/less-developed countries (Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Baruch et al., 2013) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • From less-developed countries to developed countries (Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Baruch et al., 2013)
Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High educated and qualified individuals (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012; Doherty & Dickmann, 2013) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unskilled individuals, less educated backgrounds, qualified migrants who are either unemployed or under-employed (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012)
Job positions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managerial level (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workers or self-employed individuals (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012)
Length of stay in the host country	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not having predetermined length of stay (Al Ariss, 2010; Andresen et al., 2014; Baruch et al., 2013; Cao et al., 2012) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Settlement in the host country (Al Ariss, 2010; Andresen et al., 2014; Baruch et al., 2013; Doherty et al., 2013a)

First, migrants, in contrast to SIEs, often move from less-developed countries to developed countries (Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Baruch et al., 2013). Second, SIEs often involve highly educated and qualified people while migrants include unskilled and less educated individuals or qualified migrants who are often either unemployed or under-employed (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012; Doherty & Dickmann, 2013). Third, SIEs usually have jobs in managerial positions while migrants often have jobs as workers or self-employed individuals (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Berry & Bell, 2012). Finally, the main motives of migrants are to settle in the host country while SIEs typically do not have a predetermined length of stay in the host country (Al Ariss, 2010; Andresen et al., 2014; Baruch et al., 2013; Doherty et al., 2013a).

However, the above mentioned criteria are not definitive (Andresen et al., 2014; Doherty et al., 2013a; Tharenou, 2015b). For example, while the first and second criteria indicate that SIEs refer to highly skilled people who move from developed countries to developed/less-developed countries, however, some recent studies on SIEs include those who move from developing countries to developed countries (e.g. Cao et al., 2012; Fatimah & Yusliza, 2013; Guo et al., 2013). With the growing wealth of the middle classes in developing countries (Kharas, 2010; Van Hear, 2014; Wilson & Dragusanu, 2008), many people from these countries are highly skilled and have received their education or training in developed countries, and may subsequently work in these countries. The third criterion is also ambiguous as the migration literature shows that many migrants work in professional or managerial positions (Andresen et al., 2014; Saxenian, 2005). In the fourth criterion, the main purpose of migrants is to settle permanently in the host country. However, the migration literature indicates some migrants temporarily immigrate to other countries, such as international students, AEs and SIEs (Andresen et al., 2014). Further, in the expatriation literature, SIEs do not have a defined length of stay outside their home countries (Al Ariss, 2010; Andresen et al., 2014; Baruch et al., 2013; Doherty et al., 2013a), however, many SIEs may become migrants and live permanently in the host country (Cao et al., 2012).

Because the above mentioned criteria are not definitive, a growing number of researchers (e.g. Andresen et al., 2014) suggest that migrants are considered as a broader group, which include all expatriates (e.g. SIEs and AEs) (see Figure 2.1). Migrants are defined as people who move across international borders (Berry & Bell, 2012). Thus, migrants include SIEs, who are highly-skilled and expatriate or repatriate by their own choice (Carr et al., 2005; Dustmann & Weiss, 2007). Therefore, many

studies (Cao et al., 2012; Dorsch, Suutari, & Brewster, 2013; Guo et al., 2013) reviewing the literature for SIEs include research from the international migration discipline.

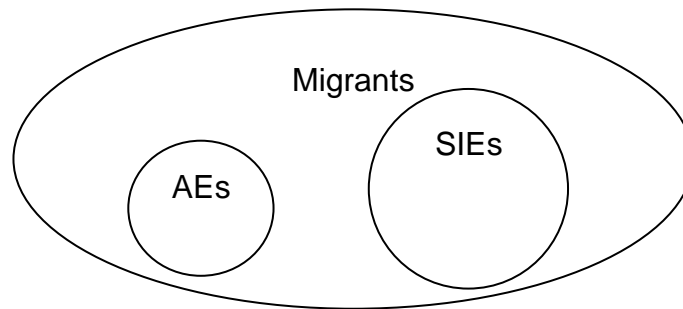


Figure 2.1: Migrants

2.2.3. Returnees

In this study, returnees are people who were born in a less-developed or emerging economy, Vietnam, and have gone overseas for tertiary studies and/or worked abroad for more than one year and have then returned to their country of birth for the long term (Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Most studies in the IHRM field (e.g. Begley et al., 2008; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) often use the term “repatriates” to describe this group of returnees, but most studies undertaking research in the context of emerging economies (e.g. Guo et al., 2013; Tharenou & Seet, 2014) usually prefer to label this group as “returnees”. As this study focuses on an emerging economy context, Vietnam, the term “returnees” is used in this study instead of “repatriates”. Figure 2.2 shows returnees in this study are divided into two groups: 1) returnees without obligations; 2) returnees with obligations. The following sub-sections will discuss these two groups of returnees.

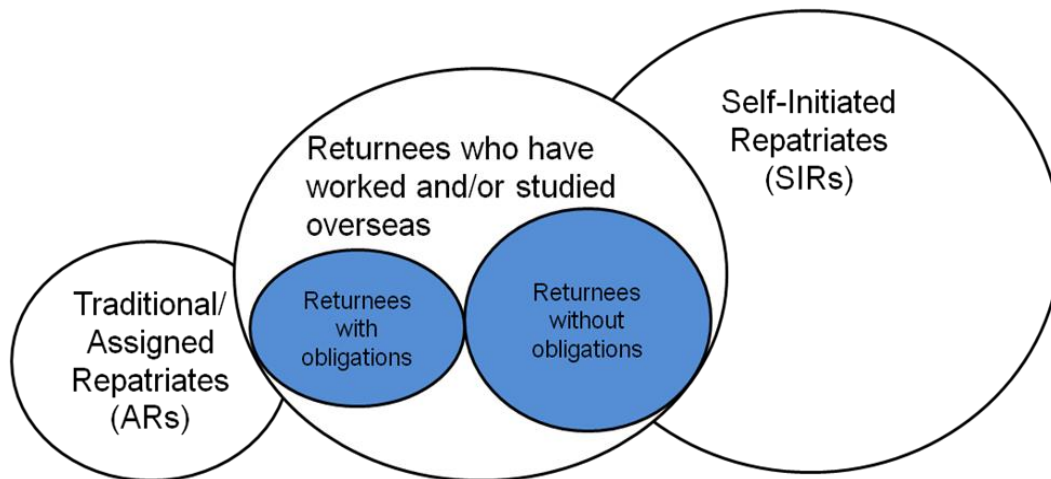


Figure 2.2: Returnees

Returnees with own volition and without obligations

The first group includes returnees who have gone overseas for studies, work and/or other experiences on their own initiative. Some of them may have overseas work experience without studying abroad and some may have this experience after graduating from a university overseas and some may only have gone overseas for studies and then returned to their home country. In addition to professionals and individuals who have had overseas work experience, following Tharenou (2003), Suutari et al. (2013) and Fee and Karsaklian (2013), this study includes graduate employees as self-initiated repatriates (SIRs). SIRs are defined as individuals who repatriate of their own initiative (Begley et al., 2008). Returnees in this study, who may or may not have overseas work experience, are more like SIRs in that they expatriate or repatriate of their own initiative (Begley et al., 2008). They choose to expatriate and then repatriate to their country of origin (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). They have to manage their own return, for example, finding new jobs or some of them may choose to return to the previous organization in which they had worked before expatriating if their organization still held jobs for these returnees (Begley et al., 2008; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Returnees with obligations

The second group includes returnees who have been sponsored by their home/host country governments or organizations to study and/or gain professional experience overseas and have obligations to return as part of their scholarship requirements/conditions. Thus, this group of returnees may have characteristics similar to assigned repatriates (ARs) which refers to people who expatriate to fulfil their organization's assignment and repatriate to their previous organisation upon completion of their overseas assignment (Biemann & Andresen, 2010). The second group of returnees are similar to ARs in that they have obligations to return to their home country or previous organization in their home country, they are not free to choose to repatriate and do not manage their own repatriation.

As this research focuses on intentions for self-initiated re-expatriation, both types of returnees/repatriates (both SIRs and ARs) would be able to meet the criteria for self-initiated re-expatriation. For example, once graduate returnees who have scholarship obligations have either completed their scholarship bond conditions or paid up their bonds to their government or organization, there is nothing preventing them from undertaking self-initiated re-expatriation and it follows that it is reasonable to investigate their intentions for doing so.

2.2.4. Self-initiated re-expatriation

2.2.4.1. Definitions

The term re-expatriation was introduced by Tharenou & Seet (2014) who define re-expatriation as the return abroad (which may be the host country or a different country)

by returnees for a long term period. In this study, self-initiated re-expatriation involves the process whereby returnees/repatriates initiate an international move that qualifies as re-expatriation (which is the second or subsequent experience of expatriation) and which involves departure from their home country on their own initiative (Dorsch et al., 2013). These returnees have had at least one extended experience out of their home country and are back working in their home country. Their first overseas experience may have been organizationally assigned or self-initiated and may have been for work, studies or overseas experience or a combination of these. Some returnees, after returning or repatriating back to their home country, may be considering going overseas again for an extended period on their own initiative.

Thus, this research does not include AEs who are on a second or subsequent international assignment, who have already been the subject of some research (e.g. Daskalaki, 2012; Näsholm, 2012; Pinto et al., 2012). Despite these a few studies on assigned re-expatriation, little is known about the differences in terms of motivations of assigned re-expatriates versus self-initiated re-expatriates. The study of Näsholm (2012) is an exception, which has shown that assigned re-expatriates differ from self-initiated re-expatriates in terms of career orientations and their identification with the organizations they work for, with their careers and with what they do. Assigned re-expatriates develop their careers within their organization, while the careers of self-initiated re-expatriates are independent of organizational boundaries (Näsholm, 2012). Given this, it is evident that there is a gap in the literature on understanding self-initiated re-expatriation among returnees and as such, this study attempts to address this gap by focussing on self-initiated re-expatriation. The following sub-sections will briefly discuss the differences between self-initiated re-expatriation and self-initiated

expatriation to provide a clear view of why investigating the re-expatriation stage is significantly important.

2.2.4.2. Self-initiated re-expatriation versus self-initiated expatriation

Self-initiated expatriation refers to the process where individuals voluntarily expatriate for foreign work on his or her own initiative (Andresen et al., 2014). Similarly, self-initiated re-expatriation also means the process where individuals go abroad for foreign work on their own initiative, independently from their employers (Näsholm, 2012; Thorn et al., 2013). However, while self-initiated expatriation includes the process whereby people take up international careers for the first time, self-initiated re-expatriation involves the process whereby returnees have had at least one extended experience out of their home country and are back working in their home country (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Concurrently, the motivations of returnees who re-expatriate are argued to be different from individuals who expatriate for the first time, which will be discussed in the following sections.

Factors motivating re-expatriation intentions may be different from expatriation intentions as the former stage involves returnees' re-entry experiences (Tharenou, 2010, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Re-entry experiences are the responses of the returnees to their home country after returning from their host country (Szkudlarek, 2010). In reviewing why returnees re-expatriate, Tharenou (2010) suggests that returnees will intend to re-expatriate if they experience problems on re-entry, such as problems adjusting on return, unmet job expectations and career dissatisfaction. Similarly, in a conceptual study of Chinese returnees, Tharenou and Seet (2014) argue that negative

reactions (e.g. unmet expectation, RCS, poor cross-cultural readjustment and cultural identity shifts) in particular, prompt returnees to re-expatriate.

Factors related to re-expatriation intentions have rarely been empirically examined. A few recent studies (Caulfield, 2008; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gill, 2005; Lidgard, 1994) are qualitative, based on interviews with a small sample size. These studies also demonstrate the importance of re-entry experiences. In a qualitative study of New Zealander returnees, Lidgard (1994) finds that a majority of returnees experience readjustment difficulties, which lead them to consider going back to the host country. Gill (2005) reports that six out of 43 Italian researchers re-expatriated to the United Kingdom due to job dissatisfaction in Italy. Based on an interview study with 8 participants, Christofi and Thompson (2007) find that returnees re-expatriate to their sojourn countries as a result of RCS.

Besides re-entry experience factors, re-expatriation intentions are also motivated by pull-push forces from the host and the home country (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). However, the relative importance of pull-push factors in affecting re-expatriation may be different from the expatriation stage. Studies (Inkson & Myers, 2003; Thorn, 2009; Thorn et al., 2013) indicate that career and economic motivations are more salient than family motivations for professionals who expatriate for the first time. It is because SIEs who are expatriating for the first time are normally young and in the early phases of their careers, and therefore, exploration and their careers is central to their decision to expatriate (Inkson & Myers, 2003). However, the establishment stage may be more relevant to returnees where relationships and family are important to them

(Caulfield, 2008), suggesting that the motivations to re-expatriate may be different from the motivations at the expatriation stage.

Table 2.3: Self-initiated re-expatriation versus self-initiated expatriation

	Self-initiated re-expatriation	Self-initiated expatriation
Similarities	Both involve the process of going abroad for foreign work by their own initiative, independently from their employees (Näsholm, 2012; Thorn et al., 2013).	
Differences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The second or subsequent experience of expatriation (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). • Involve re-entry experiences (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). • Establishment stage is more relevant (Caulfield, 2008). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First time expatriation (Tharenou, 2010). • Re-entry experiences are not relevant (see Doherty & Dickmann, 2013; Thorn, 2009). • Exploration stage is more relevant (Inkson & Myers, 2003).

In summary, a few conceptual and empirical studies have examined the re-expatriation stage. These studies suggest that the motivation to go abroad may differ significantly among those going for the first time, as compared to those going for the second or more times as the latter group may have encountered additional psychological and social factors upon repatriation/re-entry back to their home country. Further, the effects of pull-push forces on re-expatriation may be different at the expatriation stage due to the life-cycle stages. However, while there have been some empirical studies examining re-expatriation intentions, these studies have small sample sizes, which limits generalisability. A study with a larger scale survey should be undertaken to further investigate factors influencing the re-expatriation intentions of returnees. However, this section only briefly discusses the differences between the two stages of expatriation (see

Table 2.3), and more details on the factors influencing re-expatriation intentions will be discussed in section 2.4.

2.2.5. Brain circulation

The bulk of expatriation research has been done in the context of expatriates from developed economies working abroad in similar or less-developed countries before returning home (Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010; Doherty et al., 2013b). This ignores a significant number of people whose home countries are in emerging economies and who have gone overseas, often to more developed economies for work, studies and/or other experiences before returning home to oftentimes, more hardship contexts in their home countries (Cao et al., 2012; Fatimah & Yusliza, 2013; Guo et al., 2013). At present, much of this research has been undertaken by “migration” researchers (e.g. Ho & Ley, 2013; Zweig et al., 2006).

Migration studies explain global mobility through the concept of brain drain when talented individuals leave their home countries or reverse brain drain when talented graduates/professionals return to their home countries (Tzeng, 2006) with returnees bringing skills and knowledge back from abroad (Zweig et al., 2006). However, researchers on brain drain or reverse brain drain tend to perceive this international movement as a one-way flow of skills, technology and capital; in effect, repatriation is viewed as the end point in the expatriation process. Highly skilled professionals who have left their home countries and who have once been forced to choose between settling abroad (brain drain) or returning home (reverse brain drain), now have many opportunities to become “transnationals”, resulting in independent international moves or re-expatriations several times in their careers, in a phenomenon known as “brain

circulation” (Saxenian, 2005). The current research is concerned with returnees working in their home country, an emerging economy, in the re-expatriation phase, a phase that is perhaps best illustrated in the brain circulation phase of the traditional brain drain diagram (Phase 3 in Figure 2.3).

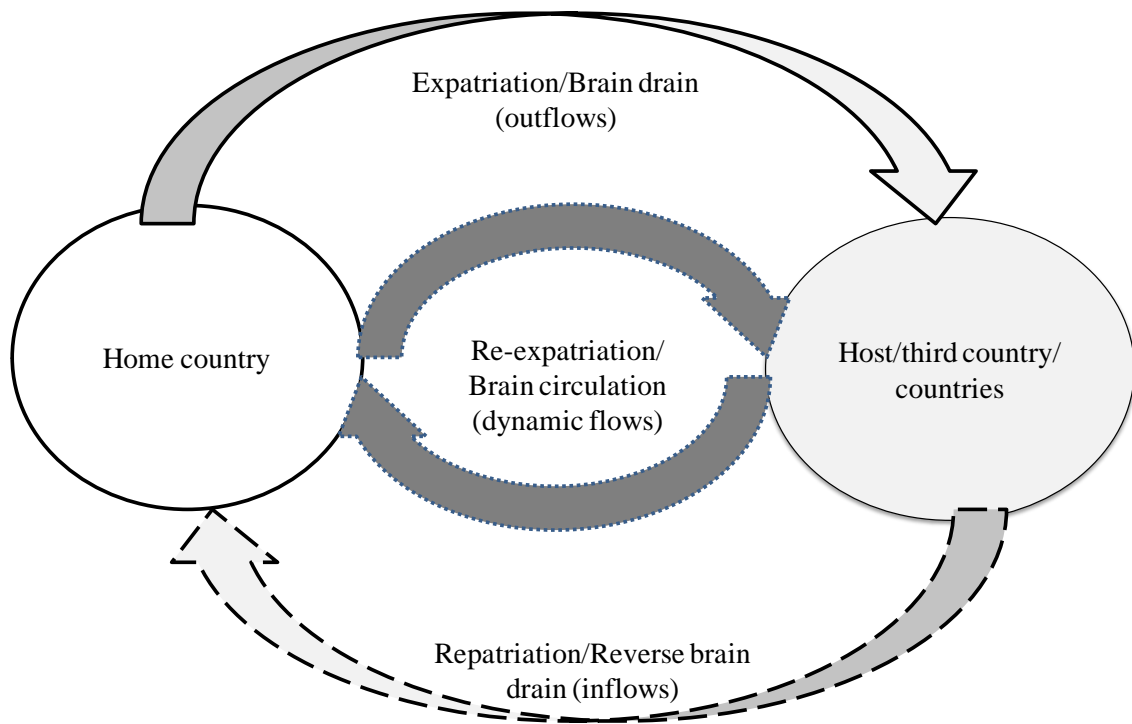


Figure 2.3: Brain Drain, Reverse Brain Drain and Brain Circulation

2.3. Theoretical foundations

This study utilises two key theoretical underpinnings: pull-push theory and the TPB. Other theories, such as expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, family systems theory and home country embeddedness are used to explain particular pull-push forces. Further, the theories of RCS and cross-cultural readjustment are used to explain how returnees’ re-entry experiences affect their intentions to re-expatriate. The following sub-sections will discuss the theoretical foundations for this study.

2.3.1. Theories explaining pull-push forces

2.3.1.1. Pull-push theory

Pull-push theory explains intentions to re-expatriate with push factors encouraging individuals to leave their home country and pull factors attracting people to a particular country (Toren, 1976). Push factors are generally negative and related to the home country (such as unemployment in the home country), while pull factors are positive and associated with the destination country (such as good job opportunities in the destination country) (Toren, 1976). Pull-push theory has been used to explain the antecedents for expatriation and repatriation for more than three decades (Glavac, 2000; Gmelch, 1980; Toren, 1976) including in different contexts, such as emerging East European, African and Asian economies (Chia, 2006; Finlay et al., 2011; Parutis, 2013).

However, previous studies have tended to focus on the simple pull-push theory (Toren, 1976) that explains why people make global moves for economic or career reasons (Bach, 2011; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). The simple pull-push theory is not sufficient to explain the global movement of individuals as their movement decision are also based on the existing social structures and relationships (Guo et al., 2013; Richardson, 2006). The decision is not only influenced by individuals themselves but also by the values, beliefs and needs of their families, employers and countries (Baruch, 1995; Baruch & Reis, 2015). Therefore, it is crucial to understand re-expatriation intentions through social and psychological lenses too (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). This study extends pull-push theory by adding not only theories from the economic approach (e.g. expectancy theory) or career approach (e.g. boundaryless careers theory), but also sociological and psychological approaches (e.g.

family systems theory and home country embeddedness) to explain particular pull-push forces.

2.3.1.2. Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) suggests that an individual's motivation is a process of choices among alternatives. The individual makes choices based on estimates of how well the expected outcomes of a given behaviour meet the desired results (Vroom, 1964).

Applied to international mobility, expectancy theory proposes that the motivation to relocate from one country to a particular country increases when the individual estimates that the benefits will outweigh the costs of moving (Bach, 2011; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). The benefits of moving include potential job opportunities and earnings, education for children and higher living standards in the destination country (Bach, 2011). The costs of relocating might include travelling costs, maintenances costs while finding jobs, the costs of adapting to a new culture and even costs of studying new skills to meet the requirements of potential jobs (Bach, 2011). If the benefits are higher than the costs of moving, they will move; in contrast, they will stay if the benefits are lower than the costs of moving (Tharenou & Seet, 2014).

2.3.1.3. Boundaryless careers

Boundaryless careers theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) suggests that individuals are responsible for their own careers and typically move across organizational and national borders to develop their career competencies. In boundaryless careers theory, careers are not limited to single employment settings (Baruch, 2006; DeFillippi & Arthur,

1996). In other words, it involves both physical mobility across boundaries, such as organizations and countries, and psychological mobility, such as the individuals' perception of their capacity to move (Shaffer et al., 2012). Further, the individual agency in building career competencies is central in boundaryless careers theory (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996; Guo et al., 2013). In boundaryless careers theory, developing careers outside the boundary of an organization is a way for individuals to build career capital (DeFillippi & Arthur, 2006; Inkson & Arthur, 2001), which consists of three ways of "knowing" through which individuals can develop their career competences. These include:

- (1) knowing how - involves skills, expertise, and work-related knowledge that are needed for performance,
- (2) knowing why - consists of motivation to pursue a certain career path, and
- (3) knowing whom – refers to personal, professional and social relationships, and networks.

Studies on SIEs, especially from IHRM and international careers fields, largely focus on boundaryless careers theory to explain why individuals self-initiated expatriate (Doherty & Dickmann, 2013). It is because SIEs are involved in a physical transition across a national border. While AEs also include individuals who move from one country to another, the careers of AEs are still limited within the boundary of an organization or a corporation (Inkson & Myers, 2003). In contrast, SIEs must manage their own careers; as such they may quit their current company to find a job in another (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Further, the initiatives of SIEs for their expatriation come from the individual, independent from their current employers (Suutari et al., 2013). Therefore,

the careers of SIEs are more associated with boundaryless careers while that of AEs are more related to organizational careers (Inkson & Myers, 2003).

2.3.1.4. Family systems theory

Family systems theory suggests that the members of a family share deep emotional attachments, history and perceptions of the world (Minuchin, 1974). Because of the deep relationship between members, the actions of one member are affected by the actions of other members, such as a spouse, children and parents in a family system (Minuchin, 1974). Family systems theory (Brett & Stroh, 1995; Minuchin, 1974) also describes a family as a system comprising a set of elements that exist in a dynamically balanced equilibrium. The family equilibrium can be affected by pressures from within the family and outside the family (Brett & Stroh, 1995).

Expatriation studies (Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Stephens, 1989; Konopaske, Robie, & Ivancevich, 2005) demonstrate that other members of a family, especially their spouse, significantly influence the adjustment and success of expatriates in the host country and in the returning home period. Family characteristics (e.g. family support, family considerations, family adaptability) and family adjustment also strongly affect an expatriate's adjustment (Caligiuri et al., 1998). Family encouragements are also strong motives for professionals to expatriate (Richardson, 2006) and repatriate to their home country (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

In applying this theory to understand the re-expatriation intentions of returnees, the family can be an encouragement or a barrier to re-expatriation. These factors may also include the willingness of their spouse to relocate internationally and the responsibility to care for the elderly (such as parents). Pressures outside the family, such as job

opportunities for a spouse and education for children in the host country, which affect the growth of other members, can be critical factors in determining the re-expatriation intentions of returnees.

2.3.1.5. Home country embeddedness

Home/host country embeddedness (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) was originally developed from the job embeddedness theory of Mitchell et al. (2001). The job embeddedness theory suggests that employees are less likely to leave their job when they are strongly embedded on- and off-the-job (Mitchell et al., 2001). On- or off-the-job embeddedness includes three dimensions:

- (1) *Links*, formal or informal connections between people and institutions;
- (2) *Fit*, the perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and external environment;
- (3) *Sacrifice*, the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job.

In explaining repatriation intentions, Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) build on job embeddedness theory to develop a new concept of host country embeddedness. This concept suggests that leaving a job bears similarities to leaving a country as SIEs have less intention to leave since they have become embedded in their host country career and community. In the theory of host country embeddedness, two constructs, including career embeddedness and community embeddedness, are used to explain repatriation intentions (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Career embeddedness proposes that SIEs will make substantial career sacrifices, including career opportunities, links with their

colleagues and institutions, and fit with their careers if they repatriate. Community embeddedness posits that if SIEs repatriate, they will make many sacrifices, such as social lives and ties, links with family and friends and their fit with their community in the host country.

There are some differences between Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) career embeddedness construct and Mitchell et al.'s (2001) on-the-job embeddedness construct. For instance, career embeddedness focuses on the forces that constrain people from leaving the country, such as a fit between individuals' career goals and career/job opportunities in the country. In career embeddedness, in leaving the country, people may lose their career links, career opportunities and business opportunities in the country. In contrast, on-the-job embeddedness captures the factors that deter employees from leaving their current employment, such as the fit with the current job within an organization, and the links with work team members and other colleagues in an organization.

Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) community embeddedness construct also differs in some aspects from Mitchell et al.'s (2001) off-the-job embeddedness construct. For example, community embeddedness focuses on the lifestyle of the country and social ties with a country. Off-the-job embeddedness focuses on the weather, amenities, and general culture of the location in which one resides.

Applying the theory of host country embeddedness (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010), this study utilises the concept of home country embeddedness to explain re-expatriation intentions. Accordingly, by re-expatriating, sacrifices may need to be made with respect to their links and fit with their career and community in their home country. Therefore,

becoming embedded in their careers and community in the home country may deter returnees from re-expatriating instead of pushing them away from their home country.

In summary, pull-push theory is a key underpinning theory in this study. Other theories, such as expectancy theory and boundaryless careers theory are used to explain economic/career pull forces from the host country. Meanwhile, family systems theory explains family related pull forces from the host country and home country embeddedness presents the pull forces from the home country. Table 2.4 shows a summary of the theories explaining pull-push forces associated with the host and home countries. The next section will discuss theories that explain returnees' re-entry experiences.

Table 2.4: Theories explaining pull-push forces for self-initiated re-expatriation

Pull-push theory (Toren, 1976)	Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964)	Boundaryless careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996)	Family systems theory (Brett & Stroh, 1995; Minuchin, 1974)	Home country embeddedness (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010)
Host-country pull forces	Career outcomes from re-expatriation (focus on economics aspects, such as higher salary, more job opportunities in the host country)	Career outcomes from re-expatriation (focus on non-economic aspects, such as professional development, career advancement in the host country)	Family outcomes from re-expatriation	
Home-country push forces				Weak career and community embeddedness

2.3.2. Theories explaining re-entry experiences

Re-entry experiences are responses of returnees to their home country after returning from their host country (Adler, 1981; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Szkudlarek, 2010; Uehara, 1986; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). Negative re-entry experiences lead to negative feelings about life and work in the home country which prompts returnees to consider re-expatriating (Tharenou & Seet, 2014). The most common reactions include RCS and cross-cultural readjustment (Tharenou, 2015a), which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.3.2.1. Reverse culture shock (RCS)

RCS refers to the emotional and psychological difficulties experienced by individuals who return to their home country after a significant period living in another country and culture (Adler, 1981; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Sussman, 2000; Szkudlarek, 2010; Ward et al., 2001). RCS includes negative feelings about the home country, such as alienation, not belonging, loneliness, isolation, inferiority, depression and general anxiety (Gaw, 2000; Seiter & Waddell, 1989). RCS also involves the feelings of less freedom in their home country, feelings of conflicts, discomfort and disappointment when re-entry does not meet returnees' expectations (Christofi & Thompson, 2007).

RCS is initially built upon the theoretical construct of culture shock (Gaw, 2000). The concept of culture shock was first introduced by Oberg (1960) who describes it as an unpleasant emotion when making contact with an unfamiliar social situation. Advancing culture shock as a psychological outcome, Adler (1975, p. 13) argues that "culture shock is primarily a set of emotional reactions to the loss of perceptual reinforcements from one's own culture, to new cultural stimuli which have little or no meaning, and to

the misunderstanding of new and diverse experiences”. Individuals suffer culture shock due to contrasting cultural values and changing circumstances which affect their psychological and emotional reactions (Adler, 1975; Oberg, 1960).

RCS and culture shock seem to have similar adjustment processes, but recent scholars (Martin, 1984; Onwumehili et al., 2003; Sreeleakha, 2014) find that they are in fact different. The fundamental differences between culture shock and RCS are the expectations of returnees. Returnees might expect an unfamiliar culture, customs and so on when going overseas, but they may not have such expectations when they return home. Because of the unexpected nature of the difficulties, RCS may be more severe than culture shock (Adler, 1981; Black, 1992; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992; Sreeleakha, 2014). The unexpected difficulties faced by returnees are due to changes in lifestyle, lack of privacy, changed cultural values and changes in the home country itself while being overseas (Martin, 1984).

2.3.2.2. Cross-cultural readjustment

In contrast to RCS, cross-cultural readjustment is described as a positive response (Sussman, 2000; Ward & Searle, 1991). It may include not only psychological aspects but also social and cognitive outcomes (Cox, 2004). However, there are inconsistencies in the use of terminology in cross-cultural readjustment.

Ward and her colleagues (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Chang, 1997; Ward & Kennedy, 1993a, 1993b), for example, divide cross-cultural adjustment into two broad domains: psychological adjustment and socio-cultural adjustment. Psychological adjustment refers to the feelings, satisfaction, emotional outcomes of individuals when they come into contact with a new culture (affective outcome) while socio-cultural

adjustment concerns the ability of individuals to interact with aspects of a new culture (behavioural outcome) (Searle & Ward, 1990). Psychological adjustment requires effective coping skills while socio-cultural adjustment requires cultural learning and acquisitions of social skills in order to meet the social and behavioural norms of a new culture (Ward et al., 2001). The third cognitive domain refers to the changes in values and attitudes toward a new culture which is not included the cross-cultural readjustment outcome (Ward et al., 2001). The cognitive domain, such as cultural identity (Ward & Searle, 1991) and host and co-national identity (Ward & Kennedy, 1994; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999), is treated as mediating factors of psychological adjustment and socio-cultural adjustment.

Kim (1988, 2001) suggests that cross-cultural adjustment includes three outcomes: psychological health (affective outcome), functional fitness (behavioural outcome) and intercultural identity (cognitive outcome). Psychological health refers to internal integration or a sense of cohesiveness while functional fitness concerns feelings of comfort and perception of individuals in the host country's environment (Kim, 1988). Intercultural identity includes the viewpoints of individuals toward the home and host culture (Kim, 1988).

Black and his colleagues (Black, 1994; Black & Gregersen, 1999; Black et al., 1992; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997) argue that cross-cultural readjustment includes work, general and interaction readjustment. Work readjustment refers to the adjustment of individuals to a job position. General readjustment concerns the overall adjustment of the individual's general psychological comfort with the home nation environment, including food, housing, climate and living conditions. Interaction readjustment is

defined as an individual's psychological comfort in interpersonal communication and social relations.

However, the cross-cultural readjustment outcomes in the research by Kim (1988, 2001) and Ward and her colleagues (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Chang, 1997; Ward & Kennedy, 1993a, 1993b) are solely focused on the adjustment to living environment. The cross-cultural readjustment model developed by Black and his colleagues (Black, 1994; Black & Gregersen, 1999; Black et al., 1992; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997) is not only associated with the adjustment to interaction and general life, but also the working environment. Thus, it is an influential model in examining the cross-cultural readjustment of AEs and ARs (Black, 1992, 1994; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Gregersen, 1999; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Vidal, Valle, & Aragón, 2010). AEs go overseas to fulfill the assignment given by their companies and then repatriate to the same company that they worked for before expatriating. As discussed in section 2.2, the returnees in this study include young graduates who have studied overseas, some of them who have similarities to SIEs and AEs, but who are also professionals that are currently working. Not only do these returnees have to adjust to their home life, but they also have to adjust to working aspects in their home country (Begley et al., 2008; Hansel, 1993; Pritchard, 2011). Therefore, this study applies the model developed by Black and his colleagues to test the association of this construct with re-expatriation intentions.

2.3.3. Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)

This study applies the TPB (Ajzen, 1985, 1991) as a key theory because it examines intentions to re-expatriate. Although this research does not examine actual re-

expatriation, the TPB suggests that an intention to engage in the behaviour (e.g. an intention to re-expatriate) is the best predictor of behaviour (e.g. actual re-expatriation) (Van Breukelen et al., 2004). This intention represents the degree to which a person has a conscious plan or decision to exert effort to carry out a behaviour (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

In the TPB, the determinants of intentions include attitude toward behaviour (which refers to a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour), subjective norm (a person's perception or opinion about whether significant others think he or she should engage in the behaviour), and perceived behaviour control (one's perception of the ease or difficulty of carrying out the action) (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; Conner & Armitage, 1998). Significant others refer to individuals "whose preferences about a person's behaviour in this domain are important to him or her" (Conner & Armitage, 1998, p. 1431). In other words, if returnees have a positive appraisal of re-expatriation, perceive that significant others think he/she should re-expatriate and think that they can re-expatriate easily, they are more likely to re-expatriate.

The TPB (Ajzen, 1985, 1991) is developed from the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In the theory of reasoned action, the determinants of intention include the attitude toward behaviour and subjective norm. The limitation of the theory of reasoned action is that it is restricted to volitional behaviours and simple behaviours that do not require much resources and skills to carry out these behaviours (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). The TPB is an extension of the theory of reasoned action to predict non-volitional behaviour by introducing the concept of perceived behaviour control. According to the TPB,

intentions to carry out behaviour depend on the amount of control the individual has over the behaviour. The control that the individual has over the behaviour is seen “as a continuum with easily executed behaviours at one end (e.g., brushing one’s teeth) and behavioural goals demanding resources, opportunities, and specialised skills (e.g., becoming a world-class chess player) at the other” (Conner & Armitage, 1998, pp. 1430-1431).

Re-expatriation is a voluntary behaviour that arises from a professional’s self-initiation (Al Ariss, 2010) and it is a non-volitional behaviour. The act of re-expatriation is also a complex behaviour that requires returnees to have high skills, knowledge, experiences, resources and opportunities so that the returnees can find a job, get their working visa and adapt in their destination country (Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou, 2009). Thus, the TPB is more appropriate than the TRA in explaining the intention of returnees to re-expatriate in this study (see Figure 2.4).

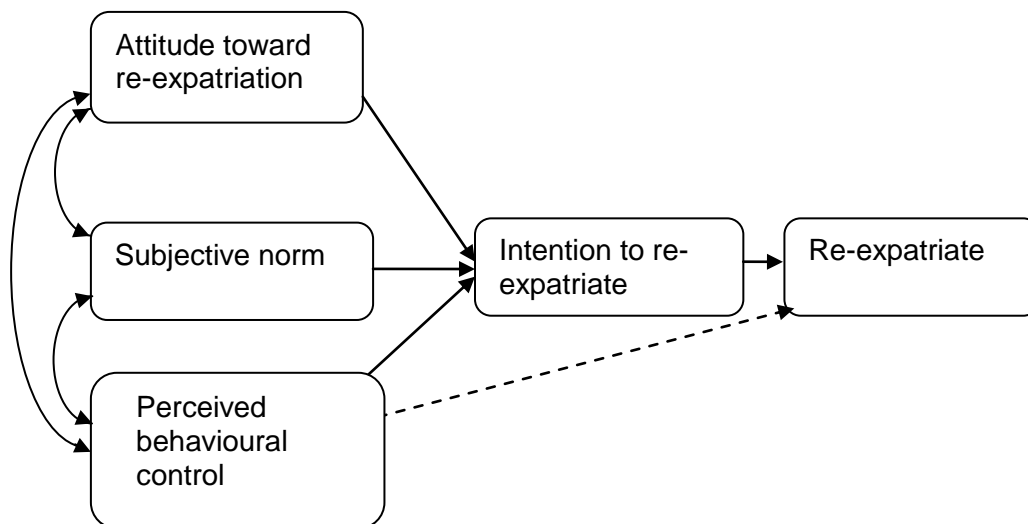


Figure 2.4: The theory of planned behaviour for re-expatriation
(adapted from the TPB of Ajzen (1991))

2.3.4. Integrating pull-push theory and the theory of planned behaviour

Prior studies on expatriation/repatriation intention have traditionally focused on pull-push theory and neglected to test the TPB (e.g. Baruch et al., 2007; Doherty et al., 2011; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010), even though the TPB is a well validated theory in the literature (Ajzen, 2011; Armitage & Conner, 2001; McEachan et al., 2011; Van Breukelen et al., 2004). The extended pull-push theory in this study explains intention to re-expatriate by returnees' attitudes toward the home country (e.g. life and career dissatisfaction), affective response of returnees about the home country (e.g. RCS), and expected outcomes from re-expatriation (pull forces from the host country). However, pull-push theory does not take into account the cognitive variables, such as attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control as part of behavioural change. Further, it is argued that pull-push forces from the home and the host countries may be translated into intention to re-expatriate through the three predictors of the TPB (Ajzen, 1991). In other words, the three predictors of the TPB may mediate the links of pull-push forces with intentions to re-expatriate. Thus, this study integrates the factors from pull-push theory with those of the TPB to provide a better understanding of the re-expatriation intention of returnees.

2.4. Literature related to factors influencing returnees' intentions to re-expatriate

This section reviews both empirical and conceptual studies related to factors influencing the re-expatriation intentions of returnees and their probable impact on returnees from emerging markets. The factors associated with re-expatriation intentions of returnees are generally classified into pull forces from the host country and pull-push forces from the home country. Besides pull-push factors, this section also reviews the relevance of

returnees' re-entry experiences and intention to re-expatriate. Finally, it examines the three basic predictors (attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) of the TPB, and the integration between pull-push theory and the TPB in explaining intentions to re-expatriate.

2.4.1. Pull-push forces

2.4.1.1. Host-country pull forces

As stated in section 2.3.1, host-country pull forces are attractive factors about the host country (Inkson & Myers, 2003; Toren, 1976). The pull forces include benefits that returnees expect to gain from the outcomes of re-expatriation (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Given that SIEs move based largely on their own individual agency (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013), research has moved beyond a uni-dimensional explanation to show that the reasons and motives for moving abroad are complex, numerous, multivariate and multi-dimensional (Doherty et al., 2011; Thorn, 2009). For example, in a study of New Zealanders living and working abroad, Thorn (2009), building on work by Jackson et al. (2005), found up to 56 motivational factors or sub-motives for SIEs from New Zealand to move abroad and that the relative priority of motives varied with gender, location and life stage. She found that besides career-related motives, cultural and travel opportunities were important factors for international mobility. However, Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013), in their review of research on SIEs, noted that much of the findings for motivations to move internationally were career-related and that the pursuit of personal and professional development was not very different to that of AEs. Also, among SIEs, Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) suggest that professionals most often

self-initiate expatriate for employment opportunities, professional development, and income.

The diversity of motives for SIEs may also be because they are a more heterogeneous group when compared with AEs in that they include both people in their early career phase (Inkson & Myers, 2003) and also more experienced people who have chosen an international career (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). In spite of the diversity of factors, researchers have found that these can broadly be grouped into two aspects, including career-related outcomes (e.g. job opportunities, higher salary, working conditions, working environment and career development), non-careers-related outcomes (e.g. better education for children, better opportunities for children and better living conditions for the whole family) (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Carr et al., 2005; Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou, 2010; Thorn, 2009; Thorn et al., 2013; Zweig, 1997).

Career-related-outcomes

The potential career benefits of overseas experiences include: (1) career opportunities and financial benefits, (2) working environment and working conditions, and (3) career developments, all of which are salient factors that attract professionals to move overseas (Carr et al., 2005; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2010; Thorn, 2009; Thorn et al., 2013; Zweig, 1997). These career outcomes have received significant attention in migration research (e.g. Brown & Connell, 2004; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Zweig, 1997), and also expatriation and international careers research (e.g. Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Doherty et al., 2011; Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Richardson & Mallon,

2005; Shaffer et al., 2012; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2010). However, the different disciplines have different perspectives in explaining career motives as discussed below.

Migration research (e.g. Brown & Connell, 2004; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Zweig, 1997) largely focuses on the economic approach to illustrate the pull forces from the destination countries which normally attract highly skilled people from less-developed to more-developed countries. Building on expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and the concept of “brain drain”, migration studies (Brown & Connell, 2004; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Zweig, 1997) find that the economic benefits of a career abroad (e.g. job opportunities, paid and financial benefits) are the main pull factors for migrating and re-migrating. Emerging economies still have low-wage systems (Alberts & Hazen, 2005) and are ranked lower on the United Nations’ Human Development Index (UNHDI) (see Tung, 2007). Thus, higher relative salaries and better job opportunities in advanced countries are still more attractive for the majority of professionals in emerging economies (Brown & Connell, 2004; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Zweig, 1997). Relying on the notion of brain drain, Zweig (1997) demonstrates that students, scholars and former residents of China stay in the United States due to a wide range of job choices or opportunities in the host country. Similarly, Chinese graduates from North America are pulled to stay in the host country by better career opportunities (Tung, 2007) while Taiwanese professionals are pulled to stay in the United States by career prospects and high salaries (Chang, 2009).

Migration research focuses on economic reasons that attract professionals from less-developed to more advanced countries. Studies on expatriation/international careers (e.g. Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Cao et al., 2012; Doherty et al., 2011; Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Shaffer et al., 2012; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2010; Thorn et al., 2013), however, largely rely on boundaryless careers theory to explain the career motives of SIEs who move from developed to similar or less developed countries. Boundaryless careers theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; DeFillippi & Arthur, 2006; Inkson et al., 1997) highlights the importance of self-initiated foreign work experience as a career progression, in which SIEs can move between companies or countries to develop their skills with reference to a wider labour market. This theory has been supported in several empirical studies (Doherty & Dickmann, 2013). Suutari & Brewster (2000), for example, find that Finnish professionals are pulled to work around the world because working overseas also means searching for new experiences, professional development and career progress that will be valued within their organization and also positively affect their future career. Thorn (2009) reports that professional development and opportunities for career advancement are also important motives for SIEs from New Zealand. Richardson & Mallon (2005) provide evidence that British expatriate academics go abroad because they believe international experiences contribute to their career development.

Overall, both the literature on migration and SIEs indicate the importance of career outcomes in explaining the motives of SIEs. However, different research disciplines have different perspectives. Migration research utilises economic lenses (e.g. expectancy theory and brain drain) to explain the movement of people from less to more developed countries. Meanwhile, expatriation or international careers studies largely

rely on the boundaryless careers theory to explain why professionals, who come from developed countries, take up international careers outside of their country of residence.

Non-career-related outcomes

There may be a wide range of non-career-related outcomes attracting SIEs to the host country (Thorn et al., 2013). Among non-career factors, family outcomes have been documented in expatriation/international career literature (e.g. Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson, 2006) and also migration literature (e.g. Carr et al., 2005; Froese, 2012; Tung, 2007; Zweig, 1997) as influential pull forces from the host country. Supporting the family systems theory (Minuchin, 1974), expatriation intentions are affected by the encouragement or pressures to do so from parents, spouses and relatives (Brett & Stroh, 1995; Konopaske et al., 2005; Richardson, 2006). Family factors can be significant barriers for expatriating. For instance, professionals have the responsibility to care for their elderly parents in their home country (Shaffer et al., 2012). However, family factors can be sources of encouragement too (Richardson, 2006). The encouragement or pressures from family can be seen from the view that expatriation will bring a better future for whole family, especially for children and descendants (Carr et al., 2005). Professionals will go abroad if they expect better opportunities and better financial support for the whole family in the host country (Doherty et al., 2011). Professionals from collectivistic societies in emerging economies are more influenced by these motivations (Carr et al., 2005). Chinese professionals working in the USA, for example, state that they remain in the USA because of a better future for their children (Tung, 2007; Zweig, 1997). Similarly, Taiwanese professionals report that educational

opportunities for children and attitudes of spouses are major concerns in determining their intentions to stay in the USA or return home (Chang, 1992).

Professionals are also pulled abroad by the better quality of life, such as better social welfare, safety and security and better physical environment (Iqbal, 2000), particularly those who come from emerging economies (IP, 2006; Straubhaar, 2000; Tung, 2007; Wadhwa et al., 2009). These forces bring benefits for the professionals themselves and their whole family. These pull forces are crucial because many emerging economies (e.g. China, India, Vietnam...) have been compensating for their economic growth with pollution, traffic chaos and relatively unsafe environments. Chinese students and professionals remain in Canada and North America because of the better quality of life in these host countries compared to China (Tung, 2007). Similarly, the quality of life in New Zealand (fresh air, safety, no chaotic traffic) are main attractions for Chinese professionals (IP, 2006). This is because environmental pollution is still a major problem in China, even though the quality of life has improved recently (Tung, 2007). Quality-of-life concerns are also a key factor in the decision by Indian professionals to migrate to the United States (Wadhwa et al., 2009).

Overall, this section reviews both empirical and theoretical literature related to host-country pull forces. The forces that may attract professionals in emerging markets to go overseas include career-related-outcomes (such as salaries, job opportunities, career development, work environment, working conditions), and non-career-related outcomes (such as quality of life, better future for their children). These forces have been found in both the literature on migration and expatriation/international careers. However, most studies on SIEs look at SIEs from developed economies rather than from emerging

economies (Doherty, 2013). The phenomenon of SIEs from emerging economies remains under-researched (Al Ariss, 2010; Doherty, 2013) and much of this research has been undertaken by migration researchers (e.g. Ho & Ley, 2013; Zweig et al., 2006). Further, the above mentioned studies have focused on exploring host-country pull forces for SIEs who go abroad for the first time (the first stage of expatriation). Little is known about the relative importance of these forces in affecting the intention to re-expatriate (the third stage of expatriation). Thus, it is crucial to understand whether those career-related and non-career-related factors have an impact on returnees' intention to re-expatriate, especially those from emerging economies. Therefore, the first research question is:

RQ 1: To what extent do host-country pull factors (career-related outcomes and non-career-related outcomes) influence the re-expatriation intentions of returnees? What is the relative importance of these outcomes in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions?

2.4.1.2. Home-country pull-push forces

Career and life dissatisfaction

As stated above, home-country push forces are negative and influential forces from the home country. Push forces normally represent things in the home country that people are not satisfied with and which they want to escape from (Cerdin, 2013; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Selmer & Luring, 2012). The push forces are generally classified into two factors, including career dissatisfaction and life dissatisfaction in the home country (Cerdin, 2013; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Selmer & Luring, 2012). There are variety aspects that may

contribute to life dissatisfaction in the home country, such as lifestyle, living conditions, social and political issues in the home country (Tharenou & Seet, 2014). The two push factors are discussed next.

Prior studies reveal that push forces from the home country (including career and life dissatisfaction) are the main motives for the expatriation of professionals who go abroad for the first time (Cerdin, 2013; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). In a qualitative study, Inkson and Myers (2003) illustrate that push forces comprise undesirable work or personal situations that young New Zealanders want to escape from. Similarly, Richardson and Mallon (2005) report that British academics expatriate to escape negative work situations in their home country. Suutari (2002) also indicate that the main push force for SIEs from Finland is the poor employment situation in their home country.

In comparison with pull forces from the host country, prior studies (Cerdin, 2013; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Thorn et al., 2013) illustrate that SIEs that initiate expatriation are motivated by pull forces from the host country rather than the push forces from the home country. Inkson and Myers (2003), for example, find that the motivation among young New Zealanders to expatriate was based primarily on pull forces (e.g. travel/cultural exploration and career opportunities in the host country) rather than push forces (e.g. undesirable work or personal situations in the home country). Cerdin (2013) also provides that pull factors rather than push factors are more frequently the expatriation reasons for SIEs.

However, the question of whether push forces also explain returnees' intentions to re-expatriate has not been empirically examined. Tharenou and Seet (2014) and Tharenou

(2015a) suggest that push forces from the home country may explain why returnees intend to re-expatriate. The push forces that may affect returnees' re-expatriation intentions include the dissatisfaction with career and life in the home country that returnees experience when their careers and life back home do not meet with their expectations (Begley et al., 2008; Tharenou, 2010). Returnees are dissatisfied with their careers at home when they find a lack of suitable career opportunities (Begley et al., 2008), jobs at lower levels than their employment abroad (Begley et al., 2008), and jobs that do not meet their interests and qualifications (Lidgard, 1994; Myers & Pringle, 2005). Some returnees claim that relatively outdated, slow and bureaucratic work environment as the main reasons why they want go back abroad (Gribble, 2011; Nguyen, 2005; Tran et al., 2014; Zink, 2013).

They also express dissatisfaction with life back home through social difficulties related to the lifestyle and culture of the home country (Saxenian, 2005; Thompson & Christofi, 2006), difficulties in social interaction when they find conflicting attitudes and values with families, friends and colleagues at home (Brabant, Palmer, & Gramling, 1990; Gill, 2010). Returnees in emerging economies are dissatisfied with their living conditions in their home country which is relatively more crowded, more polluted, with a lack of respect of personal space, with unsafe food, lower security and poorer housing conditions (Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Some returnees in emerging economies may be not satisfied with administrative practices that are complicated and bureaucratic in their home country (Le, 2014)

In sum, prior studies identify push forces for SIEs who go abroad for the first time include dissatisfaction with career (e.g. undesirable work, poor job opportunities) and

dissatisfaction with life (e.g. undesirable personal situation) in their home country. The literature on SIEs also shows that the motivation of SIEs is largely based on pull forces rather than push forces. However, little is known whether these push forces affect the re-expatriation intentions of returnees. Therefore, it is a gap in the literature and there is a need to provide a better understanding of how these home-country push forces (career and life dissatisfaction) affect the intention to re-expatriate, especially, the relative importance of the push forces from the home country in comparison with the pull forces from the host country in explaining this intention. The research questions that need to be examined are:

RQ 2: To what extent do home-country push factors (career and life dissatisfaction) lead to re-expatriation intentions? What is the relative importance of home-country push forces in comparison to host-country pull forces in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions?

Home country embeddedness

While career and life dissatisfaction focus on the negative motives that cause returnees to want to escape from their home country, studies on home country embeddedness emphasise things that keep returnees in their home country. Home country embeddedness, therefore, represents pull forces from the home country.

As discussed in section 2.3.5, the home/host country embeddedness is developed by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) based on the job embeddedness theory in the study by Mitchell et al. (2001). In the theory of job embeddedness, employees are encouraged to remain in their current organization by a combination of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). In the theory of home/host country

embeddedness, career embeddedness and community embeddedness constrains people from leaving a country that they are residing in (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Section 2.3.5 also showed the differences between career embeddedness versus on-the-job embeddedness constructs, and between community embeddedness versus off-the-job embeddedness.

The job embeddedness theory has been a well tested theory in voluntary turnover literature (e.g. Allen, 2006; Crossley et al., 2007; Felps et al., 2009; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2004; Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). However, the results of the relationship between job embeddedness and voluntary turnover are still mixed. Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom (2004), for example, find that off-the-job embeddedness, but not on-the-job embeddedness, significantly affects voluntary turnover. In contrast, Allen (2006) and Felps et al (2009) report that on-the-job embeddedness is significantly negatively related to turnover.

Although job embeddedness is a well developed and tested theory, it has been used to explain voluntary turnover, which involves people quitting their current organization to join another one within a country. Examining the relationship between the theories of home/host country embeddedness with the intention to go across borders into another country is very sparse. Tharenou & Caulfield (2010) is an exception, and in their study of the self-initiated repatriation of 546 Australian, they find that both career and community embeddedness (two dimensions of host country embeddedness) are significantly related to the intention to repatriate. Lo et al. (2012) also develop the concepts of home country community embeddedness and host country community embeddedness from the off-the-job embeddedness construct of Mitchell et al. (2001) .

However, in their study of SIEs in Macau, Lo et al. (2012) only use these concepts (home country embeddedness and host country embeddedness) to examine SIEs' intentions to leave their current organization rather than intentions to repatriate.

Overall, studies investigating the links between home/host country embeddedness and global mobility are still scant. The study by Tharenou & Caulfield (2010) is one exception, which provides evidence for the positive relationships between host country embeddedness and SIEs' intentions to repatriate. However, prior studies have not examined whether home country embeddedness can lead to returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. Therefore, this research will examine:

RQ3: To what extent do home country career and community embeddedness deter returnees from intending to re-expatriate?

2.4.2. Re-entry experiences

As stated in section 2.3, re-entry experiences include the different reactions and readjustment experienced by returnees after repatriating (Szkudlarek, 2010; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). The most common reactions include RCS and cross-cultural readjustment, which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4.2.1. Reverse culture shock

Prior research has examined the RCS experienced by different groups of returnees. Several studies have examined RCS in school-age students (e.g. Chamove & Soeterik, 2006; Gaw, 2000; Kidder, 1992; Seiter & Waddell, 1989; Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010; Yoshida et al., 2003), ARs (e.g. Adler, 1981; Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Hammer, Hart, & Rogan, 1998; Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Valk, 2010), and young

graduate returnees (e.g. Brabant et al., 1990; Butcher, 2002; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Gill, 2010; Haines, 2012; Pritchard, 2011; Thompson & Christofi, 2006). However, the RCS experienced by different groups of returnees may vary due to their different life cycle stages, which will be discussed following.

For high school students, they return to stay with their families and then return to school life overseas. Therefore, their RCS is caused by the conflict in values with their family and friends in their home country (Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010), and also from their school, such as work load (home work) and course structures (Wielkiewicz & Turkowski, 2010), school phobia and fear of rejection (Enloe, 1986). The conflicts arise when high school students change while they are overseas. These include physical changes (hair style and colour changes, pierced ears, and clothing styles), behavioural changes (walking and postural style changes) and communication style changes (Kidder, 1992).

The repatriation of AEs, however, involves the transition from their company in the host country to their previous company in the home country within the same organization. Thus, AEs report of experiencing RCS on re-entry to their home country because of the changes in their home country culture, general life styles (such as the attitudes of people, communication, shopping and so on), and various job factors (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; McDonnell et al., 2013). They may also repatriate to jobs that do not meet with their expectation (Adler, 1981). Their colleagues may also not value their international experiences (Adler, 1981; Bossard & Peterson, 2005).

In contrast to high school student returnees and ARs, in general, the transition of young graduate returnees involves the return from studying overseas to their new jobs in the

home country. Therefore, the RCS experienced by young graduate returnees are caused by not only the conflicting values with their family and friends, high expectations of themselves and their family, but also by difficulties in finding a job and adjusting to a different working environment (Brabant et al., 1990; Butcher, 2002; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Gill, 2010; Haines, 2012; Pritchard, 2011; Thompson & Christofi, 2006). Butcher (2002), in a study of East Asian young graduate returnees, demonstrates that most of them experience RCS caused by “grief” in re-entry, high expectations of themselves and their family, difficulties in finding a job, differences in work ethics and modes of communication in the working environments of their home and host countries. Similarly, Brazilians who returned from graduate studies in the United States report of experiencing RCS due to a conflict in values with their friends, family and colleagues in their home country and also due to poor working conditions in their home country (Gama & Pedersen, 1977).

Similar to the case of young graduate returnees, SIEs often repatriate to new jobs in their home country (Begley et al., 2008). In contrast to AEs, SIEs have to self manage their own repatriation without support from their organization (McDonnell et al., 2013). Thus, SIEs may experience RCS more severely than AEs. It is suggested that the causes of RCS in SIEs also include factors related to the general environment, interaction and job related factors (McDonnell et al., 2013). However, studies on RCS experienced by SIEs who repatriate to their home country are still scant (Doherty & Dickmann, 2013; McDonnell & Karsaklian, 2013; Suutari et al., 2013).

With the exception of SIRs, studies on how returnees/repatriates face RCS and what causes RCS are well documented (e.g. Brabant et al., 1990; Butcher, 2002; Christofi &

Thompson, 2007; Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Gaw, 2000; Gill, 2010; Thompson & Christofi, 2006). However, there are very limited studies that examine the impact of RCS on returnees' intention to re-expatriate. Christofi & Thompson's (2007) study is one exception, which finds that returnees who returned from overseas studies report of experiencing severe RCS that lead them to consider going back to their sojourn country. However, Christofi & Thompson's (2007) research involves semi-structured interviews with only eight returnees. This method has some limitations, such as a possible lack of representativeness due to the small sample (Cameron & Price, 2009; Creswell, 2009). Further, little is known about whether RCS has a stronger impact on the intention to re-expatriate than other factors (such as pull-push factors). Therefore, this is a gap in the literature, and there is a need to provide a better understanding of how RCS affects the intention to re-expatriate using a larger sample size, particularly research that examines the interaction of RCS with other variables in predicting this intention.

2.4.2.2. Cross-cultural readjustment

Although research on cross-cultural readjustment has examined different re-entry groups, it largely focuses on ARs (e.g. Black, 1992, 1994; Furuya et al., 2008; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Lee & Liu, 2007; Stroh, 1995; Vidal et al., 2010). A few studies have been conducted on young graduate returnees (e.g. Hansel, 1993; Pritchard, 2011) and SIRs (e.g. Begley et al., 2008).

Studies (Black, 1992, 1994; Black & Gregersen, 1999; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Suutari & Valimaa, 2002; Vidal et al., 2010) support the view that ARs experience difficulties in interaction, work and general readjustment on re-entry to their home country. Research (Andresen, Bergdolt, & Margenfeld, 2013; Begley et al., 2008;

McDonnell et al., 2013) has also indicated that SIRs also experience difficulties in all three facets of cross-cultural readjustment. Begley et al. (2008), for instance, find that the readjustment of SIRs do not significantly differ from that of ARs in both interaction and general readjustment. However, the only major difference between ARs and SIRs is work readjustment (Begley et al., 2008). SIRs must find their own job after returning while ARs return to a position in the same organization; thus SIRs may experience a greater work readjustment than the latter group (McDonnell et al., 2013). Similarly, Tharenou and Seet (2014) review research on the experiences of young Chinese graduate returnees and find that most studies support poor interaction, general and work readjustment of those returnees on re-entry to China.

Although prior studies indicate that all different group of returnees face difficulties in adjusting back to their home country, most prior studies have been on antecedences of cross-cultural readjustment. For example, researchers (Arman, 2009; Black, 1992; Vidal, Valle, & Aragón, 2007) have investigated the association of unmet expectation of returnees with cross-cultural readjustment. There have been a few studies on the impact of cultural identity on cross cultural readjustment (e.g. Cox, 2004; Sussman, 2000, 2001, 2002; Ward & Searle, 1991). Several studies have also examined the association between job related factors, such as role clarity, role discretion and role conflict and the readjustment of ARs (Black, 1994; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Suutari & Valimaa, 2002; Vidal et al., 2010). Studies (Begley et al., 2008; Butcher, 2002; Hansel, 1993; Myers & Inkson, 2003) have investigated how other job related factors, such as the impact of skill un-utilisation of local employers and the differences between the working environments in the host and home countries, impact on the cross-cultural re-adjustment of graduate returnees and SIRs. Several studies have

also examined repatriates/returnees' background variables (e.g. age, gender, previous international experience, and self-efficacy) (Arman, 2009).

Although several studies have focused on the antecedences of cross-cultural readjustment, a few studies have examined the outcomes of cross-cultural readjustment. The few studies that do so largely focus on ARs. For example, some studies (Black et al., 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1995; Vidal et al., 2010) support the view that if ARs experience better cross-cultural readjustment, they will perform better at work. For ARs, better cross-cultural readjustment also leads to higher organizational commitment (Arman, 2009), better knowledge sharing (Arman, 2009) and less turnover intention (Arman, 2009; Black et al., 1992; Cox, Khan, & Armani, 2013; Gregersen & Black, 1995; Lee & Liu, 2007; Suutari & Brewster, 2003; Vidal et al., 2007).

Studies on the relationship between cross-cultural readjustment and its outcomes in other groups of returnees, such as SIRs or young graduates from overseas, are still lacking and represent a significant gap in the literature. Tharenou & Seet (2014) suggest that poor cross-cultural readjustment may prompt these returnees to intend to re-expatriate. Following this suggestion, the current study examines the relationship between all three facets of cross-cultural readjustment, including interaction, work and general readjustment, and intention to re-expatriate in the context of Vietnamese returnees. Therefore, the following research question examines:

RQ 4: To what extent do returnees' negative re-entry reactions (RCS and poor cross-cultural readjustment) lead to re-expatriation intentions?

2.4.3. The three predictors from the theory of planned behaviour

The TPB has been an influential theory in explaining human social behaviour (Ajzen, 2011). Several meta-analytic reviews (e.g. Ajzen, 2011; Armitage & Conner, 2001; McEachan et al., 2011; Ravis & Sheeran, 2003; Schulze & Wittmann, 2003) have supported the application of the TPB on a wide range of different behaviours. Studies have been found on applying the TPB to health-related behaviours (e.g. McEachan et al., 2011; Munro et al., 2007; Park & Smith, 2007; Primack, Switzer, & Dalton, 2007; Wall, Hinson, & McKee, 1998; Zhao et al., 2006), entrepreneurial behaviour (e.g. Kautonen, Van Gelderen, & Tornikoski, 2013; Shook & Bratianu, 2010), consumer behaviour (Chen & Li, 2010; Yousafzai, Foxall, & Pallister, 2010) and turnover behaviour (Lane, Mathews, & Presholdt, 1988; Presholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987; Van Breukelen et al., 2004). Surprisingly, prior studies have not tested this theory in the context of international mobility behaviour, and specifically, as factors behind the intention to re-expatriate. However, the TPB is especially appropriate for studying the intention to re-expatriate as prior research has suggested the relevance of the three predictors of the TPB in predicting this intention, which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4.3.1. Attitude toward re-expatriation

Ferro (2006) argues that the international mobility intentions of professionals are affected not only by pull-push factors but also by their personal attitudes. According to Ferro (2006), professionals have un-favourable attitudes toward expatriation because they do not find improvements in or better opportunities for their careers abroad. Whereas, favourable attitudes come from the perception that overseas experiences will

benefit their later careers. Other empirical studies (e.g. Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Suutari & Brewster, 2000) indicate that professionals have favourable attitudes toward international mobility to gain experience abroad which is beneficial to their subsequent career on returning home or relocating internationally. Hall (2005) also argues that the favourable attitudes come from the professionals' personal interests, motivations and desires.

2.4.3.2. Subjective norm

Expatriation research also indicates the relevance of subjective norm in examining intentions to re-expatriate. Subjective norm refers to a person's perception about whether significant others think that he or she should leave his or her current country. Significant others, especially family members, are either barriers or forms of encouragement for SIEs to expatriate (e.g. Brett & Stroh, 1995; Carr et al., 2005; Inkson et al., 2008; Konopaske et al., 2005; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Professionals are encouraged to return to bring up their children at home, to fulfil the responsibility to care for the elderly (such as aging parents and relatives), and to gain the benefits of being part of an extended family (Inkson et al., 2008; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Tung, 2007). As a result, returnees are less likely to re-expatriate if they have strong family ties or responsibilities (Tung, 2007). Professionals might be encouraged or pushed to expatriate or re-expatriate because they and their family believe that going abroad brings a better future for the whole family, especially for their children and descendants (Carr et al., 2005; Richardson, 2006; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Tung, 2007).

2.4.3.3. Perceived behavioural control

The relevance of perceived behavioural control in examining global mobility intention has also been suggested (Selmer & Luring, 2012). Selmer and Luring (2012) argue that expatriation decisions depend on external factors such as the availability of essential opportunities and resources (e.g. time, money, skills and participation of others). The other external controls, such as occupations, also affect mobility intentions. This is because some professionals are more likely to expatriate or re-expatriate as they face a fewer regulatory barriers (e.g., registration requirements) in order to work in other countries compared to other professionals, such as lawyers, doctors and other medical professionals (Benson & Pattie, 2008). Internal controls also affect intentions, for example, people with more confidence in their ability to work and live in a country with a culture different from their own will be more likely to expatriate than others (Tharenou, 2003, 2008).

Overall, although expatriation research has suggested the relevance of the TPB in predicting re-expatriation intentions, prior studies have not tested this theory in the context of international mobility behaviour, and specifically, as factors behind the intention to re-expatriate. Therefore, it is necessary to test the TPB in the prediction of re-expatriation intention by investigating whether all three predictors significantly affect this intention and which has strongest impact. Thus the research examines:

RQ 5: To what extent does each of the three predictors from the TPB (attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) have a significant effect on re-expatriation intentions?

2.4.4. Integrating factors in pull-push theory and the TPB

This section will review how pull-push factors that are traditionally examined in the international mobility literature operate with those in the TPB in predicting an intention to re-expatriate. In particular, it includes the investigation of whether each pull-push factor has a direct impact on the re-expatriation intention or indirectly affect via the three predictors of the TPB (attitude toward behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behaviour control).

Several researchers (e.g. Alberts & Hazen, 2005; Baruch et al., 2007; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Jackson et al., 2005; Soon, 2010; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) find that pull-push factors related to the home and host countries are best predictors of international mobility intentions. Inkson and Myers (Inkson & Myers, 2003), for example, find that the motivations of young New Zealanders to gain overseas experiences include pull/positive factors (e.g. general exploration, career goals in the host country) and push/negative factors (e.g. escape from undesirable work or personal situations in the home country). Similarly, Baruch et al. (2007) provide evidence that the intention of international students to stay abroad are significantly affected by host-country pull forces (e.g. the adjustment process, perceptions about the labour market in the host country), and home-country pull forces (e.g. family ties, perceptions about the labour market in the home country). Surprisingly, although these studies have examined the effects of pull-push factors on the intentions, no study that I am aware of has integrated these factors with the three predictors of the TPB.

According to Ajzen (2001; 2011), the three predictors of the TPB (attitude toward behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) are sufficient to explain

an intention to carry out a behaviour. He argues that the influence of other variables is exerted through the three predictors of the TPB. This means the links of other variables to an intention are fully mediated by the three predictors of the TPB. However, empirical studies on testing whether other variables (e.g. emotions, affects, attitudes toward targets) have direct or indirect effects on an intention through the predictors of the TPB have been mixed (Guo, Xiao, & Tang, 2009; Sniehotta, Presseau, & Araújo-Soares, 2014). Therefore, it is crucial to test whether pull-push factors affect re-expatriation intentions directly or indirectly via the TPB. Thus this research examines:

RQ 6: To what extent do the three predictors of the TPB mediate the influence of pull, push factors on re-expatriation intention?

2.5. Chapter summary

In this chapter, two major theories are utilised to explain why returnees intend to re-expatriate, including pull-push theory and the TPB. It also includes expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, family systems theory and home country embeddedness to explain particular pull-push forces. Other theories include RCS and cross-cultural readjustment are used to explain returnees' re-entry experiences. This chapter also presents the concepts of SIEs, AEs, migrants, returnees, re-expatriation and brain circulation, and the review of extant literature about factors that influence returnees' re-expatriation intention. Additionally, this chapter identifies some gaps in the literature on factors affecting re-expatriation intention, particularly that of returnees from emerging economies. Based on this foundation, six research questions are developed to guide the data collection and analysis. The next chapter will discuss the development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses.

Chapter 3: Conceptual framework and research hypotheses

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual framework and develops the hypotheses for this study. As mentioned in Chapter 2 (literature review), research on the re-expatriation stage is still sparse with prior studies largely based on conceptual studies (e.g. Tharenou, 2010; Tharenou & Seet, 2014) or empirical qualitative studies with small sample sizes (e.g. Caulfield, 2008; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Ley & Kobayashi, 2005) which can lead to limitations in terms of generalisability. Chapter 2 identified key theoretical underpinnings, main research streams, debates and gaps in the literature. This chapter synthesises the findings of Chapter 2 to develop a theoretical framework of factors influencing re-expatriation intentions which will form the basis for empirical analysis.

The chapter begins with the development of a preliminary theoretical framework (section 3.2). Next, the chapter discusses the development of the hypotheses (section 3.3). Finally, the chapter presents a summary for the chapter (section 3.4).

3.2. Development of a preliminary theoretical framework

The conceptual framework for the present study is shown in Figure 3.1. The dependent variable is the intention to re-expatriate. The independent variables in the framework are classified into five groups, including:

- (1) Host-country pull forces: career outcomes and non-career outcomes.

- (2) Home-country push forces: life dissatisfaction and career dissatisfaction.
- (3) Home-country pull forces: community embeddedness and career embeddedness.
- (4) Re-entry experiences: RCS, interaction readjustment, work readjustment and general readjustment.
- (5) The predictors of the TPB: attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.

In the conceptual framework, pull-push and re-entry experience factors have both direct and indirect links to intention to re-expatriate through the mediation of the three predictors of the TPB.

3.3. Development of hypotheses

Based on the literature review, a number of hypotheses are developed to describe the causal links between pull-push forces, re-entry experiences, the three predictors of the TPB and intention to re-expatriate. The hypotheses for these relationships are proposed in the following sub-sections.

3.3.1. Host-country pull forces

Host-country pull forces refer to positive and attractive facets of the host country. As returnees have not actually re-expatriated, host-country pull forces are considered as benefits that returnees expect to gain from re-expatriation (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). The outcomes that returnees might expect to gain from re-expatriation can be generally classified into career outcomes and non-career outcomes.

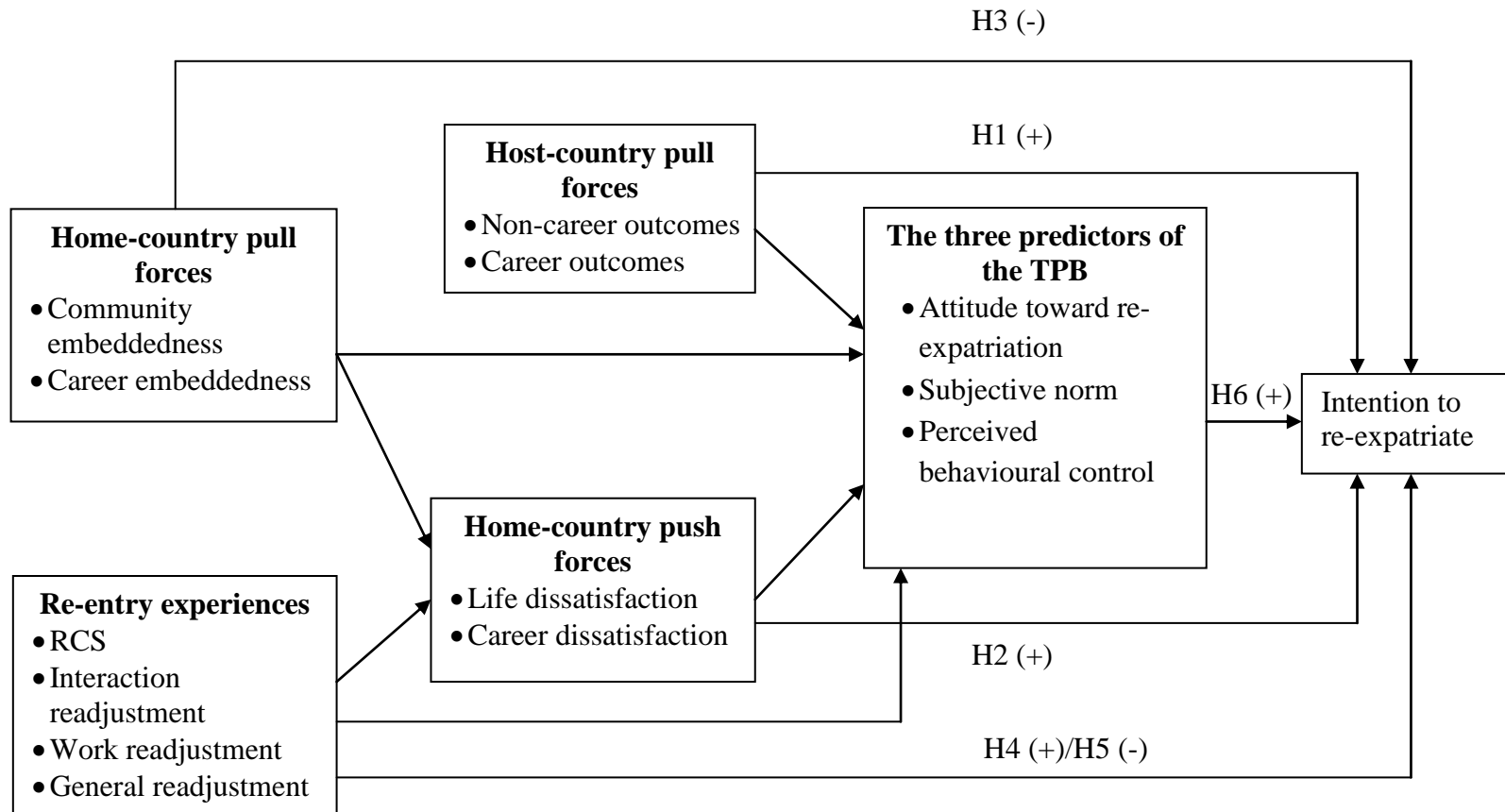


Figure 3.1: Preliminary theoretical framework developed for this study

Career outcomes include higher salaries and job opportunities (Brown & Connell, 2004; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Zweig, 1997). Career outcomes also involve non-economic benefits such as a better work environment (Cao, 2008; Monteleone & Torrasi, 2011; Oommen, 1989), better working conditions (Brown & Connell, 2004; Zweig, 1997) and better career development (Cao et al., 2012; Shaffer et al., 2012; Suutari et al., 2013; Thorn et al., 2013), particularly in developed economies vis-à-vis their less developed home countries.

The most silent non-career outcomes include family-related and quality-of-life related outcomes (Carr et al., 2005; Doherty et al., 2011; Tung, 2007). The family outcomes are related to benefits to their family that returnees may expect to gain from their re-expatriation (Carr et al., 2005; Doherty et al., 2011; Tung, 2007). These outcomes include better education for their children and better place to bring up their children (Tung, 2007; Zweig, 1997), and better support for their extended family (Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson, 2006). Quality-of-life outcomes include better social welfare, safety and security and better natural environment (Thorn, 2009; Tung, 2007). These pull forces are crucial because many emerging economies have been compensating for their economic growth with pollution, traffic chaos and relatively unsafe environments (Tung, 2007).

If returnees believe that living in a host country will bring benefits to their careers, quality of life and family, they are more likely to re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 1a: Positive non-career outcomes are positively related to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 1b: Positive career outcomes are positively related to intention to re-expatriate.

3.3.2. Home-country pull-push forces

Home-country push forces are negative aspects about the home country that drive returnees away from their country of residence (Toren, 1976). Push forces include the undesirable career paths and life in the home country that returnees are not satisfied with and want to escape from (Selmer & Luring, 2012). Career dissatisfaction refers to an individual's subjective reflection or judgement of his or her career progress or the career success that he or she has made toward meeting his or her career goals (e.g. incomes, career advancement and developing new skills) (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). Life dissatisfaction is defined as a person's general judgement of his or her life as a whole (Pavot & Diener, 2008). Professionals return to their home country with the expectation to gain career benefits (e.g. career opportunities and financial outcome) and life benefits (e.g. physical environment, friendship and family ties) (De Cieri et al., 2009; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). These people may have a negative evaluation about their career and life in their home country when their career and life back home do not meet their expectations (Begley et al., 2008; Tharenou, 2010). The negative evaluation about career and life in their home country would contribute to a negative attitude toward their home country (Lidgard, 2001). Therefore, both career dissatisfaction and life dissatisfaction may influence returnees' desire to stay in their home country or to consider a re-expatriation plan in the future. Further, studies (e.g. Lounsbury et al., 2004) suggest a positive relationship between career dissatisfaction and life dissatisfaction. For returnees who

highly value their careers, dissatisfaction with their career will induce dissatisfaction with life. Thus, career dissatisfaction may affect intentions to re-expatriate through the effect on life dissatisfaction. Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Life dissatisfaction in the home country is positively related to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 2b: Career dissatisfaction in the home country is positively related to life dissatisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: Career dissatisfaction in the home country is positively related to intention to re-expatriate.

Home-country embeddedness, in contrast to home-country dissatisfaction, refers to positive attitudes toward the returnees' community and career in their home country (Lo et al., 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Therefore, home-country embeddedness is considered a pull force from the home country. Home-country embeddedness includes two dimensions: community embeddedness and career embeddedness (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

As for community embeddedness, returnees become embedded in their communities in their home country when they have strong links with their family, relatives and friends (Hall, 2005; Shaffer et al., 2012; Solimano, 2008). Additionally, they may remain at home in order to care for their parents, children and elderly relatives (Richmond, 1968; Shaffer et al., 2012). They may find they fit with the lifestyle at home (Monteleone & Torrisi, 2011) and the home-country culture (Gill, 2005; Hall, 2005). When returnees have strong links with their family and friends, and they feel they have a strong fit with

life at home, they are less likely to re-expatriate (Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou, 2010). If they do re-expatriate, they will sacrifice family ties, the responsibility of taking care of their family and lifestyle in their home country (Shaffer et al., 2012; Solimano, 2008). Further, when returnees become embedded in their community, their social needs are more likely to be met, meaning that they are more satisfied with their life in their home country and less likely to re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 3a: Community embeddedness is negatively related to life dissatisfaction

Hypothesis 3b: Community embeddedness is negatively related to intention to re-expatriate.

In terms of career embeddedness, re-expatriation means career benefits that returnees gain from repatriation can be translated into sacrifices if they re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). These sacrifices include good job opportunities (Chacko, 2007; Jain, 2012; Tung, 2007; Wadhwa et al., 2011; Zweig, 1997), good salaries relative to salaries abroad (Alberts & Hazen, 2005), and professional growth and recognition in their home country (Gill, 2010; Wadhwa et al., 2009). In re-expatriating, they may also lose good links with their work units and supervisors (Zweig, 1997) and their fit with familiar co-workers and working cultures (Gill, 2010; Guo et al., 2013). If returnees have valuable career links, a good fit between their career goals and career opportunities in their home country, and they will make huge career sacrifices if they re-expatriate, then they are less likely to re-expatriate. Additionally, being embedded in their career means that returnees' career benefits are being met and they are more satisfied with their career in

their home country and are less likely to re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Therefore, the next hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 3c: Career embeddedness is negatively related to career dissatisfaction.

Hypothesis 3d: Career embeddedness is negatively related to intention to re-expatriate.

3.3.3. Re-entry experiences

This study examines RCS and cross-cultural readjustment as returnees' re-entry experiences/reactions. RCS represents returnees' negative affective responses toward their home country (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gaw, 2000). Concurrently, people generally attempt to eliminate sources of negative affective responses to their current situations (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Therefore, returnees may re-expatriate to reduce their negative affective responses (e.g. RCS) to their home country that they may experience on re-entry. Further, RCS can arise from their culture, general life experience and also from their work environment (Gill, 2010; Haines, 2012). Therefore, if returnees face more RCS, they are more likely to be dissatisfied with their career and life in their country and more likely to re-expatriate. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 4a: RCS is positively related to life dissatisfaction in the home country

Hypothesis 4b: RCS is positively related to career dissatisfaction in the home country

Hypothesis 4c: RCS is positively related intention to re-expatriate.

Another re-entry experience that returnees face on re-entry is poor cross-cultural readjustment which includes three dimensions: interaction, work and general readjustment. Poor cross-cultural adjustment is positively associated with intentions to

quit a country (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black & Stephens, 1989). Similar to RCS, poor cross-cultural readjustment represents negative responses of returnees on re-entry (Black, 1994). Returnees may reduce the negative responses to their home country that they may experience on re-entry by re-expatriating (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black & Stephens, 1989). Additionally, poor general readjustment is directly related to the evaluation of general life, while poor work readjustment is related to career aspects (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Poor interaction readjustment, however, reflects difficulties that returnees face in interpersonal communication or social relations with friends, family and also colleagues at work (Vidal et al., 2010). Thus, returnees with poor interaction readjustment may be more dissatisfied with their career and life in their home country. Whereas poor general readjustment is only related to general readjustment and work readjustment is only associated with career dissatisfaction. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 5:

Interaction readjustment is negatively related to: (5a) life dissatisfaction in the home country; (5b) career dissatisfaction in the home country; (5c) intention to re-expatriate.

Work readjustment is negatively related to: (5d) career dissatisfaction in the home country; (5e) intention to re-expatriate.

General readjustment is negatively related to: (5f) life dissatisfaction in the home country; (5g) intention to re-expatriate.

3.3.4. The three predictors of the TPB

According to the TPB, the intention to perform a behaviour is predicted by one's attitude toward behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, if returnees have a favourable attitude toward re-expatriation, perceive that other important people (e.g. parents, spouse and children) think that they should re-expatriate and perceive that they have opportunities, resources and abilities to re-expatriate, they have higher intention to re-expatriate. As the TPB has been well validated in various studies related to human behaviours, this study argues that the TPB can be applied in the context of intentions to re-expatriate. Further, an individual's attitude is also affected by their social environment (Chang, 1998). In other words, attitude toward re-expatriation is affected by subjective norm (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 6a: Favourable attitude toward re-expatriation is positively related to intention to re-expatriate

Hypothesis 6b: Subjective norm is positively related to attitude toward re-expatriation

Hypothesis 6c: Subjective norm is positively related to intention to re-expatriate

Hypothesis 6d: Perceived behavioural control is positively related to intention to re-expatriate.

3.3.5. Mediated linkages of the three predictors of the TPB

This section discusses the hypotheses related to the mediation effects of the three predictors of the TPB on the links of host-country pull factors, home-country pull-push factors and re-entry experience factors to intention to re-expatriate.

With regard to home-country pull factors, this study measures these pull factors by outcome expectancies that are benefits/outcomes that returnees expect to gain from re-expatriation (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). In the TPB, outcome expectancies are synonymous with behavioural beliefs which are determinants of the attitude toward behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In other words, host-country pull factors (measured by outcome expectations) should be considered as “external variables” that influence intention to re-expatriate indirectly via attitude toward re-expatriation. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 7a: Attitude toward re-expatriation fully mediates the link of non-career outcomes to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 7b: Attitude toward re-expatriation fully mediates the link of career outcomes to intention to re-expatriate.

As for home-country pull-push factors, this study conceptualises these factors by home country dissatisfaction and home country embeddedness. Both of these factors are attitudinal variables (Mitchell et al., 2001). They are considered as attitudes toward targets/objects (e.g. career, life and community in home country) (Van Breukelen et al., 2004). Attitudes toward targets are different from the attitude toward behaviour as the latter is the evaluations by a person in a single or set of behaviours (Ajzen, 1985). A behaviour is always directed from an entity (e.g. person, organization, country) (Ajzen, 1985). The evaluation of this entity is defined as attitudes toward targets (Van Breukelen et al., 2004). For example, attitude toward re-expatriation specifies the home country as an entity that the re-expatriation behaviour is directed at. As home country

dissatisfaction and home country embeddedness are attitudes toward home country, they are considered as attitudes toward targets.

Eagly & Chaiken (1993) argue that attitudes toward targets should have a more important causal role in relation to the behaviour as attitudes toward targets are the starting point of the action. Empirical research has found that attitudes toward targets (e.g. job satisfaction) are also significant direct predictors of an employee's turnover intentions when all the three basic predictors of TPB are accounted for (Van Breukelen et al., 2004). However, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argue that the attitude toward behaviour is a better predictor of an intention than attitudes toward targets. If attitudes toward targets impact on behaviour, the effect should be indirect via the mediating effects of the TPB (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen, 2011). This argument indicates that the three predictors of the TPB mediate the links of attitudes toward targets (home country dissatisfaction and home country embeddedness) to intention to re-expatriate. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 8a: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of life dissatisfaction in the home country on intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 8b: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of career dissatisfaction in the home country on intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 8c: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of community embeddedness on intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 8d: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of career embeddedness on intention to re-expatriate.

In relation to re-entry experiences, RCS and cross-cultural readjustment represent affective or emotional responses of returnees when they return to their home country (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Prior studies (Ajzen, 2011; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) argue that emotions/affects can be considered as background factors that affect intention indirectly via the predictors of the TPB. Ajzen (2011) suggests that people with a positive mood will evaluate the behaviour more favourably, thus they have higher intention to carry out the behaviour compared to people in a negative mood. Further, Ajzen (2011) argues that “affective states can also help to select the behavioural, normative and control beliefs that are readily accessible in memory” (p. 1116). In other words, affect/emotions (e.g. RCS and cross-cultural readjustment) can indirectly affect intention to re-expatriate via the mediation of the three predictors of the TPB. Therefore, the final hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 9a: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of RCS on intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 9b: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of interaction readjustment on intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 9c: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of work readjustment on intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 9d: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of general readjustment on intention to re-expatriate.

The measures of constructs in this study were adopted from existing literature. The measures of all the above mentioned constructs will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

3.4. Chapter summary

This chapter presented the conceptual framework developed for the study. Nine hypotheses were developed to describe the causal relationships between pull-push factors, re-entry experiences, the three predictors of the TPB and intention to re-expatriate. The next chapter will discuss the choice of Vietnam as the research context and research methodology.

Chapter 4: Research context and methodology

4.1. Introduction

Chapter 2 reviewed the relevant literature on the factors influencing the re-expatriation intentions of returnees. The literature review of expatriation and migration research indicates that little is known about why returnees, especially from an emerging economy, intend to re-expatriate. This chapter justifies the choice of Vietnam, an emerging economy, as the research context for this study, followed by the presentation of and justifications for the research methodology used in this study. The appropriate research methodology should be based on the research objective and framework. The conceptual research framework (see Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3) provides possible causal links between proposed antecedents of intentions to re-expatriate. Accordingly, this research project needs to undertake quantitative analysis of data to examine the relationships between variables.

The chapter is organised as follows. Section 4.2 justifies why this study is based on Vietnam as the research context. Section 4.3 presents and justifies the survey methodology for this study. Section 4.4 illustrates how the survey questionnaire is designed and administered. A description of sampling strategy, including sampling methods, selection of participants and data collection procedures, is presented in section 4.5. The sample profile and proposed data analysis strategies are presented in sections 4.6 and 4.7, respectively. Finally, a summary of this chapter is set out in section 4.8.

4.2. Research context

This research was conducted in an emerging economy context, Vietnam, for two main reasons. First, Vietnam has seen an increase in the number of returnees who are valuable human resources for Vietnam. Second, the Vietnamese government has recently implemented some policies aimed at attracting and retaining skilled overseas Vietnamese; however, the effectiveness of these policies is still equivocal. Therefore, it will be critical for the Vietnamese Government to understand the reasons why returnees intend to re-expatriate in order for the Vietnamese Government to put in place appropriate policies to help returnees settle down and retain them in Vietnam. The following sub-sections will discuss in detail the two reasons why Vietnam is chosen as the research context.

4.2.1. Overseas Vietnamese and Vietnamese returnees

First, this section will briefly introduce the term “Overseas Vietnamese”. Next, it will discuss Vietnamese returnees and which groups of returnees that the current research focuses on.

Overseas Vietnamese

Overseas Vietnamese (*Việt Kiều or Người việt hải ngoại*) refers to Vietnamese people who are living outside Vietnam as a Diaspora (Pham, 2010). It is estimated that as at 2009, there were 3.7 million people who were born in Vietnam and who subsequently live outside Vietnam, residing in over 100 countries with dense concentrations in the U.S, France, Australia and Canada (Pham, 2010). Overseas Vietnamese can be generally divided into five groups according to historical stages.

The first group includes the majority of overseas Vietnamese who fled Vietnam as refugees after the end of the Vietnam War in 1975. According to the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), approximately 1.8 million Vietnamese left the country from 1975 to 1995 (Dang et al., 2010). Most of these people are described as “boat people” as they left Vietnam illegally by boat (Pham, 2010). They reside mainly in North America, the European Union and Australia (Pham, 2010).

The second group involves Vietnamese working and studying in former socialist countries. About 30,000 undergraduates, 13,500 postgraduates, 25,000 technicians and thousands of other scientists were trained in these countries from 1951 to 1989 (Gribble, 2011). Most of them are workers or government funded students sent by the Vietnamese government. While most of them returned to Vietnam, a significant number of them have remained in these countries after the Soviet collapse. They reside mainly in the Russian Federation and the Eastern European, particularly in countries formerly aligned with the Soviet Union (Nguyen, 2014).

The third group consists of Vietnamese women who marry foreigners. From 2007 to 2010, approximately 32,000 Vietnamese women married foreigners from some 50 different countries and territories, and the majority of them married South Korean and Taiwanese men (Consular Department - Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Vietnam, 2012). These women usually follow their husbands to live in those countries. Most of them marry foreigners for economic reasons, due to difficult economic conditions, especially in some of the rural areas, in Vietnam (Consular Department - Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Vietnam, 2012).

The fourth group includes workers sent abroad for work under contract-based employment in some of the major markets: Taiwan, Japan, South Korean, Malaysia and Middle East. They are referred to as the “export” labour group (Consular Department - Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Vietnam, 2012; Nguyen, 2014). They temporarily migrate to other countries and most of them have to return Vietnam after their employment contracts expire. The size of this group of migrants increased from 14,315 in 2000 to 20,877 people in 2010 (Consular Department - Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Vietnam, 2012).

The last group consists of Vietnamese overseas students who have gone abroad to study, mostly in developed countries, since the 1986 Renovation “Doi moi” (Tran et al., 2014). Most of them are self-funded students (Gribble, 2011). Their most popular destinations include Australia, the USA, China, Singapore and the UK (Nguyen, 2013). The increase in the Vietnamese middle class and the deficiencies in the Vietnamese education system are the main push forces that encourage Vietnamese students to seek education abroad (Gribble, 2011; Tran et al., 2014). Meanwhile, the prestige associated with a foreign qualification, the opportunities to gain valuable international experiences and higher wages after graduating are the main pull forces (Gribble, 2011). Figure 4.1 shows the number of Vietnamese studying abroad from 1998 to 2012.

Vietnamese returnees

Although there are five different Overseas Vietnamese categories, only the last two groups have contributed significantly to the number of recent Vietnamese returnees. This is because the migration of the first and second groups took place in the past few decades, and very few of them have returned to Vietnam to live for the long term.

Similarly, the third group, Vietnamese woman marrying foreigners, usually follow their husbands to live abroad permanently rather than return to their home country.

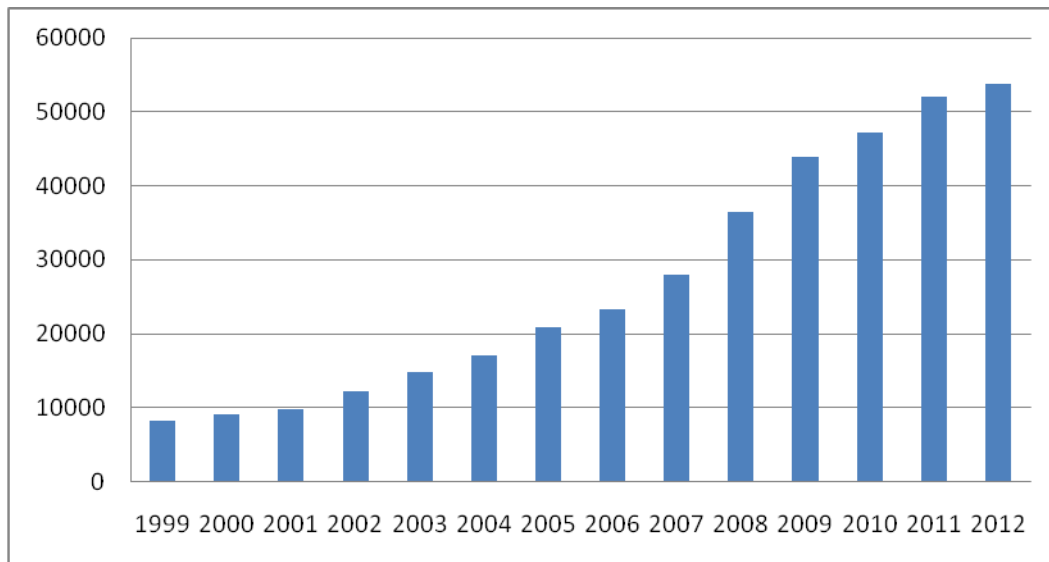


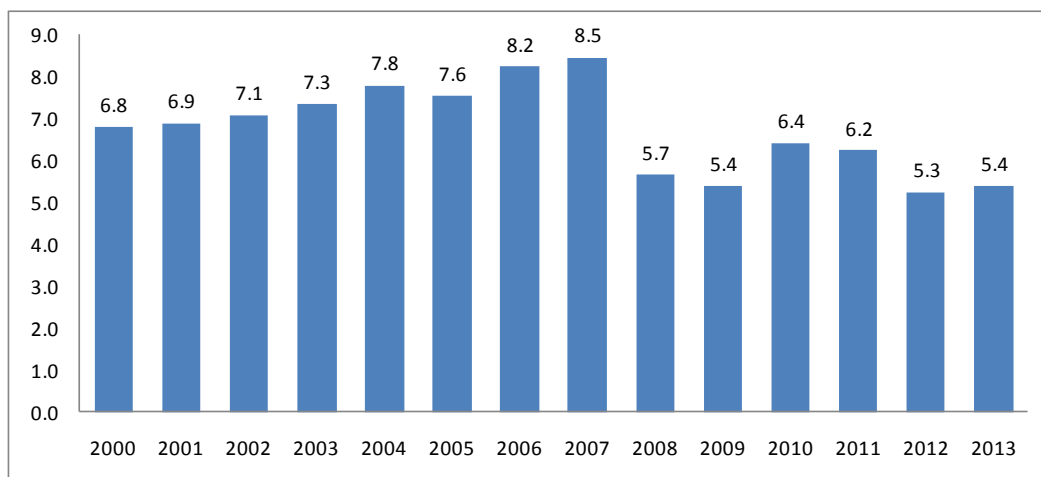
Figure 4.1: Outbound mobile Vietnamese students

Source: UNESCO (2015)

In contrast, most “export” workers have to return to Vietnam when their labour contracts expire. However, the current study does not examine returnees from the “export” labour group as the majority of them are unskilled or low-skilled workers (Dang et al., 2010; Manning & Sidorenko, 2007). The limitations in their educational and work experiences and poor command of foreign languages make it hard for them to integrate into the host country society (Nguyen, 2014). Therefore, it is difficult for them to have opportunities to re-expatriate to their host country or other countries, except to temporarily migrate as “export” labour as they did before.

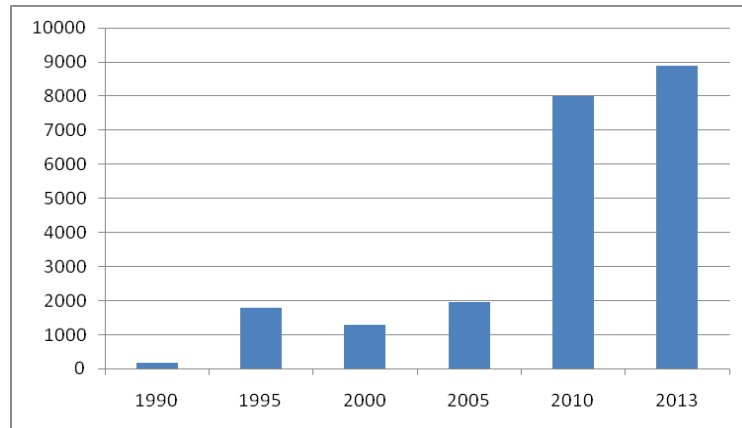
Another group of returnees include Vietnamese who have graduated and/or have worked overseas, and then returned to Vietnam. In recent years, Vietnam has seen an increase in the number of returnees in this group, as such returnees see that there are

better career opportunities in their homeland (Vietnamnet, 2011). In the past decades, Vietnam has achieved a high level of economic growth and has been an attractive nation for FDI in the region (Anwar & Nguyen, 2010). Figure 4.2 indicates that Vietnamese economic growth has been at a high rate since the introduction of the reform policy in 1986. Among Asian countries, Vietnam’s annual growth rate ranks second only after China’s (Mai, Bilbard, & Som, 2009). Figure 4.3 shows that the FDI inflow into Vietnam over the past two decades has increased significantly. Vietnam continues to be listed as one of the top 20 emerging markets for attracting FDI until at least 2020 (Kvint, 2009). The high economic growth and FDI inflows in Vietnam have created a stronger labour market, better career opportunities, and demand for more advanced skills, which have attracted these Overseas Vietnamese back to their home country (Le, 2014).



Source: The World Bank (2015)

Figure 4.2: Vietnam’s GDP growth rate in 2000-2013 (%)



Source: UNCTAD (2015)

Figure 4.3: FDI inflows into Vietnam (US\$ million)

The current study focuses on Vietnamese returnees who have recently graduated from overseas universities, mostly in more advanced countries. Some of them have spent a few years working abroad. The focus is on this group of returnees because they are well educated and trained and possess skills, advanced knowledge, international experience and foreign language proficiency (Tran et al., 2014). A substantial number of them have technical and managerial experiences in the host country (Nam, 2005). These returnees will be vital for Vietnamese companies as well as for Vietnam’s socio-economic development (Gribble, 2011). Further, this group of returnees have more choices to re-expatriate than returnees from the “export” labour group, as they have a higher level of skills and foreign language proficiency.

4.2.2. Vietnam’s current approach to brain drain

Although the Vietnamese government has recently put in greater effort to encourage Overseas Vietnamese to come back and invest in Vietnam, they have not been as proactive in developing policies to attract Vietnamese overseas graduates and professionals compared to other Asian countries (Dang et al., 2010; Nguyen, 2014).

China, for example, has implemented a wide range of preferential policies to entice Chinese overseas graduates and professionals to return since the 1990s. These policies include the establishment of special development zones and science parks for returnee scholars and scientists, provision of incentives (e.g. housing allowances and better pay), active recruitment of returned international students, and the establishment of a national association of returned students (Saxenian, 2005; Zweig, 2006).

The Vietnamese government has some current policies aimed toward attracting skilled Overseas Vietnamese. For example, Decree No.90/2006/ND-CP allows Vietnamese who are overseas residents to have the right to own a house in Vietnam (The Vietnamese Government, 2006). The Vietnamese Government has also announced visa exemptions for these Overseas Vietnamese who are allowed to stay up to 90 days in Vietnam without need for a visa (The Vietnamese Government, 2007). Since 1 July 2009, Overseas Vietnamese are allowed to have dual citizenships, which means they do not need to renounce their Vietnamese citizenship (Vietnamese National Assembly, 2008). However, the effectiveness of these policies is still being questioned and the procedures to implement these policies are still cumbersome (Dang et al., 2010; Nguyen, 2014).

While there are a few government policies and projects aimed at attracting Overseas Vietnamese to Vietnam, there are lack of and inadequacy of policies aimed at utilising the skills of returnees, including returnee overseas graduates and professionals (Dang et al., 2010). Vietnam still fails to create suitable working conditions for returnees (Nguyen, 2005; Tran et al., 2014). Lack of recognition of their capabilities, poor research facilities, libraries and research environments are major concerns for most

Vietnamese returnee researchers and lecturers (Gribble, 2011; Tran et al., 2014). Returnees also report of being unhappy with life and work in Vietnam due to the bureaucracy in the work environment, low salary and skill un-utilization (Gribble, 2011; Nguyen, 2005; Tran et al., 2014). These issues are critical for the Vietnamese Government to address in order to help returnees settle down and retain them in Vietnam.

4.3. Justification for survey methodology

As demonstrated in the conceptual model (Figure 3.1), this research is premised on empirical data in order to investigate the theoretical relationships or test hypotheses set out in the conceptual framework. Therefore, a quantitative survey methodology approach is needed to test the causal links in the hypotheses.

The quantitative method is largely drawn from the positivist approach which includes deducting hypotheses and testing those hypotheses by analysing empirical data (Blumberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). A quantitative method allows an interpretation of obvious causal hypotheses (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). It also facilitates the generalization of results from samples to populations by gathering information from a large number of people (Blumberg et al., 2011; Creswell, 2009).

Survey methods can be divided into different types based on the multiple ways of administering surveys, such as face-to-face surveys, telephone surveys, self-administered surveys, and online surveys (Blumberg et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2010). Factors to be taken into account in selecting an appropriate survey method include situational characteristics (e.g. budget of available resources, completion time frame, quality requirements for the data), task characteristics (e.g. task difficulty, amount of

information needed, research topic sensitivity), and respondent characteristics (e.g. diversity of respondents, ability to participate and knowledge level of respondents) (Hair et al., 2010). As each of the survey methods has its own strengths and weaknesses, a combination of survey methods is recommended to integrate the best characteristics of each method and to minimise each method's limitations (Aaker et al., 2010). The survey research method selected for the current study was a combination of self-administered surveys and online surveys. The justifications for choosing these survey methods are discussed as follows.

Self-administered survey

A self-administered survey is a method in which respondents read the survey questions and answer the questions without the presence or assistance of a trained interviewer (Hair et al., 2010). Self-administered surveys were selected in this study for the following reasons. First, self-administered surveys are relatively less expensive than person-administered and telephone-administered surveys (Blumberg et al., 2011). More specifically, they provide cost savings when a large sample size is involved, especially when the target respondents are located in different cities and provinces, as was the case for Vietnamese returnees. Second, self-administered surveys can provide respondents with flexible time-frames in which to fill out the questionnaire and think about their replies (Zikmund et al., 2011). Third, self-administered surveys have been found to provide greater anonymity than other methods, which is crucial for the present study (Blumberg et al., 2011). There is evidence that self-administered surveys provide better quality data, especially with regard to sensitive information (Aaker et al., 2010). In this study, I collected information from returnees on their career and life dissatisfaction,

RCS, readjustment, attitudes and expectations from re-expatriation, intentions to re-expatriate and so on. Such information is considered sensitive by most Vietnamese returnees. Therefore, the anonymous nature of self-administered surveys is helpful in this regard (Blumberg et al., 2011).

A major weakness of self-administered surveys is the potential problem of low response rates (Blumberg et al., 2011; Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Further, respondents that are more interested in the subject of the survey are more likely to respond (Blumberg et al., 2011) raising the issue of non-response bias. A low response rate raises the question of whether the characteristics of non-respondents may not be similar to respondents, which may impact the validity of research findings (Kinnear et al., 1993). Therefore, I tried using several ways to increase the response rate for the present study. For example, postage-paid return envelopes were provided to all respondents who would like to complete the survey by mail. In addition, confidential mailboxes were placed in organizations that I had approached and asked respondents to return their completed questionnaires via these boxes. Further, self-administered surveys were combined with online surveys, offering an alternative option for respondents to respond to the questionnaire online. The issues of non-response bias will be discussed further in section 4.4.6.2. The justification for online surveys is discussed in the next section.

Online survey

Online surveys are a form of self-administered survey in which the questionnaire is electronically delivered to and returned by respondents (e.g. by email, website, web forum) (Hair et al., 2010). Similar to self-administered surveys, online surveys can reach a large number of potential respondents regardless of their geographical location,

and are cost effective, especially in terms of savings in the costs for printing and postage (Zikmund et al., 2011). Compared to self-administered surveys, online surveys help researchers to achieve a faster turnaround time, for example by sending reminder messages to potential respondents (Blumberg et al., 2011; Zikmund et al., 2011). Further, responses can be collected automatically into the data analysis software (e.g. SPSS, STATA), which helps to reduce potential data entry errors (Aaker et al., 2010). Online surveys are also visually appealing and interactive as the researcher can use colour, and sound, which may help to motivate respondents' to answer the questionnaires (Zikmund et al., 2011).

Online surveys are suitable in the case of Vietnamese returnees who are located in different organisations and parts of Vietnam. However, most of these returnees are members of the alumni associations of Vietnamese who are overseas graduates of universities in different countries. Most of these associates contact their members via email, Facebook or web pages. Thus, online surveys can help the author access respondents who come from different organisations and areas in Vietnam.

A major limitation of online surveys is related to their representative sampling (Malhotra et al., 2002). However, this limitation was reduced in the present study, as care was taken in approaching and selecting appropriate samples (see Section 4.5). Further, online surveys may involve security concerns because respondents may worry whether their personal information is kept confidential (Zikmund et al., 2011). For this study, Survey Monkey, a research service supplier specialising in online surveys, was used. This supplier has developed password-protected systems that are very secure for respondents, thus eliminating this limitation.

In summary, the current study selected a combination of self-administered surveys and online surveys due to their advantages compared to other survey methods. This combination helped the researcher to integrate the advantages of these two methods and minimize their disadvantages. The combination also allowed the researcher to achieve a greater response rate and was deemed appropriate for this study.

4.4. Questionnaire design and administration

This section reveals how the survey questionnaire was designed, developed and administered. The following sub-sections will discuss each step in the questionnaire design and administration, including: 1) specification of the data needed, 2) operationalisation of the constructs, 3) drafting of the questionnaire, 4) review and pre-test of the questionnaire, 5) assessment of the reliability and validity of the measures and 6) response strategy.

4.4.1. Specification of the data needed

This first essential step in the questionnaire design and administration is the determination of the required data (Frazer & Lawley, 2000). Identifying the required data needs is based on the research questions or hypotheses (Frazer & Lawley, 2000). Chapter 3 developed a number of hypotheses related to pull-push factors, re-entry factors and the three predictors of the TPB. In the conceptual framework (Figure 3.1), the dependent variable was intention to re-expatriate. The independent variables included career outcomes, non-career outcomes life dissatisfaction, career dissatisfaction, community embeddedness, career embeddedness, RCS, cross-cultural readjustment and the three predictors of the TPB (attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control). Hence, the data to be collected

would need to include measures of above variables in order to test the hypotheses developed in Chapter 3. The next section will discuss the issues related to how to define the above variables into measurable factors (referred to as the operationalisation of constructs).

4.4.2. Operationalisation of constructs

Chapter 3 conceptualised the constructs examined in this study. This section focuses on the operationalisation of the constructs. The operationalisation of constructs is the process of strictly defining variables into measurable factors by specifying the operations and activities necessary to measure that construct (Hair et al., 2010; Neuman, 2014). Thus, a construct can be operationalised by selecting its measurement scale items and scale type (Hair et al., 2010). All other constructs in the current study adopted existing scales from prior research in human resource management, management, migration and psychology literature. This study selected and adopted the most appropriate measures with the following criteria:

- (1) Multi-item measures (e.g. at least three items) were employed as advised by many researchers (e.g. Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Using multi-item measures helps reduce measurement error (Churchill, 1979; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011) and increases the reliability of the measures (Churchill, 1979).
- (2) The scales in past research with good internal validity and reliability were adopted (Malhotra et al., 2002). This study only adopted scales that had an internal consistent coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) higher than 0.7.

(3) Some minor modifications of existing scales were made to suit the context of the current study in an emerging market. Significant modifications or adding new items to extant measures pose increased risks for the reliability and validity of these measures which required extensive pre-testing (Furr, 2011). Therefore, apart from using the extant measurement, very small changes were made in wording to fit with the Vietnamese language. This study uses established measures without combining items of other measures or adding new items for most constructs. There are two exceptions including expected outcomes for re-expatriation and intention to re-expatriate. This study combined the three items used by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) with other two new items to measure returnees' the intentions to re-expatriate. Further, expected outcomes from re-expatriation were also developed by combining items from different sources.

Additionally, seven-point scales were used to operationalise most constructs (excepting demographic variables). Appendix 1 represents a summary of the measurement of key constructs, including original measures, sources of scales and measures used in this study. The following sections will discuss the measurement scales for all constructs investigated in this study.

4.4.2.1. Career embeddedness

Home-country career embeddedness measures the extent to which returnees are embedded in their career in their home country. As specified in the operational definition, this study adopted a nine-item scales measured career embeddedness from Tharenou and Caulfield (2010). Of the nine items, three items measure the career sacrifices that returnees would make if they re-expatriate and were scored on a 7-point

Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*to a very great extent*). Four items measure career fit which was scored on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Two items measure career links, including tenure with the current employer (a seven-point item) and permanency of the job (a three-point item). The final score of career embeddedness was calculated by averaging the standardized score as the items have different response categories. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) reported the alpha internal consistency reliability of 0.78 computed for career embeddedness.

4.4.2.2. Community embeddedness

Community embeddedness measures the extent to which returnees are embedded in their community in their home country. For this construct measure, a twelve-item scales measured community embeddedness was adopted from Tharenou and Caulfield (2010). Of the twelve items, three items measure the community sacrifices that returnees would make if they re-expatriate and were scored on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*to a very great extent*). Three items measure community fit and were scored on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Six items measure community links as follows: two items (*My close friends live nearby*; *My family roots are in the community I live in*) were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*); and four items, including having children (*a three-point item*), having a partner (*a two-point item*), partner's place of birth (*a two-point item*) and partner's citizenship (*a three-point item*). The final score of career embeddedness was calculated by averaging the standardized score as the items have different response categories. Community embeddedness had the alpha internal-consistency alpha coefficient of 0.74 in the study by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010).

4.4.2.3. Cross-cultural readjustment

Cross-cultural readjustment measures returnees' adjustment to their work, social interaction with others and the general environment in their home country. This study used a fourteen-item scale adopted from Black and Gregersen's (1991b) repatriation adjustment scale to measure cross-cultural readjustment. Four items measure interaction readjustment, three items measure work readjustment and seven items measure general environment readjustment. All of these items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*not adjusted at all*) to 7 (*very well adjusted*). Previous researchers (Black, 1994; Black & Gregersen, 1991b) reported the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliabilities of 0.96, 0.94 and 0.85 computed for work readjustment, interaction readjustment and general environment readjustment, respectively.

4.4.2.4. Reverse culture shock

RCS measures the level of emotional and psychological difficulties experienced by individuals who return home after a significant period living in another culture. For this construct measure, all 16 items were adopted from the re-entry shock scale of Seiter and Waddell (1989) and were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), for which higher scores indicate higher level of RCS. This scale was developed based on previous culture shock and RCS studies (e.g. Austin, 1989; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Kerner & Grossman, 2001; Martin, 1984; Uehara, 1986). Seiter and Waddell (1989) reported that the re-entry shock scale had a Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability of 0.83.

4.4.2.5. Life dissatisfaction

Life dissatisfaction measures the degree of returnees' dissatisfaction with their life after returning home. For measuring this construct, all five items were adopted from the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) of Diener et al. (2007) and were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). I recorded the scores making higher scores indicate a higher level of dissatisfaction. Previous studies (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Diener et al., 1985) have indicated good internal consistency reliability with reported Cronbach's alphas ranging from 0.79 to 0.89.

4.4.2.6. Career dissatisfaction

Career dissatisfaction measures the degree of returnees' dissatisfaction with their career after returning home. For measuring this construct, all five items were adopted from the career satisfaction of Greenhaus et al. (1990) and were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). I recorded the scores making higher scores indicate higher level of dissatisfaction. Previous studies (Cerdin & Le Pargneux, 2014; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Ren et al., 2013) showed good internal consistency reliability with reported Cronbach's alphas ranging from 0.85 to 0.89.

4.4.2.7. Expected outcomes from re-expatriation

This construct measures pull forces from the host country and includes 12 items representing a range of benefits that returnees expect to gain from re-expatriation. These items were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*completely not expect*) to 7 (*completely expect*). Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) have developed scales to measure expected outcomes from repatriation, however, they have used them to explain why

returnees repatriate to their home country which is a developed country. Therefore, the researcher revises these constructs to meet with this study's research context. As a result, this study adopted five items from Tharenou and Caulfield (2010), three items from Thorn (2009), two items from Tung (2007), one item from Zweig (1997), and one item from the OECD (2009). As this construct is not fully validated by the literature, it is subject to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

4.4.2.8. Attitude toward re-expatriation

Attitude toward re-expatriation measures a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of re-expatriation. For measuring this construct, this study adopted four items, on which the adjectives were "pleasant-unpleasant", "unfavourable-favourable", "annoying-nice" and "good-bad" from Van der Vlist et al.'s (2004) attitude toward behaviour. The first and fourth items were reverse-scored. This scale had reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.92. These items were originally measured on 7-point scales in a bipolar fashion (e.g., from - 3 to +3). However, negative numeric scales can lead to a risk that data will be positively skewed as respondents are less likely to choose low-end responses (e.g. -3) (Fuchs, 2005; Schwarz et al., 1991). Therefore, the 4 items in this scale were scored from 1 to 7 points. Van der Vlist et al. (2004) reported the Cronbach's alpha was 0.92 for this construct.

4.4.2.9. Subjective norm

This measure captures a returnee's perception or opinion about whether important others think he or she should engage in re-expatriation. For this construct measure, all three items were adopted from Park and Smith (2013) and were scored on a 7-point

Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Park and Smith (2013) reported the Cronbach's alpha of 0.73 for this construct.

4.4.2.10. Perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control is conceptualised as returnees' perception of the ease or difficulty of re-expatriating. Perceived behavioural control can be measured by self-efficacy items (ease or difficulty of performing a behaviour) and controllability items (beliefs about the extent to which performing the behaviour is up to the actor) (Ajzen, 2006). Reviewing recent studies on perceived behavioural control, Ajzen (2006) found that the direct measures of this construct which incorporate both self-efficacy and controllability items significantly improved prediction of intentions. Therefore, a four-items scale was adopted from Conner and McMillan (2011) to measure returnees' perceived behavioural control toward re-expatriation with reported the Cronbach's alpha of 0.90. This scale has two self-efficacy items and two controllability items which were scored on a semantic differential (summated rating) scale with 7-points from 1 to 7.

4.4.2.11. Intentions to re-expatriate

In the literature of global mobility, intention has been measured by either asking individuals whether they intend or plan to do an action (e.g. Baruch et al., 2007; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) or asking individuals whether they will or they are likely to do an action (e.g. De Cieri et al., 2009; Güngör & Tansel, 2008). The first case refers to behavioural intention (person's plans to perform an action) and the latter is defined as behavioural expectation (person's estimated likelihood of performing the action) (Warshaw & Davis, 1985). Although some researchers have argued the different role of

behavioural intention and behavioural expectation in explaining actual behaviours, intentions to re-expatriation includes items from both constructs to measure intentions to re-expatriate to reduce common method bias. Three behavioural intention items were adopted from Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) and two behavioural expectation items were self-developed. All five items were scored a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) reported the alpha internal consistence for their intention construct (three behavioural intention items) of 0.88.

4.4.2.12. Control variables

This study controlled for tenure in the returnee's current organization, as an individual who has worked for an organization for a longer period becomes more embedded in that organization and is less likely to re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Age was controlled as younger returnees may be more likely to re-expatriate. This study also controlled for children as returnees who have children (scored at 1) may differ from those who do not (scored at 0) in terms of intention to re-expatriate. Further, this study controlled for relevant overseas work experience in order to determine if there were differences between returnees who had overseas work experience (scored at 1) and returnees without this experience (scored at 0).

4.4.3. Drafting the questionnaire

After the operationalisation of the constructs, a draft of the questionnaire was developed for this study. Care was taken with a variety of issues related to questionnaire design, such as instructions and words. Specifically, instructions on how to answer the survey questions were clear and precise at the beginning of the questionnaire and of each

section where necessary to reduce respondents' confusion. There was a statement emphasising that all responses would be reported in an aggregate form. Each question was phrased simply and of a suitable length, and familiar and conversational language was used to avoid ambiguity (Zikmund et al., 2011). The major sections were presented in a logical sequence to make it easier for respondents to complete the questionnaire.

Table 4.1: Questionnaire structure and content

Section	Issues covered
Home-country embeddedness	Assessment of returnees' perceptions of their embeddedness in their career and community since their return to live in Vietnam.
Cross-cultural readjustment	Assessment of the returnees' level of adjustment back to general living, work and interactions with nationals when they returned from abroad and re-entered Vietnamese society and work.
Home-country dissatisfaction	Assessment of the level of dissatisfaction among returnees with regard to their life and work in Vietnam after returning from abroad.
Returnees' point of view toward re-expatriation	Assessment of returnees' attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.
Expected outcomes from re-expatriation	Assessment of returnees' perception of outcomes they may expect to gain from going overseas again.
Intention to re-expatriate	Assessment of the level of returnees' intention to re-expatriate.
Demographics	This section includes returnees' demographics which are divided into four categories: Returnees' background (e.g. gender, age, length of time spend abroad, length of time since returning, overseas work experiences and which country they returned from); Overseas studies (e.g. highest qualification, broad area of studies overseas, sources of funding for their overseas studies and conditions of their scholarship); Current work life (e.g. tenure with current company, occupation types, company types, permanency of the job, and the industry types that they are currently working for); Family life (e.g. marital status, number of children, nationality of partner/spouse).

The questionnaire was structured as follows. First, the introduction to this researcher and the research project topic, and instructions on how to answer the questionnaire were provided in the information sheet. This was followed by six major sections with prominent headings and relevant instructions were provided where necessary. The questionnaire concluded with a thank-you note to the respondents for their participation and contribution to the study. The structure of the questionnaire is shown in Table 4.1.

4.4.4. Review and pre-testing of questionnaire

Before pre-testing the questionnaire, a review of the survey instrument was undertaken. First, the questionnaire was evaluated and screened by three academic researchers who are experts in the field of study. Based on the comments and suggestions from these experts, the questionnaire was then revised. To ensure semantic equivalence, the questionnaire was then translated into the Vietnamese language by this researcher and the translation was cross-checked by a professional translator. The Vietnamese version was back-translated into English by a bilingual translator and was checked against the English version to ensure consistency between the two versions. After that, a pre-test of the questionnaire on a small group of target respondents was conducted (Malhotra et al., 2002). The purposes of pre-testing the questionnaire include:

- (1) To ensure that the questionnaire meets the expectations about the information needed to be collected (Aaker et al., 2010);
- (2) To discover and eliminate possible errors (Malhotra et al., 2002);

(3) To ensure that respondents understand the questions correctly, and whether any further instructions and information should be included (Zikmund et al., 2011); and

(4) To determine the average length of time that it would take potential respondents to fill and complete the questionnaire (Aaker et al., 2010).

The questionnaire was pre-tested in a pilot study with 20 returnees in Vietnam in June 2013. The respondents were invited to participate in the pilot study by using a hard copy questionnaire. In addition to the completion of the proposed questionnaire, pre-test respondents were asked to provide comments and feedback on the instructions, structure and appearance (e.g. layout, font size), and wording of the questionnaire (e.g. any unclear questions, any questions that can be interpreted in more ways than one). Pre-test respondents were also asked to indicate the amount of time it took them to complete the questionnaire. Based on the evaluation and comments and feedback from pre-test respondents, a few changes were made to the proposed questionnaire. For example, instructions on how to answer the questions were revised as they were too long and caused confusion among pre-test respondents. The wording of some questions were modified to remove ambiguities as the pre-test respondents claimed that they were difficult to understand or interpret. Due to these changes, the 20 pre-test respondents were not included for further data analysis in the main study. The final version of survey questionnaire (in both English and Vietnamese) is presented in Appendix 3.2.

4.4.5. Assessment of reliability and validity of measures

As constructs are usually ambiguous, diffuse and not observable, reliability and validity need to be considered to establish the trustworthiness, credibility and accuracy of the measures and of the research findings (Neuman, 2014).

4.4.5.1. Reliability

Reliability refers to the stability and consistency of a measurement procedure (Blumberg et al., 2011). A measure is reliable to the degree that it supplies consistent results and is free from random or unstable errors (Blumberg et al., 2011; Neuman, 2014).

In the present study, following the recommendations in Churchill (1979) and Newman (2014), reliability was increased by clearly conceptualising all constructs, using multiple indicators of a construct, and using pilot studies. First, unambiguous and clear theoretical definitions of the constructs involved in this study were developed. Second, all measurement scales to measure constructs were operationalised by using multiple indicators or items. Multiple items of the same construct are better than one because multiple items can measure different aspects of the construct, and tend to be more stable, reliable and reduce measurement errors (Neuman, 2014). Third, the survey instrument was pre-tested, piloted and carefully modified prior to the main study, as discussed in Section 5.3.4.

To test the reliability of measures in terms of statistics, Cronbach's alpha calculations were used, as recommended by Churchill (1979) and Hair et al. (2010). The coefficient value of Cronbach's alpha ranges from 0 to 1, and a coefficient alpha value of at least

0.6 (for exploratory research) and 0.7 (for other research) can be considered reliable (Malhotra et al., 2002; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994)). In this study, all constructs obtained a Cronbach's alpha of higher than 0.7, and a detailed assessment and discussion of the reliability by using Cronbach's alpha is presented in Section 5.5 of Chapter 5.

4.4.5.2. Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which a scale measures what it is intended to measure (Blumberg et al., 2011). Three major forms of validity include content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Blumberg et al., 2011; Neuman, 2014). First, content validity is the extent to which the content of a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of its definition (Malhotra et al., 2002). To increase the content validity for the present study, the items/indicators used to measure the constructs were adopted following an extensive review of the related literature. Additionally, the survey questionnaire was reviewed through discussions with experts in the field of study, a pilot study was used to pre-test the survey, and the questionnaire was amended based on the comments and suggestions of pre-test respondents. Second, criterion validity reflects the extent to which a measure is used for prediction or estimation (Blumberg et al., 2011). The criterion validity was assessed in the present study through using the correlation matrix between the proposed constructs, which is discussed in Section 5.5 and Appendix 9. Finally, construct validity is a type of measurement validity that uses multiple items/indicators, and there are two types: convergent validity (e.g. how well the items of one construct converge) and discriminant validity (e.g. how well the items of different constructs diverge) (Neuman, 2014). For the current study, construct

validity is evaluated by using statistical data analysis, which is discussed in Section 5.5 of Chapter 5.

4.4.6. Response strategy

In addition to offering a choice of self-administered surveys and online surveys to achieve a better response rate, a variety of strategies was applied in order to address response behaviour and reduce response and non-response bias for this study.

4.4.6.1. Response behaviour

Three major strategies were used to increase respondents' willingness to participate and respond, including: minimise respondent costs, provide motivation to respondents, and build trust with respondents (Blumberg et al., 2011; Neuman, 2014).

First, to minimise respondent costs, the questionnaire was designed in a way that would make it be easy for respondents to answer. The amount of time taken to complete the survey questionnaire was kept at a reasonable level, and was confined to approximately 15-20 minutes during the pre-test of the survey. Respondents may refuse to answer due to the sensitivity of the questions (Blumberg et al., 2011), thus the use of sensitive questions was kept at a minimum in this study.

Second, to motivate respondents to respond, the importance of the research study and the importance of respondents' assistance in the current study were emphasised in the introduction to the survey (information sheet – see Appendix 3.1). Further, a summary report of the final results of the present study was offered to respondents upon request.

Finally, to establish trust with the respondents, the importance of the research study and an assurance of anonymity and confidentiality were emphasised in the information sheet of the survey. Additionally, the perceived legitimacy through naming this researcher's university as the sponsor for this study in the information sheet may have built trust and enhanced the response rate (Blumberg et al., 2011; Zikmund et al., 2011).

4.4.6.2. Response and non-response bias

Response bias occurs when a significant number of respondents “misunderstand the questions, unconsciously misrepresent or deliberately falsify their responses” (Hair et al., 2008, p.190). Response bias may be due to ambiguities in the questions that confuse respondents include social desirability (e.g. responses based on what respondents perceive as being socially acceptable), mental set error (e.g. responses influenced by previous responses) and acquiescence (e.g. responses influenced by the perception of what would be desirable from the sponsor) (Hair et al., 2008). In the present study, efforts were made to reduce response bias. For example, a pre-test of the questionnaire was undertaken to ensure that respondents were not confused by or did not misinterpret the questions. The emphasis on anonymity and confidentiality was clearly included in the information sheet of the survey.

Additionally, non-response bias may occur in survey research because of the likelihood of differences between responses obtained from the survey and responses of those who did not respond (Armstrong & Overton, 1977; Malhotra et al., 2002). The most common way to reduce non-response bias is to increase response rate (Cooper & Schindler, 2011), which was discussed in previous section above. In addition, as several scholars (e.g. Armstrong & Overton, 1977; Chi & Sun, 2013; Lambert & Harrington, 1990) have

suggested, late respondents are more like non-respondents. Therefore, the study compared the early 50 responses with the late 50 responses. Independent samples t-test was used to compare means of all variables between the two groups (early respondents versus late respondents).

Table 4.2 represents Levene's test of equality of variances between two samples. Levene's test of equality of variances was first examined to check whether there was an equality of variances between the two groups (Buglear, 2005). If Levene's test results are significant ($p < 0.05$), the equal variances not assumed in SPSS output will be used for t-test results of the differences between the two groups. As all the results of Levene's test for equality of variances for all variables were not significant at 0.05 levels, the equal variances were found for these variables. Therefore, the equal variances assumed in SPSS output was used for t-test results of the differences between the two groups. The results indicated that the differences are statistically non-significant for all variables (see Table 4.2). Therefore, non-response bias was not problematic in this study.

Further, the study also tested whether there was a significant difference between responses received online and responses received via the paper survey. Independent samples t-test was also used to compare means of variables between the two groups. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between these two groups for all variables (see Table 4.3), implying that responses received online are the same as responses received via the paper survey.

Table 4.2: T-test results of late and early responses

		Early response (N = 50)	Late response (N = 50)	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
Intention to re-expatriate	Mean	3.78	3.82	1.95	0.17	-0.15	98.00	0.88
	SD	1.23	1.4					
Family outcome	Mean	6.21	6.09	0.10	0.75	0.76	98.00	0.45
	SD	0.8	0.87					
Career outcome	Mean	5.32	5.25	0.02	0.89	0.40	98.00	0.69
	SD	0.94	0.88					
Life dissatisfaction	Mean	5.64	5.3	0.00	0.99	0.95	98.00	0.34
	SD	1.77	1.74					
Career dissatisfaction	Mean	4.64	4.31	1.13	0.29	1.05	98.00	0.30
	SD	1.66	1.5					
Community embeddedness	Mean	-0.01	0.09	0.05	0.83	-0.79	98.00	0.43
	SD	0.57	0.61					
Career embeddedness	Mean	0.04	0.11	1.94	0.17	-0.55	98.00	0.59
	SD	0.65	0.58					
RCS	Mean	3.67	3.82	0.25	0.62	-0.56	98.00	0.58
	SD	1.39	1.32					
Interaction readjustment	Mean	5.79	5.69	0.04	0.84	0.47	98.00	0.64
	SD	1.05	1.17					
Work readjustment	Mean	5.3	5.37	0.27	0.60	-0.27	98.00	0.79
	SD	1.24	1.21					
General readjustment	Mean	5.19	5.11	0.15	0.70	0.39	98.00	0.70
	SD	1.12	1.1					
Attitude toward re- expatriation	Mean	5.28	5.21	1.63	0.21	0.37	98.00	0.71
	SD	0.9	1.11					
Subjective norm	Mean	4.18	4.35	0.44	0.51	-0.57	98.00	0.57
	SD	1.49	1.57					
Perceived behavioural control	Mean	4.33	4.43	0.51	0.48	-0.40	98.00	0.69
	SD	1.3	1.22					

Table 4.3: T-test results of paper and online responses

		Paper response (N = 97)	Online response (N = 336)	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means		
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.2-tailed
Intention to re-expatriate	Mean	3.6	3.62	0.48	0.49	-0.11	431	0.91
	SD	1.26	1.33					
Family outcome	Mean	6.13	6.08	0.44	0.507	0.51	431	0.608
	SD	0.75	0.81					
Career outcome	Mean	5.4	5.25	2.48	0.116	1.43	431	0.153
	SD	0.81	0.94					
Life dissatisfaction	Mean	5.6	5.36	4.97	0.026	1.34	183.23	0.181
	SD	1.46	1.76					
Career dissatisfaction	Mean	4.32	4.24	4.52	0.034	0.55	178.38	0.585
	SD	1.34	1.57					
Community embeddedness	Mean	0.09	-0.03	0.26	0.607	1.64	431	0.101
	SD	0.6	0.66					
Career embeddedness	Mean	0.07	-0.02	6.71	0.01	1.56	189.93	0.121
	SD	0.48	0.6					
RCS	Mean	3.52	3.73	2.03	0.154	-1.35	431	0.177
	SD	1.18	1.34					
Interaction readjustment	Mean	5.88	5.68	10.02	0.002	1.62	195.8	0.107
	SD	0.96	1.23					
Work readjustment	Mean	5.3	5.23	3.43	0.065	0.52	431	0.602
	SD	1.15	1.3					
General readjustment	Mean	5.12	5.06	0.11	0.74	0.49	431	0.626
	SD	1.16	1.2					
Attitude toward re-expatriation	Mean	5.31	5.29	0	0.977	0.15	431	0.878
	SD	0.92	0.94					
Subjective norm	Mean	4.08	4.24	0.33	0.564	-0.9	431	0.369
	SD	1.52	1.57					
Perceived behavioural control	Mean	4.33	4.24	2.62	0.106	0.66	431	0.507
	SD	1.15	1.27					

4.5. Sampling strategy

This section discusses the sampling strategy applied in this study. Sampling is the process of selecting a small set of cases from a large population to draw a conclusion about the population (Neuman, 2014; Zikmund et al., 2011). The following sub-sections will discuss the sampling methods, selection of participants and data collection procedure.

4.5.1. Sampling methods

This study employs purposive sampling. Purposive sampling (or judgmental sampling) refers to the use of a non-probability sample where all possible cases are selected by using various methods according to the researchers' judgment (Neuman, 2014; Quinlan, 2011). There are two reasons for choosing purposive sampling. First, purposive sampling can be applied when there is no publicly available listing of potential participants (Neuman, 2014). In this study, it was not possible to obtain the full name list and contact details of every returnee from professional associations or other sources. Once the name list is not complete, a random sampling is unrealistic (Quinlan, 2011). Second, purposive sampling is an appropriate technique when the target population is very specific and difficult to reach, as was the case in this research study.

4.5.2. Selection of participants

Vietnamese returnees who met following criteria were chosen for this study:

- (1) Was born in Vietnam and is currently a Vietnamese nationality;

- (2) Is currently a professional who is working in a profession;
- (3) Has studied and/or worked abroad for at least one year.

The longer the returnees had been away from their home country, the more significant the foreign experiences the returnees had (Begley et al., 2008; Szkudlarek, 2010) and the more they faced uncertainties on re-entry (Black, 1994). The length of time spent overseas is significantly associated with returnees' re-entry experiences (e.g. cross-cultural readjustment and RCS) (Black, 1994). This study examines returnees' motivation to re-expatriate, which encountered their re-entry experiences (Tharenou, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Therefore, this study only focuses on examining returnees who have significant foreign experiences (where the length of time spent abroad was at least one year or more).

4.5.3. Data collection procedure

Data collection was conducted from August 2013 to December 2013. Data collection was conducted in a manner to ensure the interests of the respondents were protected. This study was approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (project number of 6037 – See Appendix 2). The following describes the procedure for data collection in this study.

The researcher approached the human resource departments of various companies and organizations, including some universities, research institutes and large foreign companies. These organizations were asked to send emails with a link to this study's survey questionnaire or directly distribute the questionnaire on paper with an envelope to target respondents. Once the paper questionnaires were completed, the respondents

returned them to confidential mailboxes which were placed in the organizations. The researcher collected 107 respondents from these sources, using non-social media methods. Of these, there were 43 responses (40%) received electronically via email, and the remaining 64 responses (60%) on paper were returned via the organizations. This gives an approximate response rate of 80% for the paper responses and 40% for the electronic responses which is well above the benchmark of 35–40 percent as suggested by Baruch and Holtom (2008).

The majority of this study's sample, however, were collected from the alumni associations of Vietnamese who are overseas graduates of universities in different countries (N= 423 respondents) using mainly social media. The researcher directly approached the presidents/ vice presidents/ administrators of those alumni and asked them to post the link to the survey questionnaire on their group's Facebook pages/web sites or via email, depending on what communication channels were available. It is impossible to determine the response rate for the overall sample from all these associations due to not knowing who accessed the Facebook, websites or emails during the survey. Further, these associations did not have information about whether their members meet the requirement of target respondents for this study (e.g. returnees must have at least one-year overseas study or work).

4.6. Sample profiles

Out of a total of 530 surveys received, 72 questionnaires were removed as they had missing data for important constructs. Six reverse worded questions were used to check response sets (see section 5.2.1 for more details). By screening the reverse questions, 25 questionnaires involving response sets were detected and removed from the sample.

Finally, 433 responses were retained for further analysis. Sample profiles are divided into four categories, including: backgrounds, overseas studies, current work life and family life, which will be discussed in the following sections.

With regard to respondents' backgrounds, of the 433 returnees, two-thirds were between 26 and 35 years of age and 57% were female. Two-thirds of returnees had lived abroad for between 1 to 3 years and the overwhelming majority of respondents (81%) had returned to Vietnam within the past five years. Almost three-quarters of returnees (73%) did not have experience working overseas while only a very small minority (3 returnees) had overseas working experience without having studied abroad. Nearly two-thirds (61%) of returnees had returned from Australia, United Kingdom or the United States and the rest from other countries, such as France, Japan, New Zealand, Singapore, Taiwan and China. The details of the respondents' backgrounds are presented in Table 4.4.

In terms of the overseas studies, 15% of respondents had a bachelor's degree, 72% had a master's degree and 11% had a doctorate from overseas studies. The popular broad areas of overseas studies includes: accounting or finance (32%), business management (15%) and applied science or engineering (15%). A third of the respondents (33%) held government scholarships that required them return to their home country or previous organization (similar to AEs), 66% were self-funded or scholarship holders who had no these obligations (similar to SIEs), with the mix of AEs and SIEs among the returnees illustrated in Figure 2.2 of Chapter 2. The details of respondents' overseas studies are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.4: Respondents' background

A. BACKGROUND				A. BACKGROUND				
		N	Percent		N	Percent		
1. Gender	Male	185	43%	5. Length of time since returning Vietnam	< 1 year	152	35%	
	Female	248	57%		1 to 2 years	64	15%	
	Total	433	100%		2 to 3 years	48	11%	
2. Age	20-25	52	12%		3 to 4 years	43	10%	
	26-30	147	34%		4 to 5 years	44	10%	
	31-35	158	37%		> 5 years	82	19%	
	36-40	62	14%		Total	433	100%	
	Over 40	14	3%		6. Returned from	Australia	143	33%
	Total	433	100%			United Kingdom	72	17%
3. Length of time overseas	1 to 2 years	233	54%			USA	47	11%
	2 to 3 years	64	15%	France		36	8%	
	3 to 4 years	41	9%	Japan		24	6%	
	4 to 5 years	41	9%	New Zealand		17	4%	
	> 5 years	54	12%	Singapore		16	4%	
	Total	433	100%	Taiwan		12	3%	
	6. Overseas work experiences	Yes	119	27%		China	10	2%
No		314	73%	Other		46	11%	
Total		433	100%	Missing	10	2%		
				Total	433	100%		

Table 4.5: Respondents' overseas studies

B. OVERSEAS STUDIES		N	%	B. OVERSEAS STUDIES		N	%
1. Overseas qualification	Bachelor's degree	66	15%	3. Source of funding for overseas studies	Self-funded	121	28%
	Masters degree or postgraduate diploma	311	72%		Vietnamese government scholarship	61	14%
	Ph.D or doctorate	48	11%		Overseas government scholarship	217	50%
	Missing	8	2%		Other scholarship	31	7%
	Total	433	100%		Missing	3	1%
2. Broad area of overseas studies	Accounting or Finance	140	32%	Total	433	100%	
	Business management	67	15%	4. Obligation to return to Vietnam after graduation (required by scholarship)	Yes	143	33%
	Economics	29	7%		No (include self-funded students)	287	66%
	Social science	28	6%		Missing	3	1%
	Humanities and arts	28	6%		Total	433	100%
	Natural science including health	37	9%				
	Applied science or engineering	67	15%				
	Others	18	4%				
	Missing	19	4%				
	Total	433	100%				

With regard to the respondents' current work life, two-thirds of them had worked with their current employers for 5 years or less. They had worked for different types of companies and 74% of them had permanent jobs. About one-third of returnees were financial/accounting professionals, one-third was lecturers/researchers, 16% were professional managers, and 19% were other professionals. Nearly one-third of returnees

(28%) worked in financial services and 29% worked in the education industry. Table 4.6 shows the respondents' current work life.

Table 4.6: Respondents' current work life

C. CURRENT WORK LIFE		N	Percent	C. CURRENT WORK LIFE		N	Percent	
1. Tenure with the current employer	< 2 years	154	36%	4. Occupation type	Financial/Accounting professional	139	33%	
	2 to 5 years	128	30%		Entrepreneur	15	4%	
	5 to 10 years	101	23%		Management	67	16%	
	10 to 15 years	44	10%		Scientist	12	3%	
	> 15 years	6	1%		Engineer	21	5%	
	Total	433	100%		Lecturer	120	28%	
2. Company type	Domestic privately owned firm	73	17%		Researcher	23	5%	
	International joint venture	18	4%		Other	36	8%	
	Foreign owned firm	94	22%		Total	433	100%	
	State – owned enterprises	22	5%		5. Industry	Manufacturing/Industrial	23	5%
	Government or public organization	78	18%			Commercial	30	7%
	University or research institute	129	30%	Auditing/Accounting Services		22	5%	
Others	19	4%	Banking/Financial Services	121		28%		
Total	433	100%	Education	124		29%		
3. Permanency of the job	Casual	14	3%	Health Service	16	4%		
	Contract	98	23%	IT	19	4%		
	Permanent	321	74%	Other	78	18%		
	Total	433	100%	Total	433	100%		

In relation to the respondents' family life, 66% were married, and 51% had children. Only a minority of returnees (3%) had an overseas-born partner and 3% had partners who had dual citizenships or were citizens of another country. The details of the respondents' family life are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Respondents' family life

D. FAMILY LIFE		N	Percent	D. FAMILY LIFE		N	Percent
1. Marital status	No	146	34%	3. Partner's place of birth	Vietnam	282	97%
	yes	287	66%		Other	8	3%
	Total	433	100%		Total	290	100%
2. Number of children	No Children	210	49%	4. Partner's citizenship	Vietnamese	281	97%
	1 Child	122	28%		Dual citizenship	2	1%
	2 Children	97	22%		Only another country's citizenship	7	2%
	3 or More	4	1%		Total	290	100%
	Total	433	100%				

4.7. Data analysis strategy

Due to the complexity of the causal relationships between the re-expatriation intention and its antecedents, SEM with path analysis was employed in order to empirically test the theoretical model. Path analysis is a subset of SEM and an extension of multiple regression analysis, which is a statistical technique used to estimate the hypothesised (causal) relationships between two or more variables (Lleras, 2005). One of the advantages of path analysis is that this technique is particularly suitable to test an entire model simultaneously and to estimate the direct and indirect causal effects of observed variables as indicated in the hypotheses of the current study (Kline, 2011). This technique helps researchers to examine the relationships by giving a more

comprehensive perspective rather than isolating each pair of relationships (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001). Further, path analysis allows the researcher to find out which causal model hypothesised by the researcher best fit with the data (Lleras, 2005). In order to test the model using the path analysis method, data analysis was carried out by using SPSS 20, AMOS 20 and LISREL 9.1 programs.

4.8. Chapter summary

This chapter has provided the context for this study, and presented and justified the survey methodology used. A justification for combining both self-administered surveys and web-based surveys was provided. Steps taken in the design and administration of the questionnaire were explained in detail. The sampling strategies, including sampling method, selection of participants and data collection procedure, were also presented. Finally, the sample profile was briefly described and data analysis methods were also justified. In the next chapter, the collected data will be analysed and discussed.

Chapter 5: Analysis of Survey Data

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the survey methodology used to collect the data. This chapter reports on the results of the survey data collected. Particularly, this chapter discusses how the data is prepared, examined and analysed to address the research problems.

This chapter begins with data preparation including checking data entry, the treatment of missing data, identifying outliers and assessing data normality (section 5.2). Next are the measurement models for all constructs (section 5.3). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is applied to validate the constructs used in this study as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Outcomes expected from re-expatriation and RCS are exceptions, which were subject to both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA. The new constructs were then checked for normality (section 5.4) and validity (section 5.5). Common method bias was discussed in section 5.6. The results from SEM path analysis are presented to test the proposed hypotheses developed in Chapter 3 (section 5.7). A further analysis was also conducted to test whether the impacts of factors on the intention are different between the two groups of returnees (returnees having an obligation to return their home country or previous organization versus returnees not having this obligation) (section 5.8). Finally, section 5.9 presents the summary of this chapter.

5.2. Data preparation

Data preparation is a process that ensures the data collected in this study is translated into a form that is suitable for data analysis. Particularly, data preparation allows the

researcher to address potential problems relating to data entry errors, missing values, outliers and distribution issues (Coakes, Steed, & Ong, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). This process is essential for structural equation modelling because if a researcher does not carefully prepare and screen the data, incorrect conclusions about survey estimations can arise (Kline, 2011). The process also helps a researcher to gain certain critical insights into data characteristics and analysis (Hair et al., 2010). The following subsections will discuss the process of data preparation for this study, which includes checking data entry and identifying unreliable questionnaires, treatment of missing data, identifying outliers and assessing data normality.

5.2.1. Checking data entry

The majority of respondents were collected via the online survey tool, Survey Monkey, which allows the data to be exported electronically to SPSS. Therefore, data entry errors were minimal because an internet survey does not require manual data entry. However, sixty-four paper responses were collected, and they may have contained data entry errors. In order to ensure the accuracy of the data input, a double check was performed. First, all entries were verified on a case by case basis. Second, descriptive statistics, including frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation were conducted. For example, by using frequency distribution, the researcher found that some cases had responses that were not within the 7-point Likert range. The researcher checked the paper responses and re-input the data for these cases.

Additionally, the researcher also checked for response sets (the tendency for a respondent to answer a series of questions in a certain way regardless of their content) through using reverse worded items. In this study, the survey questionnaire had some

questions that were worded in the reverse, including questions 1 and 4 in part D1, question 2 in part D3, and questions 2 and 4 in part F (see Appendix 3.2). These questions must have an opposite response scale compared to other questions in the same part. For example, if a respondent chose 6 (*Agree*) for question 1 in part F (I intend to go abroad to live for a long period) and also chose 6 (*Agree*) or 7 (*Strongly Agree*) for question 2 in part F (I intend to stay in Vietnam for a long period), this was considered a response set. By screening the questions worded in the reverse, 25 cases were detected as response sets and removed from the sample, and 505 cases were retained.

5.2.2. Treatment of missing data

Missing data is considered one of the problems in multivariate data analysis as multivariate data analysis requires complete data for all variables (Hair et al., 2010). If a questionnaire contains missing data, which comprises more than 10 percent of questions unanswered, such questionnaire should be removed from the sample (Hair et al., 2010; Malhotra, 1999). In this study, 72 questionnaires containing missing data for some important constructs were detected. All of these questionnaires were collected via the web survey and had at least 25 percent of questions unanswered, including questions in part F which is aimed at measuring intention to re-expatriate. Therefore, these questionnaires were removed (Hair et al., 2010) and 433 questionnaires were retained for further analysis.

5.2.3. Identifying outliers

After treatment of the missing data, the next step was to examine and identify outliers. Outliers are observations having distinctly different characteristics from other observations (Hair et al., 2010). These observations normally show extreme values for

one or more variables that make the observation stand out from the others (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). There are two types of outliers: univariate outliers and multivariate outliers (Kline, 2011). The investigation of these two types of outliers will be discussed below.

Table 5.1: Univariate outliers with z score above +/- 3.29

Variables	Z score	Case no.	Variables	Z score	Case no.
B1_1_IntAdj	-3.59987	49, 92	E2_HostPull	-3.90398	232, 332, 180
B1_2_IntAdj	-3.56870	431	E4_HostPull	-3.56433	250, 119, 249, 209
B1_3_IntAdj	-3.83582	49	E7_HostPull	-3.61488	250, 209, 26, 235, 41
B1_12_GenA dj	-3.37068	126, 28, 396, 51, 36, 8, 67	E9_HostPull	-3.76183	216, 98, 212, 381, 235
D1_1_Attit	-3.62354	231, 252, 65	G10_Tenure	3.62910	332, 351
D1_2_Atti	-3.82866	254			
D1_3_Atti	-3.31075	254, 414			
D1_4_Atti	-3.31427	173, 397			

Univariate outliers

Univariate outliers refer to cases having an extreme score in only one variable (Kline, 2011). A univariate outlier can be detected by converting the data value of each variable to standard z scores. The rule of thumb is that z scores can range from ± 2.5 to ± 4 , depending on the sample size (Hair et al., 2010). With a large sample size of 433 respondents, this study used values of ± 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). A total of 32 univariate outliers were identified (see Table 5.1). Almost all of these outliers had negative z scores, in other words, they had extremely low scores compared to other variables. Most of these cases occurred in cross-cultural readjustment, attitude toward

re-expatriation, career outcomes and non-career outcomes constructs, which presented an extremely low level of cross-cultural readjustment, extremely negative attitude toward re-expatriation and extremely low level of expectation about career and non-career outcomes in the host country. Removing the cases that contain univariate outliers can improve the multivariate analysis; however, it also leads to the limited generalizability to the entire population (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, the cases with univariate outliers were retained for further analysis.

Multivariate outliers

A case is considered a multivariate outlier if it has extremely low or high scores for two or more variables (Kline, 2011). In order to identify multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distance was calculated. The Mahalanobis distance is a measure of the distance between the standard deviation for a set of scores of one case and the sample means for all variables (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this study, Mahalanobis distance was calculated for all variables. Their values were compared with the critical chi-square (χ^2) value with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables and a probability of $p < 0.001$ (Kline, 2011). If the value of the Mahalanobis distance is higher than the critical value, this indicated a multivariate outlier. Appendix 5 shows the multivariate outliers that were founded in this study. Removing the cases that contain multivariate outliers can improve the multivariate analysis; however, it also leads to the limited generalizability to the entire population (Hair et al., 2010), thus the researcher decided to retain them in the sample for further analysis.

5.2.4. Assessment of data normality

One of the important assumptions of multivariate analysis is normality (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). One of the more reliable methods of examining data normality is by using skewness and kurtosis values (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). As suggested by Hair et al. (2010), the assumption of data normality will be not supported when the calculated z values for skewness and kurtosis exceed the critical z values of ± 1.96 (0.05 significant level) and ± 2.58 (0.01 significant level). As can be seen from Appendix 6, some observed variables had skewness and kurtosis z values higher than ± 1.96 , which indicated the existence of skewness and kurtosis in the data. However, the assumption that the data is perfectly normal is uncommon in research practice (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). Some researchers suggest that where the absolute value of skewness is greater than 3.0 and kurtosis value is greater than 10, it indicates there is a problem in the data set (Kline, 2011). As seen in Appendix 6, all the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis were lower than 1.893, indicating that the condition of normality was met.

5.3. Measurement models

In the process of developing the full structural model for testing the proposed hypotheses, this research addressed the issues associated with measurement development as suggested by Kline (2011). The majority of constructs in this study (with the exception of expected outcomes from re-expatriation and RCS) are multi-item measures and fully developed in the literature, hence, they were all subjected to CFA (Hair et al., 2010). CFA aims to test “how well measured variables logically and systematically represent constructs involved in a theoretical model” (Hair et al., 2010, p.

693). The validity and unidimensionality of the constructs are also assessed by CFA (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

CFA is most appropriately applied to measures that have been fully developed and whose factor structures have been validated. In contrast, the expected outcomes from the re-expatriation construct and RCS were subjected to EFA before running the CFA model for these constructs as they were not fully developed in the literature (Hair et al., 2010). As such, EFA was employed for these constructs to explore how many factors best fit with the data (Hair et al., 2010).

This study applied multiple criteria to evaluate the measurement models. These criteria include those used to test the fit and dimensionality of the measurement models. First, a variety of goodness of fit indices was employed in this study (see section 5.3.1). Second, standardized factor loadings (or standardized regression weights) and squared multiple correlations were used to test the dimensionality of the measurement models. The standardized factor loadings should be higher than 0.5 to show a strong association between the observed variables (items) and the factor (Hair et al., 2010). The square multiple correlation (or item reliability), on the other hand, measures how well an observed variable explains the factor (Hair et al., 2010). The value of the square multiple should be higher than 0.3 to show that an observed variable reasonably explains the factor (Hair et al., 2010).

As stated above, one of the issues related to the evaluation of measurement models is unidimensionality. This study employed the one-factor CFA congeneric model to test the unidimensionality for each of these latent variables. If the fit indices of the one-factor model are not at acceptable levels, the higher order CFA models will be run for

those latent variables (Hair et al., 2010). The following sub-section will present what is the acceptable level of each fit index used in this study.

5.3.1. Goodness of fit indices

Each goodness of fit index has its limitations, thus researchers should not rely solely on one index, but should instead use different indices to test whether the models fit the data (Byrne, 2010). There are three classifications of goodness of fit indices: absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices and parsimony fit indices (Hair et al., 2010).

Absolute Fit Indices

Absolute Fit Indices measure how well a specified model reproduces the data (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Thus, these indices evaluate the fit between a researcher's theory and the observed data (Hair et al., 2010). The following absolute fit indices were used in this study.

Chi-square (χ^2) statistic. This index is considered as the most fundamental Absolute Fit Index (Hair et al., 2010). A model fits the data when it has an insignificant p-value at the 0.05 level. However, this index is sensitive to sample size, which means the larger the sample size, the less meaningful the resulting p-value is (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Hair et al., 2010; Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Therefore, this study sought alternative indices as the sample size in this study is relatively large (433 respondents).

Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df). Researchers (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Kline, 2011) suggest the use of Normed Chi-square to minimize the effect of sample size on assessing model fit. This index is a ratio of χ^2 to the degree of freedom (df) and this ratio should be 3 or less for a good fit (Hair et al., 2010).

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI). GFI assesses the relative amount of variance and covariance from the sample that jointly explains the hypothesized model (Byrne, 2010). A GFI value that is higher than 0.9 suggests a good fit (Kline, 2011).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). RMSEA measures the difference between the hypothesised model to the sample covariance matrix and the population matrix. An RMSEA value that is below 0.08 indicates a reasonable fit, and below 0.06 indicates a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011).

Standardised Root Mean Residual (SRMR). SRMR measures the mean of the covariance residuals (Hooper et al., 2008). The SRMR value should be lower than 0.08 for a reasonable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011).

Incremental Fit Indices

Incremental Fit Indices measure how well the estimated model fit certain alternative baseline models (Hair et al., 2010). The null model is one of the most popular baseline models, which assumes that all observed variables are uncorrelated (Hair et al., 2010). This study applied the following incremental fit indices.

Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). TLI measures the differences between the normed chi-square values for the null and the specified models. A TLI value that is higher than 0.9 suggests a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Comparative Fit Index (CFI). CFI evaluates the relative improvement in the hypothesised model and the baseline model (Kline, 2011). A reasonable fit will achieve a CFI value that is higher than 0.9 (Hair et al., 2010).

Parsimony Fit Indices

Parsimony Fit Indices allows the researcher to determine which is the best alternative model based on fit relative to complexity (Hair et al., 2010). This study used the most common Parsimony Fit Index, that is, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI).

Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI). AGFI is different from GFI as it adjusts for the degrees of freedom in the model and the total degrees of freedom available (Hair et al., 2010). AGFI values higher than 0.9 suggest an acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 5.2 shows the summary of selected Fit Indices used for this study and the acceptable level for each fit index. If the goodness of fit for a measurement model is not at an acceptable level, the model does not fit the data well. If the goodness of fit for a measurement model is not achieved due to correlation of error terms or factor cross-loadings, model re-specification will be considered by allowing for the error correlation link between error terms or by eliminating some of the items (Byrne, 2010).

Table 5.2: Summary of selected Fit Indices used for this study

Fit Category	Index	Acceptable Level	References
Absolute Fit Indices	Normed Chi-square	$\chi^2/df \leq 3$	(Hair et al., 2010)
	Goodness of Fit Index	GFI > 0.9	(Kline, 2011)
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA < 0.08	(Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011)
	Standardised Root Mean Residual	SRMR < 0.08	(Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011)
Incremental Fit Indices	Tucker Lewis Index	TLI > 0.9	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)
	Comparative Fit Index	CFI > 0.9	(Hair et al., 2010)
Parsimony Fit Indices	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	AGFI > 0.9	(Hair et al., 2010)

5.3.2. Measurement model of intention to re-expatriate

This construct had five items, three of which were adopted from the intention to repatriate scale developed by Tharenou & Caulfield (2010), and two items which were developed by the researcher. Table 5.3 shows that the original model 1 did not fit the data as the χ^2/df was too high, RMSEA was higher than 0.08 thresholds, and other indices (AGFI and TLI) were under 0.9. The standardised residual covariance (SRC) matrix suggested that the model did not reproduce the correlation between F4_Intendrecod and F5_Intend well (standardised residual = 3.244). It is because F4_Intend and F5_Intend asked the same questions (“Even I have opportunities to return abroad to live, I will stay in Vietnam” versus “If the opportunity arises, I will return abroad to live”). Therefore, one item was eliminated at a time (Byrne, 2010). F5_Intend was omitted as the model (see model 3) did fit better than model 2 with F4_Intend omitted. The final model 3 fitted the data well with the $\chi^2/df < 3$, SRMR and RMSEA < 0.08 , GFI, AGFI, CFI and TLI > 0.9 . Figure 5.1 shows the final model having all factor loadings higher than 0.5 and squared multiple correlation (SMC) values higher than 0.3 except for F3_Intend that had an SMC value of 0.27. However, this item had a factor-loading that was higher than 0.5 and the overall measurement model with this item showed comprehensive fit. Thus, it was retained in the model for further analysis.

Table 5.3: Assessment of the hypothesised model of intention to re-expatriate

Model	χ^2/df	P value	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (5 items)	25.189	0.000	0.0543	0.902	0.705	0.900	0.801	0.237
Model 2 (4 items, Omitting item F4_Intend)	4.329	0.013	0.0248	0.990	0.950	0.992	0.977	0.088
Model 3 (4 items, Omitting item F5_Intend)	2.952	0.052	0.0141	0.993	0.967	0.995	0.985	0.067

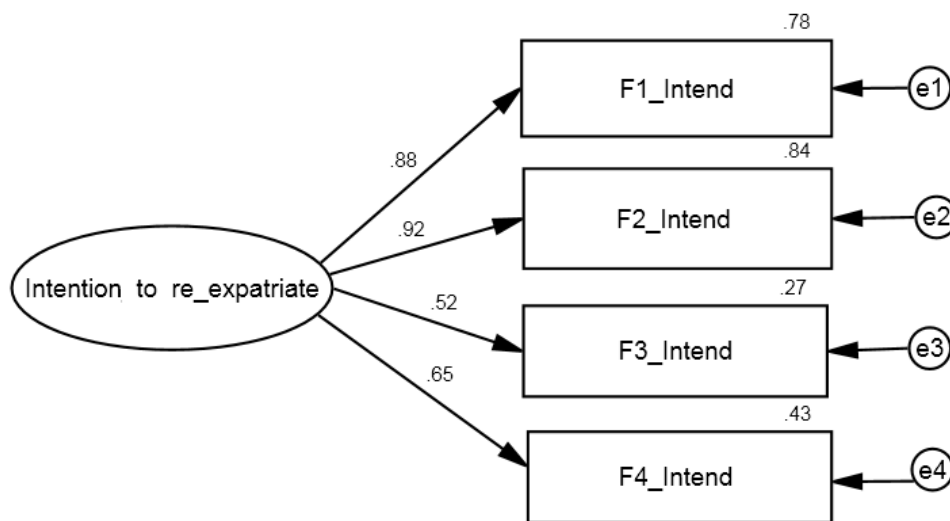


Figure 5.1: One-factor congeneric model of intention to re-expatriate

5.3.3. Measurement model of expected outcomes from re-expatriation

This construct had 12 items adopted from differences sources based on the expatriation literature. As mentioned above, this construct was not fully developed in the literature, thus, it is subject to EFA before running the CFA model.

Exploratory factor analysis of expected outcomes from re-expatriation

The following three steps were used to apply EFA. The first step involved an analysis of the data matrix to check the application of factor analysis. The correlation matrix

(Appendix 7.1) shows a substantial number of correlations are greater than 0.3. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at the level 0.000 (see Appendix 7.2). The anti-image correlation matrix (Appendix 7.3) indicates that the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) values are higher than 0.8, ranging from 0.81 to 0.92. These results revealed that the matrix is appropriate for factoring (Hair et al., 2010).

The second step is deciding the numbers of factors to extract. The factors are retained when they have eigenvalues higher than 1 and percentage of variance higher than 60% (Hair et al., 2010). The total variance explained (Appendix 7.4) indicates that two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted and these two factors explained 64.7%. Thus, the two factors were retained for further analysis.

The final step includes the interpretation of factor matrix. Hair et al. (2010) suggested that the communalities should be higher than 0.5 and factor loadings should also exceed 0.5. Appendix 7.5 shows that only two out of 12 variables have communalities slightly lower than 0.5, and thus all the communalities indicated a large amount of the variance in the variables had been extracted by the factor solution. The communalities were substantially higher, which allowed the researcher to use the rotation of the factor matrix (Hair et al., 2010). Applying Varimax rotation, the component analysis factor matrix (Table 5.4) indicates that all variables had high factor loadings (ranging from 0.614 to 0.906) in only one single factor. Therefore, two factors were extracted as follows.

- (1) Six items including better social welfare (E3_HostPull), safety and security (E8_HostPull), lifestyle (E9_HostPull), better opportunities for children's future (E10_HostPull), better education for children (E11_HostPull) and better place to

bring up children (E12_HostPull) were grouped as one factor labelled as “non-career outcomes”.

(2) Six items namely better career opportunities (E1_HostPull), higher salaries/income (E2_HostPull), further professional development (E4_HostPull), more opportunities for career advancement (E51_HostPull), broader career choices (E6_HostPull) and better working conditions (E7_HostPull) were grouped as one factor labelled as “career outcomes”.

Table 5.4: Varimax-Rotated Component Analysis Factor Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
1. Better career opportunities		.767
2. Higher salaries/income		.634
3. Better social welfare (health care, pensions...)	.614	
4. Further professional development		.760
5. More opportunities for career advancement		.882
6. Broader career choices		.804
7. Better working conditions		.679
8. Safety and security	.775	
9. Lifestyle	.737	
10. Better opportunities for children’s future	.856	
11. Better education for children	.906	
12. Better place to bring up children	.889	

Note: Factor loadings < 0.40 were suppressed and not shown in this table.

Confirmatory factor analysis of non-career outcomes

CFA was also conducted to assess the degree to which the data fit the measurement model developed from EFA. Table 5.5 shows the goodness of fit values for the non-career outcomes construct. The original model 1 for the non-career outcomes construct reported a poor fit as χ^2/df and RMSEA were too high and AGFI was lower than 0.9, although other indices met the acceptable levels. The modification indices (MI) suggested the model mis-specified error terms of E8_HostPull and E9_HostPull which had the highest par change. By allowing for an error correlation link between error terms E8_HostPull (e2) and E9_HostPull (e3), model 2 had a better fit, but the χ^2/df and RMSEA were still not at acceptable levels. The MI suggested another error correlation link between error terms of E9_HostPull (e3) and E12_HostPull (e6) which had the highest par change. Model 3 which allowed for this error correlation achieved a good fit. Figure 5.2 shows the final model of non-career outcomes with all factor loadings higher than 0.5 and SMC values higher than 0.3.

Table 5.5: Assessment of the hypothesised model of non-career outcomes

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (6 items)	9.598	0.000	0.0457	0.936	0.852	0.955	0.926	0.141
Model 2 (6 items, Cross loading e2- e3)	5.408	0.000	0.0310	0.967	0.914	0.980	0.962	0.101
Model 3 (6 items, Cross loading e3- e6)	2.929	0.005	0.0254	0.984	0.954	0.992	0.983	0.067

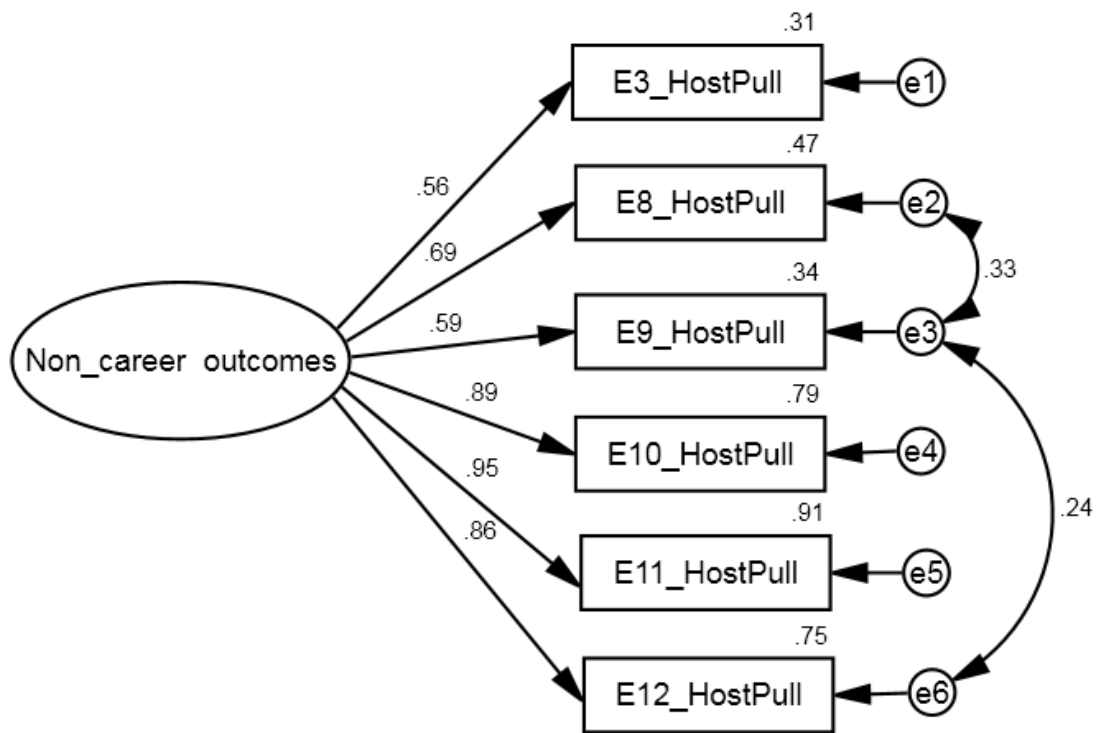


Figure 5.2: One-factor congeneric model of non-career outcomes

Confirmatory factor analysis of career outcomes

The original model 1 of career outcomes with 6 items did not fit the data well (see Table 5.6). The MI suggested there was a link between error terms of E1_HostPull (e1) and E2_HostPull (e2) which had the highest par change. By allowing for the correlation between error terms e1 and e2, model 2 had a better fit, but it still did not have a good fit. The MI suggested there was a correlation between error terms E1_HostPull (e1) and E7_HostPull (e6) which had the highest par change. After allowing for this correlation, the model fit of model 3 was better, but it was still not at an acceptable level. After setting the correlation between error terms of E4_HostPull (e3) and E6_HostPull (e5), the final model 4 achieved a good fit. Figure 5.3 shows that all factor loadings were higher than 0.5 and most SMC values were higher than 0.3. Even though E2_HostPull

had an SMC value that was slightly lower than 0.3, the overall measurement model with this item showed comprehensive fit, hence, this item was retained in the model for further analysis.

Table 5.6: Assessment of the hypothesised model of career outcomes

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (6 items)	12.975	0.000	0.0563	0.925	0.826	0.913	0.855	0.166
Model 2 (6 items, Cross loading e2- e3)	9.117	0.000	0.0405	0.949	0.867	0.948	0.902	0.137
Model 3 (6 items, Cross loading e2 – e3, e3 – e5)	6.623	0.000	0.0302	0.968	0.904	0.968	0.932	0.114
Model 4 (6 items, Cross loading e2 – e3, e3 – e5, e1 – e6)	2.283	0.033	0.0170	0.990	0.964	0.994	0.984	0.054

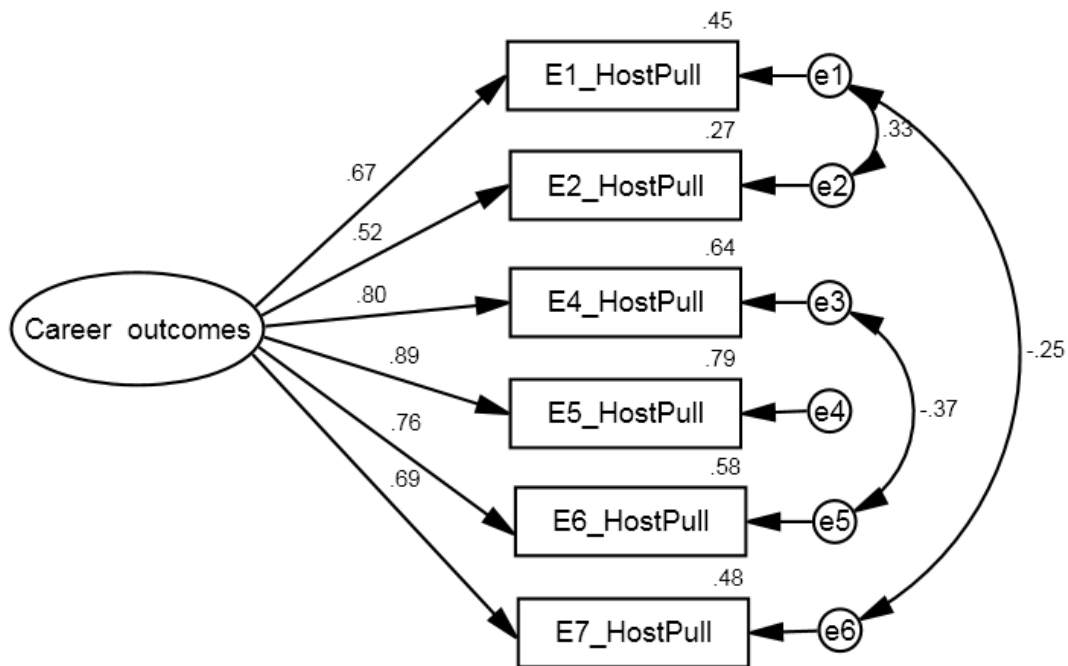


Figure 5.3: One-factor congruic model of career outcomes

5.3.4. Measurement model of life dissatisfaction

The life dissatisfaction measure was adopted from Diener et al.'s (1985) Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). Life dissatisfaction measures the degree of returnees' dissatisfaction with their life after returning home. The original model 1 indicated a poor fit as χ^2/df and RMSEA were too high although the other indices met acceptable levels (see Table 5.7). Although the SRC matrix indicated no covariance was higher than 2, the modification indices (MI) suggested that the model mis-specified error terms of C1_4_LifSat (e4) and C1_5_LifSat (e5) which had the highest par change. Hence, an error correlation link was established, allowing model 2 to achieve a good fit. Figure 5.4 shows the final model for life satisfaction with all factor loadings higher than 0.5 and SMC values higher than 0.3.

Table 5.7: Assessment of the hypothesised model of life dissatisfaction

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (5 items)	4.484	0.000	0.0194	0.979	0.938	0.990	0.980	0.090
Model 2 (5 items, Cross loading e4 – e5)	1.807	0.124	0.0086	0.993	0.974	0.998	0.995	0.043

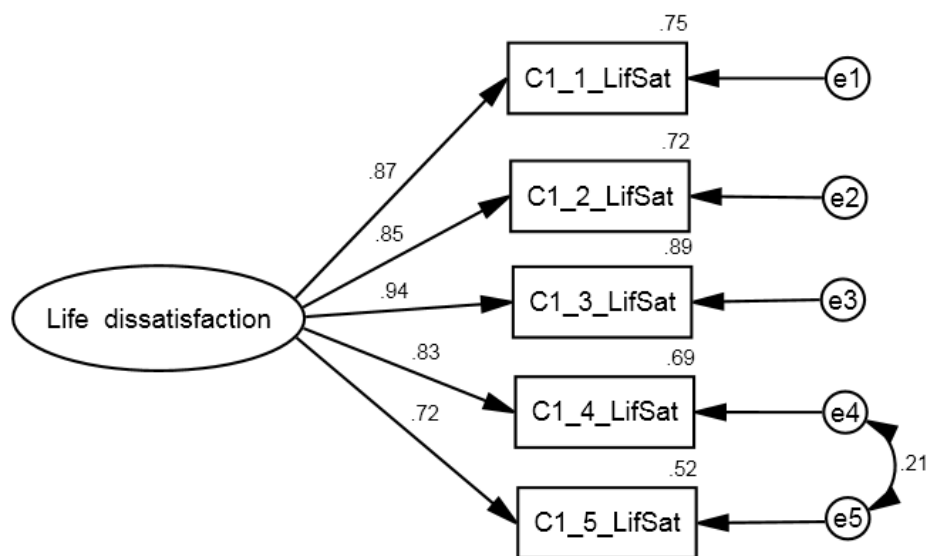


Figure 5.4: One-factor congeneric model of life dissatisfaction

5.3.5. Measurement model of career dissatisfaction

Five items from Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) career satisfaction scale were adopted to measure the degree of returnees’ dissatisfaction with their career after returning to their home country. Table 5.8 shows that the original model 1 presented a poor fit as χ^2/df and RMSEA were too high, and GFI, AGFI and TLI were lower than 0.9. The MI suggested that the model failed to account for the covariance between error terms of C2_4_CarSat (e4) and C2_5_CarSat (e5) which had the highest par change. Allowing for the covariance between the two error terms, model 2 showed a better fit, but χ^2/df and RMSEA still did not meet the acceptable ranges. The MI suggested that there was a covariance between error terms of C2_2_CarSat (e2) and C2_3_CarSat (e3) which had the highest par change. Allowing for this covariance between e2 and e3, the model 3 achieved a good fit. Figure 5.5 reveals that the final model had all factor loadings higher than 0.5 and SMC values higher than 0.3.

Table 5.8: Assessment of the hypothesised model of career dissatisfaction

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (5 items)	32.620	0.000	0.0396	0.867	0.600	0.927	0.854	0.271
Model 2 (5 items, Cross loading e4 – e5)	6.181	0.000	0.0171	0.979	0.922	0.990	0.976	0.110
Model 3 (5 items, Cross loading e4 – e5, e2 – e3)	1.595	0.188	0.0073	0.996	0.978	0.999	0.997	0.037

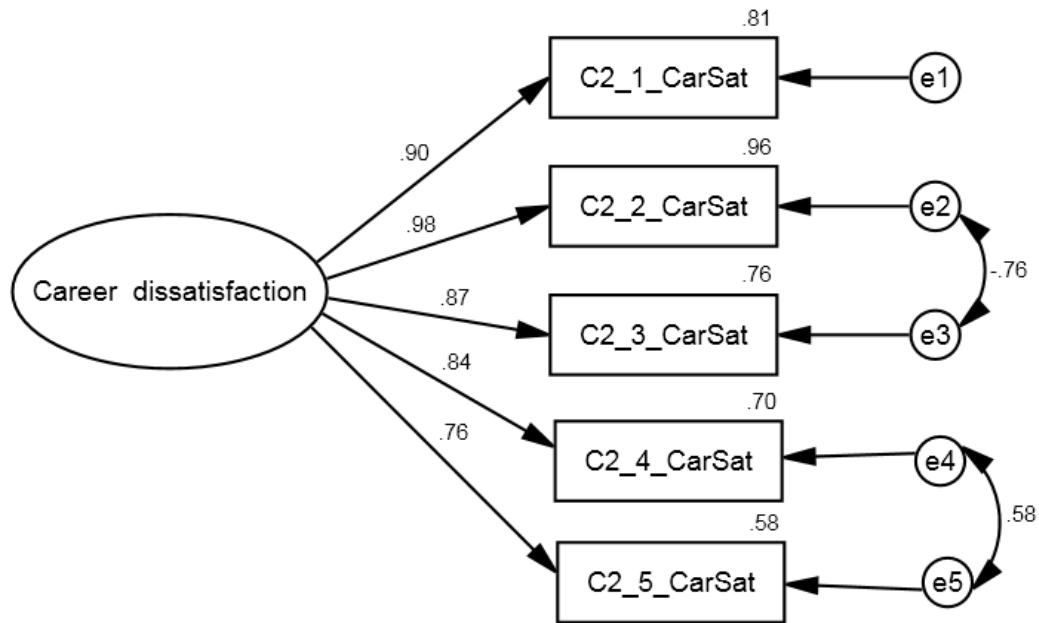


Figure 5.5: One-factor congeneric model of career dissatisfaction

5.3.6. Measurement model of community embeddedness

Community embeddedness measures the extent to which returnees are embedded in their community in their home country (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). This construct had three dimensions (fit, links and sacrifices) with 10 items adopted from Tharenou & Caulfield (2010). Eight items were measured by a 7-point Likert scale and the other two are categorical indicators with two or three categories (including marital status: 1, no; 2, yes; Number of children 0, no children; 1, 1 child; 2, 2 children; 3, 3 or more children).

The distributions of the above indicators with two or three categories are not normal (Kline, 2011). Therefore, the maximum likelihood estimate method cannot apply to the CFA model for community embeddedness as this method relies strongly on the assumption of multivariate normality. Another method called the Diagonally Weighted Least Squares (DWLS) can be used to estimate models with categorical indicators (Kline, 2011; Mîndrilă, 2010). The DWLS provides more accurate parameter estimates,

and a model fit that is more robust, to categorical or non-normal variables (Mîndrilă, 2010). The DWLS is available in Lisrel 9.1, thus, this study used Lisrel 9.1 to run CFA models for community embeddedness.

Although community embeddedness has three conceptually distinct dimensions, a single-factor CFA model should first be conducted to determine whether this model is comparable (Hair et al., 2010). However, the single-factor model with ten items had problems as the matrix to be analysed was not positive definite. This might be the result of one or more indicators in the model having high correlations with other indicators. By analysing the correlation matrix using SPSS, the researcher diagnosed that the indicator of marital status was highly correlated with the number of children ($r = 0.65$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, one of the two items was included in the model one at a time to test model fit.

Table 5.9: Assessment of the hypothesised model of community embeddedness

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1 (One factor, 9 items, omitting marital status)	9.142	0.000	0.107	0.940	0.900	0.862	0.109
Model 2 (Three factors, 9 items, omitting marital status)	2.635	0.000	0.0511	0.989	0.979	0.975	0.059
Model 3 (One factor, 9 items, omitting number of children)	9.073	0.000	0.110	0.939	0.899	0.863	0.118
Model 4 (Three factors, 9 items, omitting number of children)	3.077	0.000	0.0553	0.988	0.978	0.969	0.074
Model 5 (Three factors, 8 items, omitting marital status and number of children)	2.728	0.000	0.0475	0.991	0.981	0.981	0.060

Note: n/a: TLI was not available in Lisrel 9.1.

First, marital status was removed from models 1 and 2. The single factor model 1 that includes 9 items had a poor fit. In contrast, model 2 with 3 factors fitted the data well (see Table 5.9). The χ^2 difference between the two models was significant ($\chi^2(3) = 183.58, p < 0.05$). As a result, the three-factor model 2 fitted significantly better than the single-factor model 1.

Second, the number of children was removed from models 3 and 4. The single factor model 3 was not a good fit while the three factors model 4 was a good fit model (see Table 5.9). The χ^2 difference between the two models was significant ($\chi^2(3) = 171.14, p < 0.05$). As a result, the three-factor model 4 fitted significantly better than the single-factor model 3.

The three-factor models (models 2 and 4) fit the data well, however, the factor loadings for marital status and number of children were too low (0.04 and 0.05, respectively). Therefore, these two items were omitted and the resulting model 5 had a good fit. Further, the literature shows that a higher-order factor analysis will be applied to test community embeddedness rather than its components (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Therefore, this study used the equivalent second-order model for further analysis. The second-order model is shown in Figure 5.6 with all factor loadings higher than 0.5 (from 0.58 to 0.87) and SMC values higher than 0.3.

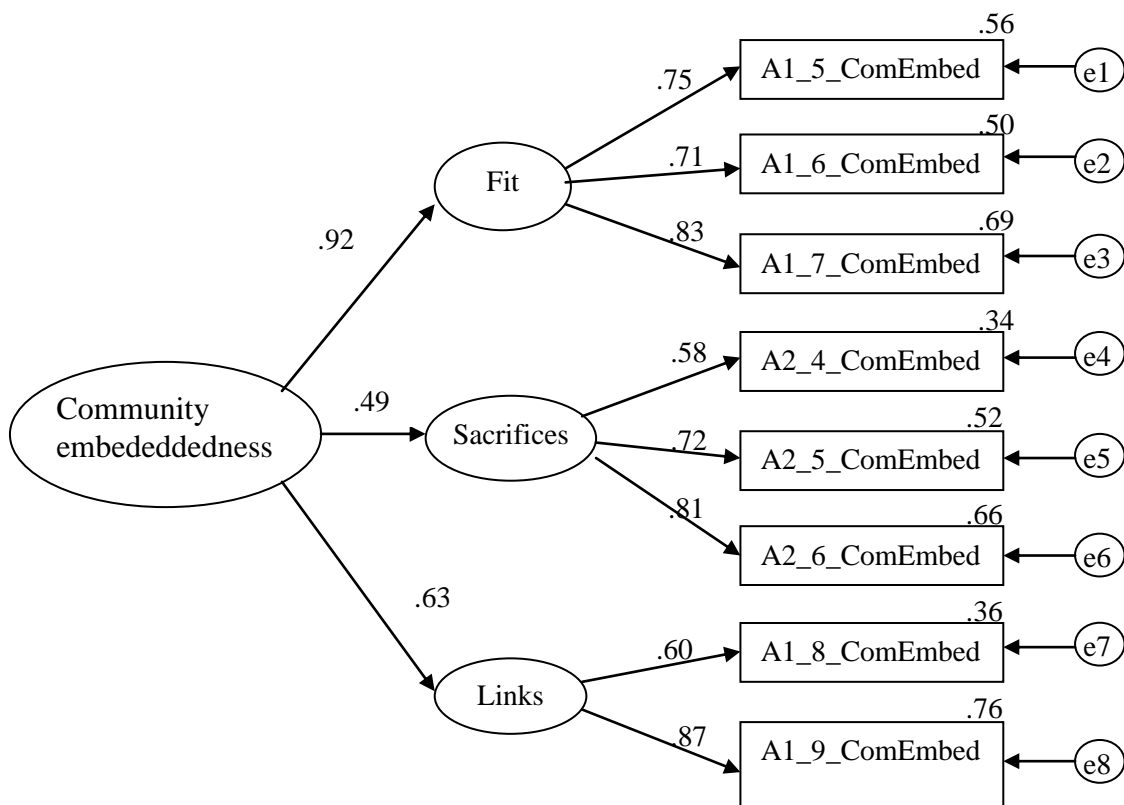


Figure 5.6: Second-order CFA model of community embeddedness

5.3.7. Measurement model of career embeddedness

Career embeddedness measures the extent to which returnees are embedded in their career in their home country (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). This construct had nine items adopted from Tharenou & Caulfield (2010), including three dimensions: fit, links and sacrifices. Seven items were measured by a 7-point Likert scale which is assumed to be continuous (Hair et al., 2010). Two other items are categorical variables, namely tenure with the current employer (a seven-point item), and permanency of the job (a three-point item). Similar to community embeddedness, this study used Lisrel 9.1 with DWLS to run the CFA model of career embeddedness because this construct included a categorical indicator with three categories.

Similar to the community embeddedness construct, a single-factor CFA model of career embeddedness was tested to determine and evaluate whether the single-factor model or the three factors model could be used (Hair et al., 2010). The one-factor model (see model 1 in Table 5.10) was found to have a poorer fit, as indicated by a very high χ^2/df , SRMR and RMSEA > 0.08 and all other indices < 0.9, except for GFI. Furthermore, four out of nine measurement items in model 1 had factor loadings that were lower than 0.5. In contrast, the three-factor model (model 2) had only one factor loading that was lower than the 0.5 threshold and all fit indices were better compared to that of model 1. The difference in the χ^2 for the one-factor model compared to the three-factor model was significant ($\chi^2(2) = 257.11$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the three-factor model was a significantly better fitting model than the one-factor model.

Table 5.10: Assessment of the hypothesised model of career embeddedness

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1 (One factor, 9 items)	12.881	0.000	0.131	0.916	0.860	0.751	0.147
Model 2 (Three factors, 9 items)	3.587	0.000	0.067	0.979	0.962	0.950	0.082
Model 3 (Three factors, 8 items)	2.669	0.000	0.0641	0.983	0.966	0.961	0.081

Note: n/a: TLI was not available in Lisrel 9.1.

Although model 2 fitted better than model 1, it had one item (A1_3_CarEmbed) with a very low factor loading of 0.17, and thus this item was removed. After omitting A1_3_CarEmbed, model 3 fitted well with the data. Further, the literature shows that a higher order factor analysis should be applied to test career embeddedness rather than its components (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Therefore, this study used the equivalent

higher-order model for further analysis. Figure 5.7 shows the final model with high factor loadings, ranging from 0.58 to 0.85 and SMC values that were higher than 0.3.

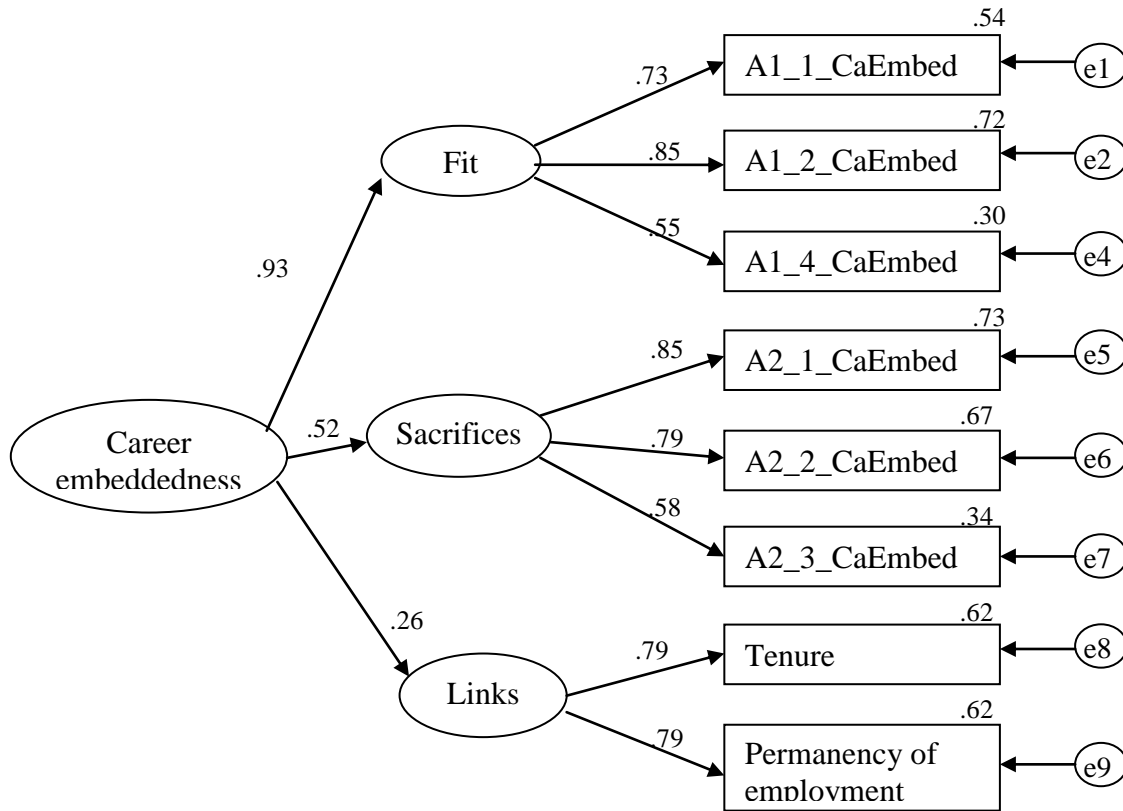


Figure 5.7: Second-order CFA model of career embeddedness

5.3.8. Measurement development for reverse culture shock

Sixteen items adopted from Seiter and Waddell's (1989) re-entry shock scale to measure RCS, that is, emotional and psychological difficulties experienced by individuals who return home after a significant period of living in another culture. Seiter and Waddell (1989) measured RCS by averaging the total score of all 16 items, however, the dimensionality of this construct was not clear in the literature. This study applied EFA to explore the dimensionality of this construct before using CFA.

Exploratory factor analysis of RCS

The following steps were taken when running EFA. First, the data matrix was analysed to check the assumption of factor analysis. The correlation matrix (Appendix 8.1) shows that a substantial number of correlations were greater than 0.3. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at the level 0.000 (see Appendix 8.2). The overall MSA was 0.827 which was in the acceptable range. The MSA of all variables (Appendix 8.3) were high, ranging from 0.667 to 0.91. As a result, the matrix is appropriate for factoring (Hair et al., 2010).

Second, the eigenvalues and the percentage of variance were used to decide the number of factors to extract (Hair et al., 2010). The total variance explained (Appendix 8.4) indicates that four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted and these four factors explained 60.47%. Therefore, the four factors were retained for further analysis.

Finally, the interpretation of the factors was conducted. According to Hair et al. (2010), communalities and factor loadings should also exceed 0.5. Appendix 8.5 shows that two variables, B2_1_RCS and B2_15_RCS, had communalities that were too low (0.300 and 0.317, respectively), indicating a substantial portion of these variables' variances was not accounted for by the factors. Thus, these two variables were removed when applying the rotation of the factor matrix. The component analysis factor matrix for the rest of the 14 variables (Table 5.11) indicates that B2_16_RCS had factor loadings that were lower than 0.4 while B2_10_RCS had high factor loadings on two factors, and thus these two variables were removed. The rest of the 12 variables had high factor loadings ranging from 0.647 to 0.919 allocated into a single factor, with four eigenvalues that were higher than 1 and the four factors which had eigenvalues higher

than 1 explained more than 60% of the total variance. Therefore, the four factors were extracted as follows.

(1) Five items including “Life was more exciting in the host culture” (B2_2_RCS), “When I returned home, I felt really depressed” (B2_4_RCS), “I had difficulty adjusting to my home culture after returning from abroad” (B2_5_RCS), “When I returned home I felt generally alienated” (B2_11_RCS) and “Life in my home culture is boring after the excitement of living abroad” (B2_13_RCS) were grouped as one factor labelled as “feelings of being home”.

(2) Three items namely “I miss the foreign culture of the country in which I stayed” (B2_8_RCS), “I had a lot of contact with members of the host culture” (B2_9_RCS) and “I miss the friends that I made in the host culture” (B2_14_RCS) were grouped as one factor that was labelled as “feelings about host country”.

(3) Two items including “Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home country culture’s values” (B2_6_RCS) and “Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home culture’s government” (B2_7_RCS) were grouped as one factor that was labelled as “criticism”.

(4) Two items namely “My friends seem to have changed since I have been away” (B2_3_RCS) and “My friends and I have grown in separate directions since I have returned” (B2_12_RCS) were grouped as one factor labelled as “feelings about friends”.

Table 5.11: Rotated Component Matrix of RCS

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
B2_2_RCS	.647			
B2_3_RCS				.747
B2_4_RCS	.804			
B2_5_RCS	.747			
B2_6_RCS			.919	
B2_7_RCS			.916	
B2_8_RCS		.746		
B2_9_RCS		.785		
B2_10_RCS		.542		.444
B2_11_RCS	.724			
B2_12_RCS				.806
B2_13_RCS	.804			
B2_14_RCS		.732		
B2_16_RCS				

Note: Small coefficients lower than 0.4 were suppressed.

Confirmatory factor analysis of RCS

As can be seen from Table 5.12, the original model 1 (4 factors, 12 items) had a reasonable fit as χ^2/df was slightly higher than 0.3 and all other fit indices fell in the acceptable range. Further, the literature shows that a higher-order factor analysis should be applied to test RCS rather than its components (Gaw, 2000; Seiter & Waddell, 1989). This study used the second order model for further analysis. However, the second order model 2 did not fit well with the data as it had high χ^2/df and RMSEA. The SRC indicated that the model did not reproduce the correlation between B2_2_RCS with B2_8_RCS (standardised residual = 4.428). The fit of the model after omitting B2_2_RCS was better than if B2_8_RCS was omitted. After omitting B2_2_RCS, the

final model 3 showed a good fit. Figure 5.8 shows the final second-order model of RCS having factor loadings higher than 0.5 and SMC values higher than 0.3.

Table 5.12: Assessment of the hypothesised model of RCS

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (first order, 12 items)	3.626	0.000	0.0516	0.939	0.900	0.944	0.928	0.078
Model 2 (second order, 12 items)	4.392	0.000	0.0825	0.917	0.878	0.918	0.898	0.090
Model 3 (second order, 11 items)	3.754	0.000	0.080	0.936	0.902	0.943	0.927	0.080

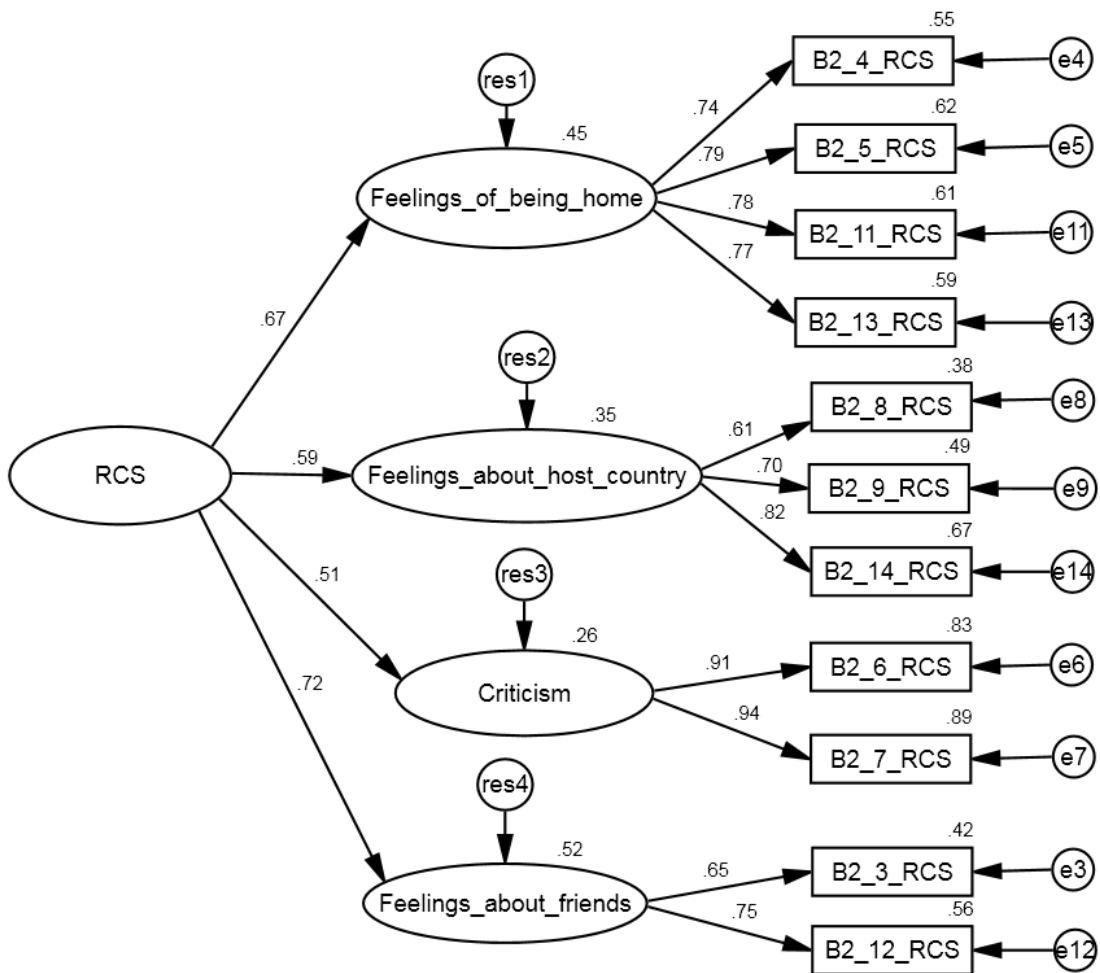


Figure 5.8: Second-order CFA model of RCS

5.3.9. Measurement model of interaction readjustment

The interaction readjustment construct included four items adopted from Black and Gregersen (1991b) that measured returnees' readjustment to social interaction with nationals in their home country when they returned. Table 5.13 shows that the original model 1 did not fit the data well as χ^2/df and RMSEA were too high and AGFI and TLI were lower than 0.9. The MI suggested there was a covariance between the error terms of B1_3_IntAdj (e3) and B1_4_IntAdj (e4). With the cross-loading between e3 and e4, model 2 had satisfied all fit indices (see Table 5.13) indicating a good fit. Figure 5.9 shows that all factor loadings were higher than 0.5 and the SMC values of all items were higher than 0.3.

Table 5.13: Assessment of the hypothesised model of interaction readjustment

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (4 items)	22.258	0.000	0.0166	0.948	0.740	0.977	0.832	0.222
Model 2 (4 items, Cross loading e3-e4)	2.125	0.145	0.0033	0.998	0.976	0.999	0.996	0.051

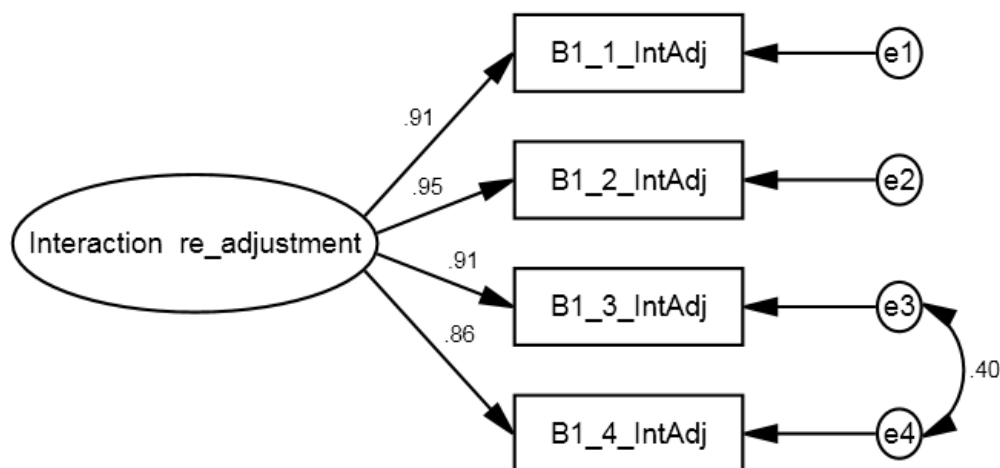


Figure 5.9: One-factor congruic model of interaction readjustment

5.3.10. Measurement model of work readjustment

This construct measured returnees' readjustment to their work in their home country when they returned from the host country. It included three items adopted from Black and Gregersen (1991b). The original model 1 fitted the data well (see Table 5.14). Figure 5.10 shows that all items had factor loadings higher than 0.5 and SMC values higher than 0.3.

Table 5.14: Assessment of the hypothesised model of work readjustment

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (3 items)	0.921	0.337	0.0045	0.999	0.991	1.000	1.000	0.000

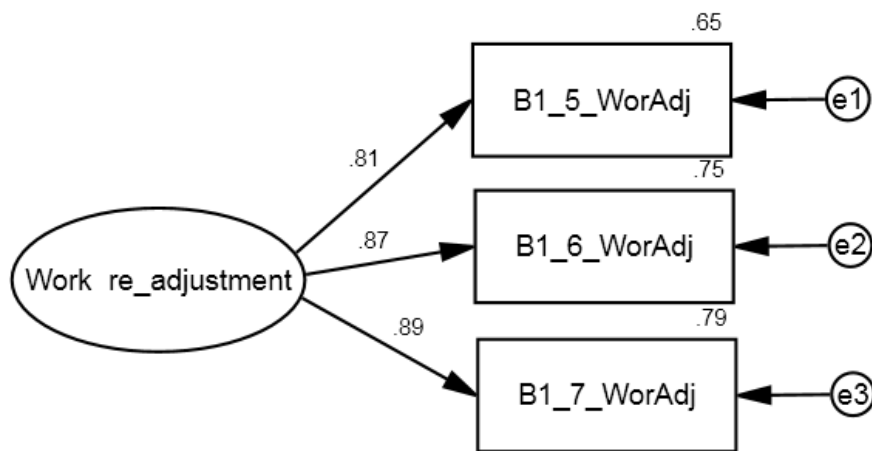


Figure 5.10: One-factor congeneric model of work readjustment

5.3.11. Measurement model of general readjustment

As can be seen from Table 5.15, model 1 did not fit the data as the χ^2/df , SRMR and RMSEA were too high compared to the thresholds and all other fit indices were lower than 0.9. The MI suggested that B1_9_GenAdj was cross loading with B1_10_GenAdj (standardised residual = 2.561) and B1_8_GenAdj (standardised residual = 2.495). After

deleting B1_9_GenAdj, model 2 fitted the data better, however, this model still did not fit well. The SRC matrix also showed the model did not reproduce the correlation between B1_14_GenAdj and B1_13_GenAdj (standardised residual = 3.158). Therefore, each of these items was omitted one at a time. Model 3 with B1_14_GenAdj omitted fitted better than model 2 with B1_13_GenAdj omitted. The final model 3 fitted well with the data as all fit indices met the acceptance level. Figure 5.11 shows that all items had factor loadings higher than 0.5 and SMC values higher than 0.3.

Table 5.15: Assessment of the hypothesised model of general readjustment

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (7 items)	16.993	0.000	0.0664	0.857	0.713	0.852	0.778	0.192
Model 2 (6 items)	8.730	0.000	0.0429	0.941	0.862	0.937	0.895	0.134
Model 3 (5 items)	1.610	0.153	0.0198	0.992	0.977	0.966	0.991	0.038

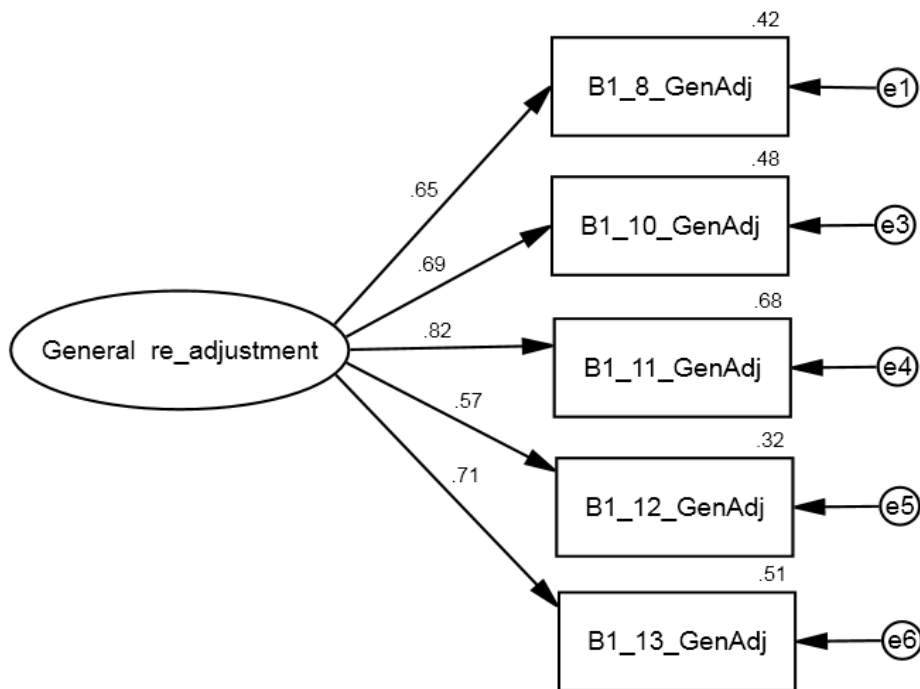


Figure 5.11: One-factor congruic model of general readjustment

5.3.12. Measurement model of attitude toward re-expatriation

The attitude toward re-expatriation was measured by four items adopted from Van der Vlist et al. (2004). This construct measured the returnees' favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of re-expatriation. Table 5.16 shows that model 1 containing four items indicated a good fit as all fit indices met acceptable levels. Figure 5.12 shows that all factor loadings were higher than 0.5 ranging from 0.659 to 0.851, and the SMC values of all items were higher than 0.3 (ranged from 0.435 to 0.724).

Table 5.16: Assessment of the hypothesised model of attitude toward re-expatriation

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (4 items)	1.192	0.304	0.0110	0.997	0.986	0.999	0.998	0.021

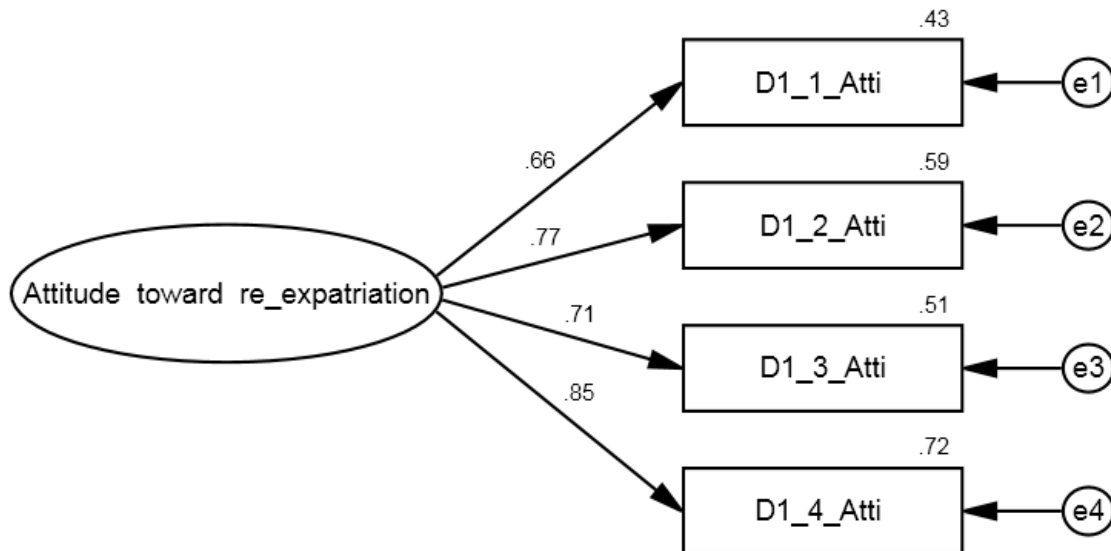


Figure 5.12: One-factor congruic model of attitude toward re-expatriation

5.3.13. Measurement model of subjective norm

This construct measured returnees' perception or opinion about whether important others think he or she should engage in re-expatriation. It included three items that were adopted from Park and Smith (2007). Table 5.17 indicates that the original model appeared to be a reasonable fit. Figure 5.13 reveals that all factor loadings were higher than 0.5, ranging from 0.87 to 0.89, and the SMC values of all items were higher than 0.30 (ranging from 0.750 to 0.791).

Table 5.17: Assessment of the hypothesised model of subjective norm

Model	χ^2/df	p	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (3 items)	3.317	0.069	0.0068	0.995	0.970	0.997	0.992	0.073

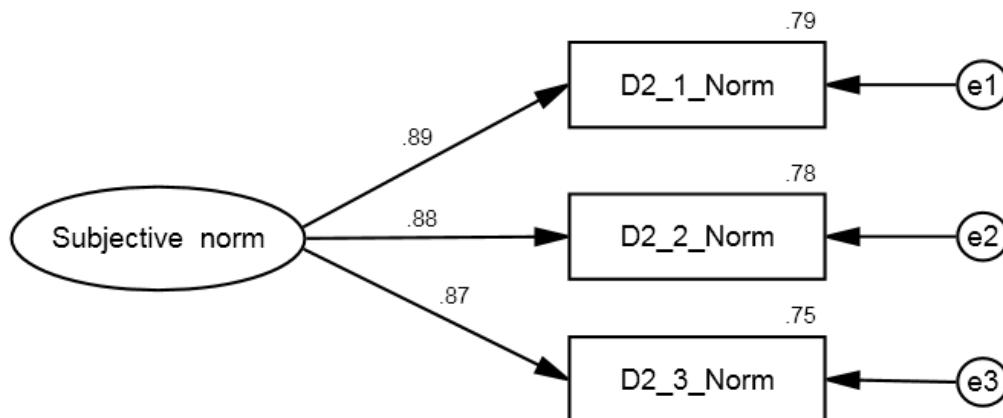


Figure 5.13: One-factor congeneric model of subjective norm

5.3.14. Measurement model of perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control was conceptualised as returnees' perception of the ease or difficulty of re-expatriating. It included a four items scale that was adopted from Conner and McMillan (1999). The original model 1 did not fit the data well (see Table 5.18). The MI suggested that there was a mis-specification between error terms of

D3_1_Control (e1) and D3_2_Control (e2). Model 2 which allowed for a correlation between the two error terms revealed a good fit. Figure 5.14 shows that most factor loadings were higher than 0.5 and the SMC values of most items were higher than 0.3. Although the first item (D3_1_Control) had a relatively low factor loading of 0.45 and low SMC value of 0.20, the overall measurement model with this item showed comprehensive fit. Hence, this item was retained in the model for further analysis.

Table 5.18: Assessment of the hypothesised model of perceived behavioural control

Model	χ^2/df	P	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 (4 items)	17.558	0.000	0.0559	0.961	0.867	0.951	0.852	0.196
Model 2 (4 items, Cross loading e1-e2)	1.505	0.220	0.0072	0.998	0.983	0.999	0.995	0.034

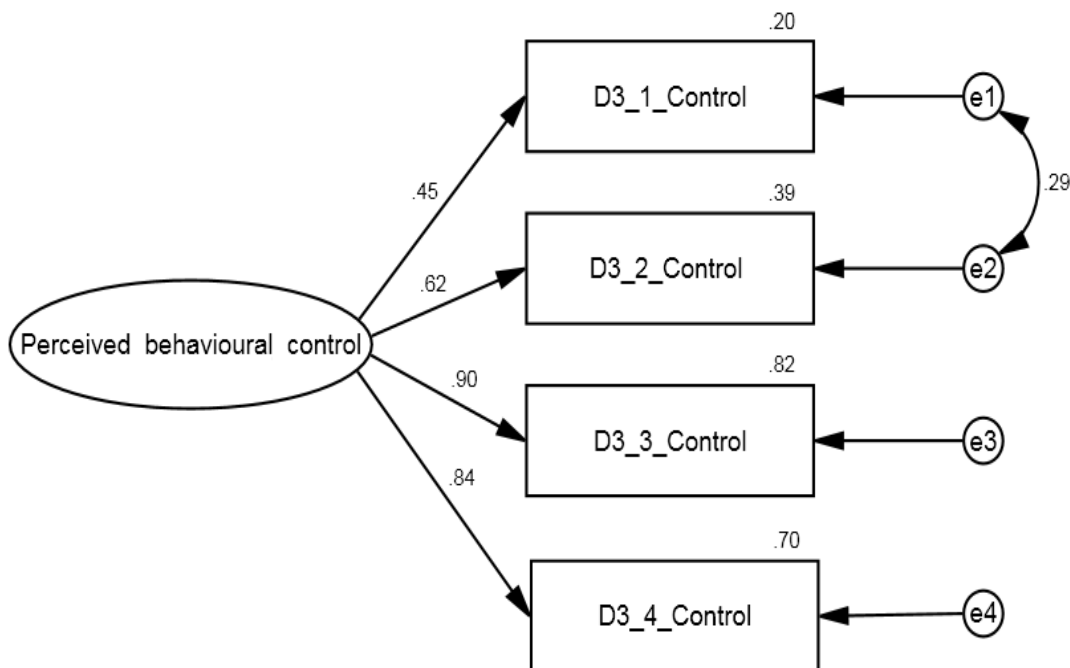


Figure 5.14: One-factor congeneric model of perceived behavioural control

5.4. Score and the normality of new construct

There are different ways to aggregate scores into a composite, such as regression weight and unit weight methods. The unit weight method's performance is superior to that of other methods (Bobko, Roth, & Buster, 2007). Thus, this research used the unit weight method to compute the score for the new construct. As the items measuring community embeddedness and career embeddedness had different response categories, the researcher standardized scores for averaging.

Table 5.19: Descriptive statistics of new constructs

Constructs	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Critical ratio	Statistic	Critical ratio
Intention to re-expatriate	.066	.562	-.383	-1.636
Career outcomes	-.445	-3.797	-.079	-.336
Non-career outcomes	-1.081	-9.218	1.108	4.733
Life dissatisfaction	.365	3.115	-.463	-1.977
Career dissatisfaction	.292	2.487	-.832	-3.556
Community embeddedness	-.573	-4.885	.278	1.186
Career embeddedness	-.687	-5.854	.142	.605
RCS	.351	2.988	-.467	-1.993
Interaction readjustment	-1.325	-11.299	1.351	5.770
Work readjustment	-1.008	-8.590	.719	3.070
General readjustment	-.676	-5.765	.062	.266
Attitude toward re-expatriation	-.321	-2.737	-.252	-1.076
Subjective norm	-.171	-1.459	-.821	-3.508
Perceived behavioural control	-.321	-2.733	-.149	-.635

Normality is a critical assumption in multivariate analysis (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). The normality of newly established constructs was tested by using skewness and kurtosis values. The absolute value of skewness should be lower than 3

and the absolute value of kurtosis should be lower than 10, which then indicates that the data is close to normality (Kline, 2011). Table 5.19 above shows that the z scores of skewness and kurtosis of some constructs were higher than +/- 1.96 indicating the existence of skewness and kurtosis in the data. However, the absolute values were still in the acceptable range (all absolute values of skewness lower than 3 and all absolute values of kurtosis lower than 10), which indicated that the data was close to normality.

5.5. Construct validity

Construct validity needs to be examined before testing the full research model (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Construct validity evaluates whether the measured items represent the hypothesized latent construct (Hair et al., 2010). As recommended by Churchill (1979), both convergent validity and discriminant validity were used to assess the construct validity in this study.

5.5.1. Convergent validity

Convergent validity measures the extent to which the items “converge or share a high proportion of variance in common” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 709). As suggested by Churchill (1979) and Hair et al. (2010), factor loadings, composite reliability (CR), Cronbach’s alpha (α), and average variance extracted (AVE) were used to assess the convergent validity for each latent variable.

5.5.1.1. Factor loadings

The standardized factor loadings should be higher than 0.5 or all factor loadings should be statistically significant to achieve convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, the SMC values of the items should be higher than 0.3 (Hair et al., 2010). In this study,

only one of the 68 items had a standardized factor loading that was slightly lower than 0.5 and only five of the 68 items had SMC values that were slightly less than 0.3 (see Appendix 10). However, these items with low factor loadings or SMC values were retained for further analysis because they contributed highly to the models' goodness of fit (Hair et al., 2010).

5.5.1.2. Composite reliability (CR)

The CR, composite reliability, should be higher than 0.6 to achieve convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). It is calculated based on the squared sum of factor loadings (L_i) for each construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct (e_i) as follows.

$$CR = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n [L_i])^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n [L_i])^2 + (\sum_{i=1}^n [e_i])^2}$$

Appendix 10 shows that all CR values exceeded 0.6, ranging from 0.62 to 0.93. Therefore, the CR values indicated that all constructs in this study achieved a good level of convergent validity.

5.5.1.3. Cronbach's alpha (α)

Cronbach's alpha, also known as coefficient alpha, measures the internal consistency of the items of each construct (Churchill, 1979). The alpha values should be higher than 0.7 in order to show good reliability (Hair et al., 2010). Appendix 10 shows that the alpha values of all constructs ranged from 0.73 to 0.95, indicating a highly internal consistency.

5.5.1.4. Average variance extracted (AVE)

AVE is a summary indicator of convergence which measures the average percentage of variance explained by the items in a construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE is calculated based on the total of all squared standardized factor loadings (L_i) and the total number of items (n) as follows.

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^2}{n}$$

The value of AVE should be higher than 0.5 to achieve adequate convergence (Hair et al., 2010). In this study, most AVE values were higher than 0.5, except for general readjustment that had an AVE value of 0.48 (see table 5.20). However, this construct satisfied goodness of fit, had factor loadings that were all higher than 0.5, had high composite reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.82) and high CR (0.66). Therefore, it was retained for further analysis.

5.5.1. Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which a construct is truly different from others (Hair et al., 2010). The most rigorous way to test discriminant validity is by comparing the AVE value for each construct with the squared correlation values associated with the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The AVE values should be higher than the squared correlation value to achieve good discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010). Table 5.20 shows the comparison between AVE values and the squared correlations between the constructs. Results from Table 5.20 suggest that all AVE values are greater than the squared correlation estimates, thus all constructs achieved discriminant validity.

Table 5.20: Assessment of discriminant validity – squared correlations between constructs and average variance extracted

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14
Intention to re-expatriate (V1)	.58													
Career dissatisfaction (V2)	.10	.82												
Life dissatisfaction (V3)	.24	.52	.72											
RCS (V4)	.30	.11	.26	.55										
Interaction readjustment (V5)	.15	.13	.24	.37	.83									
Work readjustment (V6)	.10	.23	.24	.23	.44	.73								
General readjustment (V7)	.15	.12	.24	.24	.29	.27	.48							
Career embeddedness (V8)	.11	.36	.23	.05	.15	.21	.06	.57						
Community embeddedness (V9)	.20	.15	.24	.13	.24	.14	.18	.23	.50					
Career outcomes (V10)	.03	.03	.03	.04	.02	.01	.00	.01	.00	.54				
Non-career outcomes (V11)	.05	.00	.01	.03	.00	.00	.02	.00	.01	.14	.60			
Attitude toward re-expatriation (V12)	.20	.04	.08	.14	.05	.03	.05	.05	.11	.12	.16	.56		
Subjective norm (V13)	.22	.02	.07	.13	.07	.06	.07	.04	.04	.02	.04	.18	.77	
Perceived behavioural control (V14)	.00	.03	.04	.02	.00	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.01	.53

Note: The scores in boldface on the diagonal are values for AVE

5.6. Common method bias

Common method bias inflates the relationships between measures of different constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2003). One potential source of common method bias is self-report measures (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In this study, all variables were collected via self-rating by the respondents, and thus it is necessary to assess potential common method bias (Melton & Hartline, 2013). The likelihood of common method bias was reduced through the design of the survey (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, the researcher first used a multi-item scale and clear and concise scale items. Second, the researcher encouraged respondents to answer the questions as honestly as possible by assuring them that their answers are anonymous. Finally, the researcher also used some reverse worded questions in the survey questionnaire to reduce common method bias.

To assess common method bias, the researcher conducted Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) by comparing the full measurement model (14 factors) with the one-factor model. The full measurement model indicated a reasonably good fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.68$, SRMR = 0.057, GFI = 0.87, AGFI = 0.86, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.91 and RMSEA = 0.040). In contrast, the one-factor model was highly unsatisfactory ($\chi^2/df = 5.38$, SRMR = 0.111, GFI = 0.44, AGFI = 0.41, CFI = 0.43, TLI = 0.41 and RMSEA = 0.111), indicating that common method bias was not a problem in this study.

5.7. Model testing

5.7.1. Assessment of model fit

The theoretical model in Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3 provided a reasonably good fit although the AGFI is slightly lower than 9.0 (see Table 5.21). In the theoretical model, the three predictors of the TPB were proposed as partial mediators. The researcher compared the fit of the theoretical model (referred to as the partially mediated model) with the fit of the fully mediated models. The fully mediated models were built by omitting the direct paths of non-career outcomes (model 1), career outcomes (model 2), life dissatisfaction (model 3), career dissatisfaction (model 4), community embeddedness (model 5), career embeddedness (model 6), RCS (model 7), interaction readjustment (model 8), work readjustment (model 9) and general readjustment (model 10) to intention to re-expatriate, respectively.

The theoretical model fitted significantly better than models 3, 5 and 7 where life dissatisfaction, community embeddedness and RCS were fully moderated by the three predictors of the TPB ($\chi^2(1) = 19.27, p < 0.001$; $\chi^2(1) = 10.86, p < 0.001$; $\chi^2(1) = 18.76, p < 0.001$, respectively). In contrast, the theoretical model did not fit significantly better than models 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9 and 10 where the links of non-career outcomes, career outcomes, career dissatisfaction, career embeddedness, interaction readjustment, work readjustment and general readjustment to intention to re-expatriate are alternatively fully mediated. As a result, this study used model 11, in which the links of life dissatisfaction, community embeddedness and RCS to intention to re-expatriate are partially mediated while the links of other constructs are fully mediated, to assess the hypotheses. Model 11 had the best fit

and in this model, the predictors explained 47 percent of the variance of intention to re-expatriate.

Table 5.21: Model fit comparisons

Models	χ^2/df	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$
Theoretical model	2.75	0.032	0.97	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.064	
Model 1	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.063	1.02(1) ^{ns}
Model 2	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.063	1.03(1) ^{ns}
Model 3	3.24	0.032	0.98	0.86	0.97	0.86	0.072	19.27(1) ^{***}
Model 4	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.062	0.52(1) ^{ns}
Model 5	3.00	0.032	0.98	0.87	0.98	0.88	0.068	10.86(1) ^{***}
Model 6	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.063	0.01(1) ^{ns}
Model 7	3.22	0.032	0.98	0.86	0.97	0.86	0.072	18.76(1) ^{***}
Model 8	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.062	0.03(1) ^{ns}
Model 9	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.062	0.31(1) ^{ns}
Model 10	2.70	0.032	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.90	0.063	0.98(1) ^{ns}
Model 11	2.45	0.032	0.98	0.90	0.98	0.92	0.056	4.25(7) ^{ns}

Notes: ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, ^{ns} non significance at $p < 0.05$.

5.7.2. Hypotheses testing

As mentioned above, this study examines the hypothesis related to the relationship of pull forces from the host country, pull-push forces from the home country, re-entry experiences, and the three predictors of the TPB with intention to re-expatriate. This study used bias-corrected bootstrap (Hayes, 2009; Iacobucci, Saldanha, & Deng, 2007; MacKinnon et al., 2002) with 2000 re-samples to test the significance of direct, indirect and total effects, and mediating effects. Table 5.22 presents the standardised direct, indirect and total effects of factors on intention to re-expatriate. Figure 5.15 shows the significant standardised

coefficients of the theoretical model. The details of testing each hypothesis are discussed in the following sections.

5.7.2.1. Host-country pull forces

Hypothesis 1 stated that non-career outcomes (1a) and career outcomes (1b) are positively related to intention to re-expatriate. Table 2.22 indicates that both hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported. Non-career outcomes and career outcomes positively affected intention to re-expatriate significantly ($\beta = 0.07, p < 0.01$ and $\beta = 0.02, p < 0.05$, respectively).

5.7.2.1. Home-country pull-push forces

Hypothesis 2 stated that life dissatisfaction (2a) and career dissatisfaction (2c) would positively affect intention to re-expatriate while career dissatisfaction would positively affect life dissatisfaction (2b). As indicated in Table 5.22, the hypothesised effects of both life dissatisfaction and career dissatisfaction on intention to re-expatriate (hypotheses 2a and 2c) were supported ($\beta = 0.28, p < 0.01$; $\beta = 0.11, p < 0.01$, respectively). Hypothesis 2b was also supported ($\beta = 0.55, p < 0.01$). However, the significant impact of life dissatisfaction resulted from both direct and indirect effects while that of career dissatisfaction only came from its indirect path.

Hypothesis 3 mentioned that community embeddedness is negatively related to life dissatisfaction (3a) and intention to re-expatriate (3b) while career embeddedness is negatively related to career dissatisfaction (3c) and intention to re-expatriate (3d).

Table 5.22: Standardised direct, indirect and total effects of factors

on intention to re-expatriate

Variables	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect	Result
Host-country pull forces				
Non-career outcomes		0.07**	0.07**	H1a: supported ^a
Career outcomes		0.02*	0.02*	H1b: supported ^a
Home-country pull-push forces				
Life dissatisfaction	0.23**	0.05**	0.28**	H2a: supported
Career dissatisfaction		0.11**	0.11**	H2c: supported ^a
Community embeddedness	-0.16**	-0.06*	-0.21**	H3a: supported
Career embeddedness		-0.10**	-0.10**	H3b: supported ^a
Re-entry experiences				
RCS	0.20**	0.10**	0.30**	H4: supported
Interaction readjustment		-0.01 ^{ns}	-0.01 ^{ns}	H5a: not supported
Work readjustment		-0.03 ^{ns}	-0.03 ^{ns}	H5b: not supported
General readjustment		-0.08**	-0.08**	H5c: supported ^a
Three basic predictors of the TPB				
Attitude toward re-expatriation	0.13**		0.13**	H6a: supported
Subjective norm	0.25**	0.04**	0.28**	H6c: supported
Perceived behavioural control	-0.01 ^{ns}		-0.01 ^{ns}	H6d: not supported
Control variables				
Tenure	-0.06 ^{ns}		-0.06 ^{ns}	
Overseas work experience	0.02 ^{ns}		0.02 ^{ns}	
Age	-0.01 ^{ns}		-0.01 ^{ns}	
Children	-0.03 ^{ns}		-0.03 ^{ns}	
Obligation	-0.06 ^{ns}		-0.06 ^{ns}	

Notes: ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ^{ns} non significant at $p < 0.1$, supported^a: results includes indirect effects, the significance was from the bias-corrected bootstrap with 2000 re-samples.

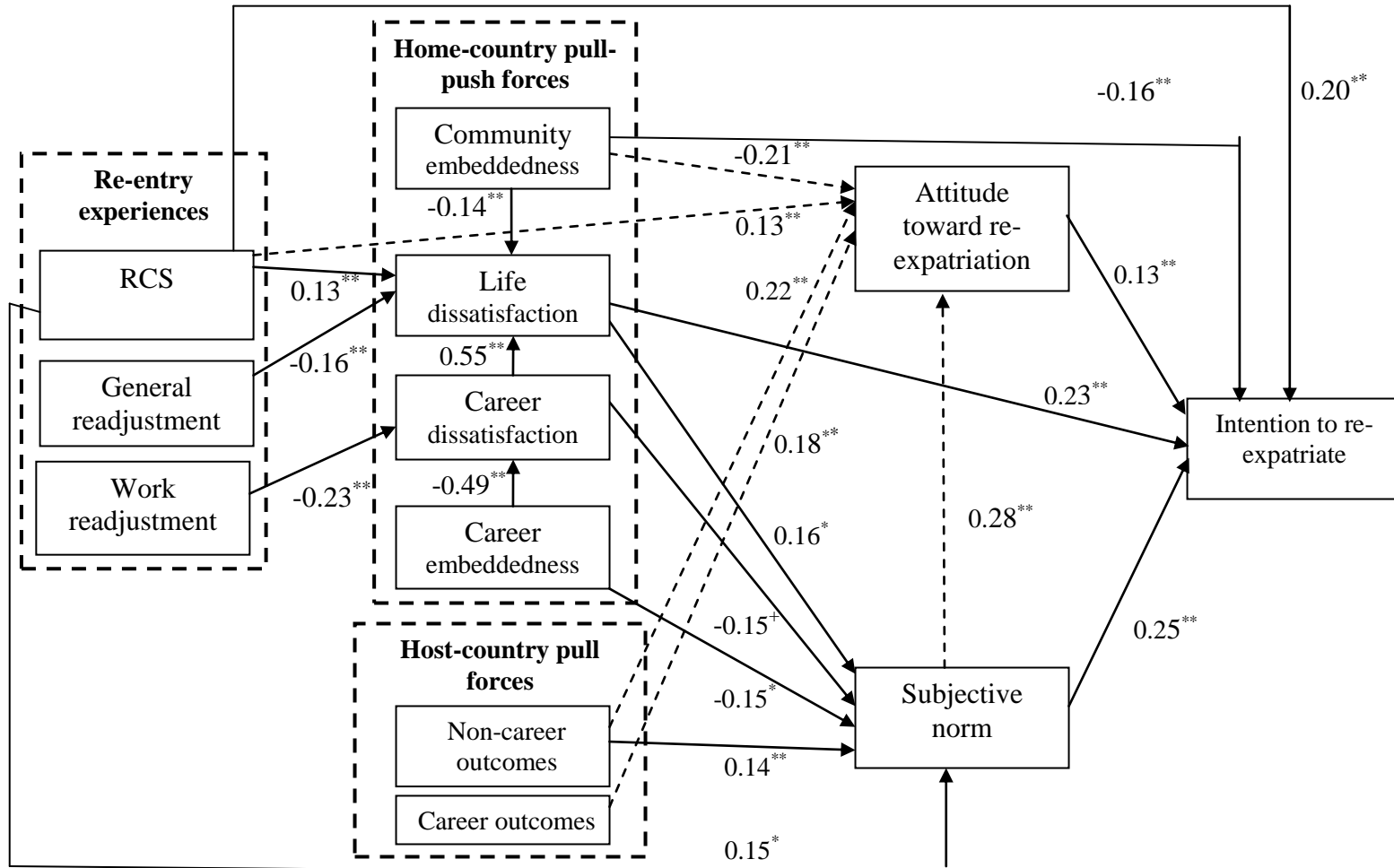


Figure 5.15: Completely standardized structural coefficients for the theoretical model

Notes: All non-significant paths were removed; the significance was from the bias-corrected bootstrap with 2000 re-samples.

As predicted in Table 5.22, both hypotheses 3a and 3c were supported ($\beta = -0.21, p < 0.01$ and $-0.10, p < 0.01$, respectively). The significant effect of community embeddedness on intention to re-expatriate, however, came from its both direct and indirect paths while that of career embeddedness resulted only from the indirect path. Hypotheses 3b and 3d were also supported as community embeddedness significantly affected life dissatisfaction ($\beta = -0.14, p < 0.01$) and career embeddedness significantly influenced career dissatisfaction ($\beta = -0.49, p < 0.01$).

5.7.2.2. Re-entry experiences

Hypothesis 4 was concerned with whether RCS would positively affect life dissatisfaction (4a), career dissatisfaction (4b) and intention to re-expatriate (4c). Only hypotheses 4a and 4c were supported as RCS was positively related to life dissatisfaction ($\beta = 0.13, p < 0.01$) and intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = 0.30, p < 0.01$) significantly, but not career dissatisfaction ($\beta = -0.03, p > 0.1$). Further, RCS both directly and indirectly affected intention to re-expatriate significantly.

Hypothesis 5 stated that interaction readjustment is negatively related to life dissatisfaction (5a), career dissatisfaction (5b) and intention to re-expatriate (5c). However, none of these hypotheses were supported. Hypothesis 5 also proposed that work readjustment negatively affected career dissatisfaction (5d) and intention to re-expatriate (5e). The results show that work readjustment only significantly influenced career dissatisfaction ($\beta = -0.23, p < 0.01$), but not intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = -0.03, p > 0.1$). In hypothesis 5, general readjustment

was expected to have a negative relationship with life dissatisfaction (5f) and intention to re-expatriate (5g). Both of these hypotheses were supported ($\beta = -0.16, p < 0.01$ and $\beta = -0.08, p < 0.01$, respectively).

5.7.2.3. Three predictors of the TPB

Hypothesis 6 was concerned with whether attitude toward re-expatriation positively affects intention to re-expatriate (6a); subjective norm positively affects attitude toward re-expatriation (6b) and positively affects intention to re-expatriate (6c); and perceived behavioural control positively affects intention to re-expatriate (6d). Except for hypothesis 6d, all other hypotheses were supported. Both attitude toward re-expatriation and subjective norm had a significantly positive path to intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = 0.13, p < 0.01$ and $\beta = 0.28, p < 0.01$, respectively). Subjective norm also had significantly positive impact on attitude toward re-expatriate ($\beta = 0.28, p < 0.01$). In contrast, the direct relationship of perceived behavioural control to intention was insignificant ($\beta = -0.01, p > 0.1$).

5.7.2.4. Mediated linkages

There are several ways to test a mediating hypothesis, however, recent research have supported that bias-corrected bootstrap perform better than the other methods (Hayes, 2009; Iacobucci et al., 2007; MacKinnon et al., 2002). One of the main reasons is that the mediation effect is not normal, therefore, other methods such as the Sobel test (1982) which assumes the normal distribution of mediation effects is not appropriate (MacKinnon et al., 2002). The bias-corrected bootstrap method overcomes this problem (MacKinnon et al., 2002). In particular, the bias-corrected bootstrap with SEM helps to avoid the problems

associated with measurement errors of all variables and the underestimation of mediation effects (Cheung & Lau, 2008). Therefore, this study adopted SEM in Amos with bias-corrected bootstrap method to test the mediation hypotheses. Table 5.23 shows the results of mediated linkages. The following sections will discuss whether hypotheses 7 to 9 were supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that attitude toward re-expatriation fully mediates the links of non-career outcomes (a) and career outcomes (b) to intention to re-expatriate.

Attitude toward re-expatriation significantly affected intention to re-expatriate. Non-career outcomes also had a significant impact on attitude toward re-expatriation ($\beta = 0.22, p < 0.01$) but did not significantly affect intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = 0.04, p > 0.1$). Also, the bias-corrected confidence intervals further supported a significantly indirect effect via attitude toward re-expatriation ($\beta = 0.07, p < 0.01$), supporting the fully mediated model. Hence, hypothesis 7a was supported, in which attitude toward re-expatriation fully mediated the link of non-career outcomes to intention to re-expatriate.

Similarly, career outcomes significantly affected attitude toward re-expatriation ($\beta = 0.18, p < 0.01$), but did not have a significantly direct relationship with the intention ($\beta = -0.04, p > 0.1$). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals showed the indirect effect of career outcomes to intention to re-expatriate via attitude toward re-expatriation which was significantly different from zero ($\beta = 0.02, p < 0.05$), suggesting the fully mediated model. As a result, hypothesis 7b was supported.

Table 5.23: The results of mediated linkages

Independent variables	Mediator	Direct effect to mediator	Indirect effect	Direct effect to intention	Type of mediation	Results
Host-country pull forces						
Non-career outcomes	ATR	0.22**	0.07**	0.04 ^{ns}	Fully	H7a: supported
Career outcomes	ATR	0.18**	0.02*	-0.04 ^{ns}	Fully	H7b: supported
Home-country pull-push forces						
Life dissatisfaction	ATR	0.05 ^{ns}				H8a: not supported
	SN	0.16*	0.05*	0.23**	Partially	
Career dissatisfaction	ATR	-0.03 ^{ns}				H8b: partially supported
	SN	-0.15 ⁺	-0.04 ⁺	-0.04 ^{ns}	Fully	
Community embeddedness	ATR	-0.21**	-0.03*	-0.16**	Partially	H8c: not supported
	SN	0.04 ^{ns}				
Career embeddedness	ATR	-0.05 ^{ns}				H8d: partially supported
	SN	-0.15*	-0.04*	-0.01 ^{ns}	Fully	
Re-entry experiences						
RCS	ATR	0.13**	0.02*	0.20**	Partially	H9a: not supported
	SN	0.15*	0.04**	0.20**	Partially	
Interaction readjustment	ATR	0.06 ^{ns}				H9b: not supported
	SN	-0.02 ^{ns}				
Work readjustment	ATR	0.03 ^{ns}				H9c: not supported
	SN	-0.05 ^{ns}				
General readjustment	ATR	0.01 ^{ns}				H9d: not supported
	SN	-0.09 ^{ns}				

Notes: ATR: attitude toward re-expatriation; SN: subjective norm; Perceived behavioural control was not presented in this table as it was a mediator when it did not significantly affect intention to re-expatriate; ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ^{ns} non significant at $p < 0.1$, the significance was from the bias-corrected bootstrap with 2000 re-samples.

Hypothesis 8a stated that the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of life dissatisfaction on intention to re-expatriate. Life dissatisfaction did not have a significant path to attitude toward re-expatriation ($\beta = 0.05, p > 0.1$). Therefore, attitude toward re-expatriation did not mediate the link of life dissatisfaction to intention to re-expatriate. Perceived behaviour control did not significantly affect intention to re-expatriate, and thus it was not a mediator. In contrast, subjective norm significantly affected intention to re-expatriate. Further, life dissatisfaction had significantly direct paths to both subjective norm and intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = 0.16, p < 0.05$; $\beta = 0.23, p < 0.01$, respectively). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals supported that life dissatisfaction had a significantly indirect effect on intention via subjective norm ($\beta = 0.05, p < 0.05$), supporting the partially mediated model. Therefore, hypothesis 8a was not supported as none of the three predictors of the TPB fully mediated the link of life dissatisfaction to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 8b stated that the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of career dissatisfaction to intention to re-expatriate. Career dissatisfaction was not significantly related to attitude toward re-expatriation ($\beta = -0.03, p > 0.1$), therefore, attitude toward re-expatriation did not mediate the link of career dissatisfaction to intention to re-expatriate. Perceived behavioural control was not a mediator as it did not significantly affect intention to re-expatriate. In contrast, subjective norm significantly affected intention to re-expatriate. Additionally, career dissatisfaction had significantly direct paths to subjective norm ($\beta = -0.15, p < 0.1$), but not have significant paths to intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = -0.04, p > 0.1$). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals supported that career

dissatisfaction had a significantly indirect effect on intention via subjective norm ($\beta = -0.04$, $p < 0.05$), supporting the fully mediated model. Therefore, hypothesis 8b was partially supported as only subjective norm fully mediated the link of career dissatisfaction to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 8c stated that the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of community embeddedness on intention to re-expatriate. Community embeddedness had significant direct impact on both attitude toward re-expatriation and intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = -0.21$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta = -0.16$, $p < 0.01$, respectively). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals showed that the association between community embeddedness and intention to re-expatriate via attitude toward re-expatriation was significant ($\beta = -0.03$, $p < 0.05$), supporting the partially mediated model. In contrast, community embeddedness did not significantly affect subjective norm ($\beta = 0.04$, $p > 0.1$) and perceived behavioural control did not have a significant relationship with intention to re-expatriate. Thus, the link of community embeddedness to intention to re-expatriate was not mediated by subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. As a result, hypothesis 8c was not supported.

Hypothesis 8d stated that the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the effect of career embeddedness on intention to re-expatriate. The link of career embeddedness to intention to re-expatriate was not mediated by attitude toward re-expatriate because it did not significantly affect attitude toward re-expatriate ($\beta = -0.05$, $p > 0.1$). Perceived behavioural control was also not a mediator as it did not have a significant impact on intention to re-

expatriate. In contrast, career embeddedness had a significantly direct path to subjective norm, but not to intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = -0.15, p < 0.05$; $\beta = -0.01, p > 0.1$, respectively). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals supported that career embeddedness had a significantly indirect effect on intention via subjective norm ($\beta = -0.04, p < 0.05$), supporting the fully mediated model. Therefore, hypothesis 8d was partially supported as only subjective norm fully mediated the link of career embeddedness to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 9a was concerned with whether the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of RCS to intention to re-expatriate. The direct effects of RCS on attitude toward re-expatriation and on intention to re-expatriate were both significant ($\beta = 0.13, p < 0.01$; $\beta = 0.20, p < 0.01$, respectively). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals showed the indirect association of RCS on intention to re-expatriate via attitude toward re-expatriation was significant ($\beta = 0.02, p < 0.05$). The results supported the partially mediated model. Similarly, RCS had significant direct impact on both subjective norm and intention to re-expatriate ($\beta = 0.15, p < 0.05$; $\beta = 0.20, p < 0.01$, respectively). The bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals showed that RCS had a significant indirect effect on intention via subjective norm ($\beta = 0.04, p < 0.01$), supporting the partially mediated model. Further, perceived behavioural control was not a mediator as it did not affect intention to re-expatriate. Hence, hypothesis 9a was not supported as the three predictors either partially mediated or did not mediate the link of RCS to intention to re-expatriate.

Hypothesis 9b mentioned that the link of interaction readjustment to intention to re-expatriate is fully mediated by the three predictors of the TPB. Hypothesis 9b was not supported as interaction readjustment did not significantly affect any of the three predictors of the TPB.

Hypothesis 9c stated that the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of work readjustment to intention to re-expatriate. Hypothesis 9c was not supported as work readjustment did not have any significant paths to the three predictors of the TPB.

Hypothesis 9d demonstrated that the three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of general readjustment to intention to re-expatriate. This hypothesis was not supported as general readjustment did not significantly affect the three predictors of the TPB.

5.7.2.5. Control variables

For the control variables, Table 5.22 shows that none of them, including tenure ($\beta = -0.06$, $p > 0.1$), overseas work experience ($\beta = 0.02$, $p > 0.1$), age ($\beta = -0.01$, $p > 0.1$), children ($\beta = -0.03$, $p > 0.1$) and obligation ($\beta = -0.06$, $p > 0.1$) significantly affected intention to re-expatriate.

5.8. Additional analysis

As discussed in section 2.2.3, there are different groups of returnees in this study's sample which includes returnees having an obligation to return to their home country or previous organizations versus not having this obligation. These groups of returnees may vary in their motivation, degree of voluntariness for returning to their home country, the quality of their

overseas experience and their perception of the host country (Martin & Harrell, 2004). Thus, the impact of factors on intention to re-expatriate is likely to vary between those groups. Therefore, the researcher applied the multi-group analysis to test whether the impact of factors on the intention are different between those groups of returnees in this study's sample.

The difference between the groups can be examined from a statistical viewpoint and from a practical viewpoint (Byrne, 2010). The χ^2 difference is used to determine statistical invariance between models while the CFI difference (referred to as Δ CFI) is to determine practical invariance (Byrne, 2010; Cooper, Gomez, & Aucote, 2007). The critical value for the differences in χ^2 to test for invariance is set at the 0.05 level (Byrne, 2010), while practical invariance between two groups is assumed when Δ CFI is -0.01 or less (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

First, the measurement invariance was examined. Following the approach of Byrne (2010), the researcher constrained all factor loadings to be equal between the two groups and then tested the difference between constrained and unconstrained models. A change in χ^2 between the two models was not significant ($\chi^2 (55) = 71.72, p > .05$), supporting statistical invariance. The CFI of the constrained model was equal to that of the unconstrained model (both CFI equal 0.867), supporting practical invariance. As the measurement models of the two groups were invariant, therefore, the test of differences among full structural paths between the two groups can be conducted.

Second, all structural paths were constrained to be equal between the two groups. The χ^2 difference between the two models was not significant ($\chi^2(31) = 43.32, p > .05$) while ΔCFI was equal to 0.008, indicating no significant differences in the structural paths between the returnees with obligation sample and the returnees without obligation sample.

Table 5.24: Total effects of factors on intention to re-expatriate (Returnees with obligation versus returnees without obligation)

Variables	Returnees without obligation	Returnees with obligation
Host-country pull forces		
Non-career outcomes	0.07**	0.07**
Career outcomes	0.02 ⁺	0.02 ⁺
Home-country pull-push forces		
Life dissatisfaction	-0.33**	-0.34**
Career dissatisfaction	0.08**	0.03 ^{ns}
Community embeddedness	-0.18**	-0.13 ⁺
Career embeddedness	-0.05*	-0.02 ^{ns}
Re-entry experiences		
RCS	0.24**	0.32**
Interaction readjustment	0.01 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
Work readjustment	-0.03 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
General readjustment	0.00 ^{ns}	-0.03 ^{ns}
Three basic predictors of the TPB		
Attitude toward re-expatriation	0.13*	0.11 ⁺
Subjective norm	0.27**	0.30**
Perceived behavioural control	-0.01 ^{ns}	0.01 ^{ns}
Control variables		
Tenure	-0.07 ^{ns}	-0.09 ⁺
Age	-0.03 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
Children	0.04 ^{ns}	0.02 ^{ns}

Notes: ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ^{ns} non significant at $p < 0.1$, supported^a: results includes indirect effects, the significance were from the bias-bootstrap with 2000 re-samples.

Table 5.24 shows that the main results and findings still hold if the model was analysed in either the returnees with obligation group or returnees without obligation group. Overall, the effects of factors on intention to re-expatriate were not significantly different between the two groups.

5.9. Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the steps taken to analyse the data and test the hypotheses. These steps include preparing the data for analysis, developing measurement models, confirming the reliability and validity of the constructs and checking for common method bias. Model fit of the whole structural paths model was assessed before testing the hypotheses. Most of the hypotheses were supported. The further analysis also indicated that the effects of factors on intention to re-expatriate were not significantly different between the two group of returnees (returnees without obligation and returnees with obligation to return to their home country or previous organization). The next chapter will include a discussion of the research findings, contribution, limitations of the study and directions for future research.

Chapter 6: Discussion and conclusion

6.1. Introduction

The objective of this study was to examine why returnees from an emerging economy, Vietnam, intend to re-expatriate on their own initiative. This phenomenon has not been fully explored in the literature, with prior research focusing on the experience of expatriates or repatriates in developed economy contexts, or perceiving global mobility as brain drain or reversing the brain drain. Drawing on the concept of brain circulation, this study enriches our understanding of the experiences of an under-researched group in the expatriation literature, namely returnees from an emerging economy context. This study integrates two key theoretical underpinnings, pull-push theory and the TPB to explain why returnees intend to re-expatriate. Further, other theories (e.g. expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, home country embeddedness, RCS and cross-cultural readjustment) were used to explain particular pull-push forces or returnees' re-entry experiences. This study developed a conceptual framework of factors influencing re-expatriation intentions and a set of hypotheses related to pull-push forces, re-entry experiences and the three predictors of the TPB.

In order to test the hypotheses, this study applied a quantitative approach with a survey of Vietnamese returnees. A total of 433 usable responses allowed this study to test and analyse the data using SEM with path analysis. In this final chapter, the findings are discussed in relation to previous studies, thereby giving insights into how the current study advances

existing knowledge related to why returnees from an emerging economy, Vietnam, intend to re-expatriate on their own initiative.

This chapter begins with a summary and discussion of the research findings (section 6.2), leading to a discussion of the theoretical contributions (section 6.3) and practical contributions (section 6.4) of the study. Next, the chapter identifies the limitations of the study and future research directions (section 6.5). Finally, this chapter presents the conclusions of the study (section 6.6).

6.2. Summary and discussion of research findings

Chapter 2 identified six research questions for this study based on the gaps in the literature. In order to address the research questions, Chapter 3 developed a conceptual framework and hypotheses based on the findings in Chapter 2. The hypotheses included the effects of pull forces from the host country, the pull-push forces from the home country, re-entry experiences and the three predictors of the TPB on intention to re-expatriate. Chapter 6 provided an analysis of the data to test proposal hypotheses. The summary results for testing hypotheses 1 to 6 are re-presented in Table 6.1 and that of mediated linkages in hypotheses 7 to 9 are re-presented in Table 6.2. The following sub-section will discuss research findings that are based on the six research questions proposed in Chapter 2.

Table 6.1: Summary of results for testing hypotheses 1 to 6

Hypothesis	Total effect	Result
Host-country pull forces		
H1a: Non-career outcomes → Intention to re-expatriate	0.07**	Supported ^a
H1b: Career outcomes → Intention to re-expatriate	0.02*	Supported ^a
Home-country pull-push forces		
H2a: Life dissatisfaction → Intention to re-expatriate	0.28**	Supported
H2b: Career dissatisfaction → Life dissatisfaction	0.55**	Supported
H2c: Career dissatisfaction → Intention to re-expatriate	0.11**	Supported ^a
H3a: Community embeddedness → Life dissatisfaction	-0.14**	Supported
H3a: Community embeddedness → Intention to re-expatriate	-0.21**	Supported
H3: Career embeddedness → Career dissatisfaction	-0.49**	Supported
H3b: Career embeddedness → Intention to re-expatriate	-0.10**	Supported ^a
Re-entry experiences		
H4a: RCS → Life dissatisfaction	0.13**	Supported
H4b: RCS → Career dissatisfaction	-0.03 ^{ns}	Supported
H4c: RCS → Intention to re-expatriate	0.30**	Supported
H5a: Interaction readjustment → Life dissatisfaction	0.08 ^{ns}	Not supported
H5b: Interaction readjustment → Career dissatisfaction	-0.06 ^{ns}	Not supported
H5c: Interaction readjustment → Intention to re-expatriate	-0.01 ^{ns}	Not supported
H5d: Work readjustment → Career dissatisfaction	-0.23**	Supported
H5e: Work readjustment → Intention to re-expatriate	-0.03 ^{ns}	Not supported
H5f: General readjustment → Life dissatisfaction	-0.16**	Supported
H5c: General readjustment → Intention to re-expatriate	-0.08**	Supported
The three predictors of the TPB		
H6a: Attitude toward re-expatriation → Intention to re-expatriate	0.13**	Supported
H6b: Subjective norm → Attitude toward re-expatriation	0.28**	Supported
H6c: Subjective norm → Intention to re-expatriate	0.28**	Supported
H6d: Perceived behavioural control → Intention to re-expatriate	-0.01 ^{ns}	Not supported

Notes: ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ^{ns} non significant at $p < 0.1$, supported^a: results includes indirect effects, the significance were from the bias-corrected bootstrap with 2000 re-samples.

RQ 1: To what extent do host-country pull factors (family and career outcomes) influence the re-expatriation intentions of returnees? What is the relative importance of career and non-career outcomes in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions?

The results illustrate that both career and non-career outcomes significantly affect returnees' intentions to re-expatriate with the latter having a stronger effect. The following section will discuss the impact of these factors and their relative importance in influencing intentions to re-expatriate.

Career outcomes

The findings suggest that returnees are more inclined to re-expatriate when they are pulled abroad by career outcomes. Specifically, this study finds that economic benefits of career outcomes (e.g. higher salary, better job opportunities and broader career choices) were important pull forces. Such findings are broadly in line with prior migration studies that utilise economic lenses (e.g. expectancy theory) to explain the movement of people from less to more developed countries (Brown & Connell, 2004; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Labrianidis & Vogiatzis, 2012; Zweig, 1997). The findings support expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) as returnees have higher intentions to re-expatriate when they expect to gain economic benefits from having a career abroad.

Additionally, the results reinforce boundaryless careers theory, which has been used by prior studies on SIEs (Cao et al., 2012; Doherty & Dickmann, 2013; Shaffer et al., 2012; Thorn et al., 2013) to explain the career motives of SIEs who move from developed to

similar or less developed countries. Boundaryless careers theory views the movement by SIEs as a career progression which helps professionals freely move across both organizational and national borders (DeFillippi & Arthur, 2006; Inkson et al., 1997). The findings of the current study confirm that boundaryless careers theory is applicable to explain why returnees in emerging economies intend to re-expatriate. This is because the results of this study indicate that returnees in this study are motivated by non-economic benefits to take up overseas work, such as professional development, career advancement and better work conditions or environment, which will benefit their later career prospects. The returnees in this study are also highly mobile people who intend to re-expatriate for their career development out of the boundaries of their organization and their home country.

Non-career outcomes

Non-career outcomes were a significant predictor of returnees' intentions to re-expatriate, confirming the findings of prior studies examining SIEs (Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson, 2006). The findings of the current study indicate that returnees are more inclined to re-expatriate when they expect that re-expatriation will bring benefits to their family, such as better education for their children, and to their quality of life in the host country. Thus, the results are consistent with Richardson's (2006, p. 473) research which points out that expatriates "would see themselves and direct their own behaviour in relation to significant others". Similarly, the findings of the present study also gives support for family systems theory (Minuchin, 1974) as the evidence suggests that returnees have higher intentions to re-expatriate when the family system affects their decisions to re-expatriate. Further, the

results support the findings of previous study ((Tung, 2007) which argue better quality-of-life is main forces that pull returnees in emerging economies to the host country.

The relative importance of career outcomes in comparison with non-career outcomes

The findings reveal that non-career outcomes are more salient motivators than career outcomes in influencing returnees' re-expatriation intentions. The results demonstrate that the relative importance of those motivations differs significantly from the motivations of SIEs who go abroad for the first time. For example, Inkson and Myers (2003), Thorn (2009), Doherty et al. (2011) find that explorative motives (such as adventure, travelling abroad and cultural experiences) are the most influential factors impacting on the expatriation decision of SIEs. This is followed by career reasons and non-career reasons are found to be the least important motivators.

The relative importance of factors affecting the expatriation and re-expatriation stages can be possibly explained through different life-cycle stages (Super et al., 1996). Prior studies on SIEs (Doherty et al., 2011; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Thorn, 2009) provide support for the exploration stage. SIEs are normally young and in the early phase of their careers, and therefore explorative and career motives are more central to their decision to expatriate than family related motives (Inkson & Myers, 2003). In contrast, returnees in the current sample are older (34% were 26 to 30 years of age and 54% were over 30 years old), overwhelmingly (66%) married and have already had overseas experiences (e.g. they have been abroad for extended periods for work and/or study purposes). Thus, the establishment stage is likely to be more relevant to these returnees (Inkson & Myers, 2003). At the

establishment stage, individuals are settling down, already have a spouse, or are in the process of becoming a spouse or a parent and are also seeking to advance their careers (Super et al., 1996). Therefore, non-career outcomes (e.g. family outcomes and quality-of-life outcomes) are more influential predictors of the re-expatriation decision of these returnees, compared to career outcomes.

The influence of non-career factors, particularly family outcomes may also be explained may also be explained by the cultural context of Vietnam. The findings suggest that Vietnamese returnees ascribe to a collectivistic culture, thus family orientation is an important factor when making the decision to re-expatriate (Carr et al., 2005). In this cultural context, the responsibility to care for family members is very important, especially for the majority of returnees (88%) who were over 25 years old. Family commitments (such as the responsibility to care for elderly parents in their home country) may be barriers to re-expatriation, but are they also a source of motivation if returnees expect that re-expatriation will bring benefits to their family (e.g. education or living conditions for their children in the host country) (Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson, 2006). Therefore, family outcomes have a strong impact on intentions to re-expatriate.

RQ 2: To what extent do home-country push factors (career and life dissatisfaction) lead to re-expatriation intentions? What is the relative importance of home-country push forces in comparison to host-country pull forces in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions?

Home-country push forces (career and life dissatisfaction)

The findings provide evidence that home-country push forces (life dissatisfaction and career dissatisfaction) among returnees increase returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. In addition to home-country pull forces (positive forces), prior studies (Cerdin, 2013; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2000) support the view that SIEs' motives to take up international work originate from home-country push forces (negative forces) which represent the individuals' dissatisfaction with personal issues in their home country. In line with previous studies, the current study extends these insights by highlighting that push forces from the home country, conceptualised by career and life dissatisfaction, increase returnees' intentions to re-expatriate.

However, while life dissatisfaction both directly and indirectly affected intentions to re-expatriate, career dissatisfaction only had a significantly indirect impact on intentions to re-expatriate mainly via life dissatisfaction. The indirect effect of career dissatisfaction supports the findings of Lounsbury, Park, Sundstrom, Williamson and Pemberton (2004), which point out that life dissatisfaction – a concept of global life quality – represents an overall outcome of an individual's career experience. Therefore, career dissatisfaction significantly contributes to life dissatisfaction which, in turn, leads to a greater intention to re-expatriate.

The relative importance of home-country push forces in comparison to host-country pull forces in explaining returnees' re-expatriation intentions

Both pull and push forces were found to have a significant impact on intentions to re-expatriate, supporting pull-push theory (Toren, 1976). However, the findings of the current

study suggest that home-country push forces play a bigger role than host-country pull forces in returnees' decision to re-expatriate. The results differ from prior studies (e.g. Cerdin, 2013; Thorn et al., 2013) which illustrate that people who self-initiated expatriate for the first time are motivated by pull forces from the host country rather than undesirable situations in the home country. The results in the current study reveal that although home country dissatisfaction represents push/negative forces from the home country, it is also a consequence of the returnees' re-entry experiences, such as RCS, poor general readjustment and lack of home country embeddedness after repatriating. For returnees, negative re-entry experiences are key drivers of their intentions to re-expatriate rather than pull-push forces (Tharenou, 2010, 2015a; Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Therefore, they are more inclined to re-expatriate because of life and career disappointments after they had repatriated, the consequences of re-entry negative reactions, rather than host country attractions.

RQ3: To what extent do home country career and community embeddedness deter returnees from intending to re-expatriate?

Both career and community embeddedness had a significantly negative impact on intentions to re-expatriate, supporting the theory of home country embeddedness (Lo et al., 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). While prior studies (e.g. Lo et al., 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) have examined the relationship between home/host country embeddedness and repatriation intentions, the findings of the current study extend this theory in the context of re-expatriation intentions.

The findings demonstrate that returnees become strongly embedded in the community when they have strong links with their family, relatives and friends in their home country, and they find they fit with the lifestyle and home-country culture. When returnees become embedded in their home country community, they are less likely to re-expatriate because they will make huge sacrifices in terms of the family and social ties, lifestyle and social activities in their home country if they re-expatriate.

The findings also indicate that being embedded in one's career in the home country is significantly associated with a weaker intention to re-expatriate. This could be because returnees will lose career opportunities, business opportunities and business relationships in their home country when they re-expatriate (Lo et al., 2012). Stronger links and fit with career in the home country make staying more desirable, and thus deter returnees from intending to re-expatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

RQ 4: To what extent do returnees' negative re-entry reactions (RCS and poor cross-cultural readjustment) lead to re-expatriation intentions?

Reverse culture shock

The findings shed new light on understanding how RCS affects returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. Consistent with the proposed hypothesis, RCS is the most powerful push force affecting intentions to re-expatriate. Although returnees may believe that they will not experience difficulties in re-entering their home country on the basis that their home country is not new to them, their home country as well as the returnees themselves may have changed during the returnees' time abroad. For example, returnees may change their

culture values and life style to adapt to the host country culture and their home country may have undergone economic and political changes (Christofi & Thompson, 2007). Returnees may be not aware of these changes and may not anticipate their re-entry difficulties which may lead returnees to experience feelings of RCS. These shocks include feelings of stress and anxiety and difficulties with inter-personal relationships with home country nationals, feelings of not belonging to their home country and frustration with the home country (Adler, 1981; Guo et al., 2013). Therefore, returnees who experience a higher degree of RCS have more negative attitudes toward their home country and have higher intentions re-expatriate.

Cross-cultural readjustment

Prior studies have examined the association between cross-cultural readjustment and turnover intentions of ARs (Eugenia Sánchez Vidal et al., 2007; Gregersen & Black, 1995). The current study extends the cross-cultural readjustment theory (Black & Gregersen, 1991b) to explain how the three facets (interaction, work and general) of readjustment affect returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. The following sections will discuss the influences of the three facets of cross-cultural readjustment on intentions to re-expatriate.

Work readjustment was found not to have a significant effect on intentions to re-expatriate, indicating that poor work readjustment is related to returnees' negative affective responses to their current job rather than to their home country on a whole (Eugenia Sánchez Vidal et al., 2007). Therefore, returnees may reduce sources of these negative affective responses by

leaving their current organization and finding other jobs within their country rather than leaving their country.

General readjustment, in contrast to work readjustment, had a significantly negative impact on intentions to re-expatriate. General readjustment concerns the overall adjustment of the individual's general psychological comfort with the home nation environment (e.g. food, housing, climate and living conditions) (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Therefore, poor general readjustment is a source of negative affective responses to their home country rather than their current job (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Re-expatriation means returnees can eliminate their poor general readjustment, a negative response to their home country, and go to another country in which they experience better general psychological comfort with regard to food, housing, climate and living conditions. As a result, poor general readjustment increases their intention to re-expatriate.

However, it was unexpected that interaction readjustment did not significantly affect intentions to re-expatriate, although it represents returnees' psychological comfort in interpersonal communication and social relations with home country nationals (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Similar to general readjustment, interaction readjustment also reflects returnees' negative responses to their home country (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). In theory, returnees with poor interaction readjustment are more inclined to re-expatriate because re-expatriation is a way to eliminate poor interaction readjustment with home country nationals (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). However, in the current study, the relationship between interaction readjustment and re-expatriation intentions was not supported. A possible explanation is that interaction readjustment reflects the returnees'

social skills in communicating and behaving appropriately in a society (Cox, 2004). In other words, returnees who have poor interaction readjustment with home country nationals may also have poor social skills when communicating with other country nationals (Szkudlarek, 2010). Therefore, poor interaction readjustment does not increase returnees' intent to re-expatriate when re-expatriation does not ensure that returnees can have positive responses (e.g. better interaction adjustment with the host country nationals).

RQ 5: To what extent does each of the three predictors from the TPB (attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) have a significant effect on re-expatriation intentions?

The results partially confirm the TPB in the context of intentions to re-expatriate. Attitude toward re-expatriation and subjective norm, but not perceived behavioural control, were significantly related to intentions to re-expatriate. The findings indicate that when returnees have a more positive evaluation of re-expatriation and perceive that they have greater support from important others (subjective norm), then they have higher intentions to re-expatriate. In addition, the results indicate that, amongst the three predictors of TPB, subjective norm is the strongest predictor of intentions to re-expatriate. This could be due to the fact that under a collectivist culture, the decision of Vietnamese returnees to re-expatriate is heavily influenced by the groups that the returnees are interacting with, including the returnees' extended families and other people who are important to them.

In addition to its direct effect, subjective norm also influenced intentions to re-expatriate indirectly through attitude toward re-expatriation, suggesting that these two predictors are

not independent of each other. This result is consistent with the findings of prior studies (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005; Teng, Wu, & Liu, 2013), pointing out that the influences of attitudinal and subjective variables might be dependent. The result suggests that the favourable or unfavourable views on re-expatriation of significant others (e.g. family, friends and co-workers) not only influence the re-expatriation intentions of returnees, but also returnees' attitudes toward re-expatriation.

In contrast, perceived behavioural control was not an influential predictor of intentions to re-expatriate. This result is consistent with previous studies (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sheeran et al., 2002) that point out that if people believe that they have very high control over performing the behaviour, then intentions depend on their attitudes and subjective norms rather than on their personal controls. Returnees in this study perceived themselves as having very high control over re-expatriation. This could be due to the fact that returnees already have overseas experiences, knowledge and skills, and as a result, the decision to re-expatriate or not does not depend on perceived behavioural control, but on their attitudes and subjective norms.

RQ 6: To what extent do the three predictors of the TPB mediate the influence of pull-push factors on re-expatriation intentions?

This section will discuss the results of the mediation linkages between 1) host-country pull factors, 2) home-country pull-push factors, 3) re-entry experiences and intentions to re-expatriate via the three predictors of the TPB. Table 6.2 shows the summary of results for testing hypotheses 7-9 related to the mediated linkages of the three predictors of the TPB.

First, the links of host-country pull factors (including family and career outcomes) with intentions to re-expatriate were fully mediated by attitude toward re-expatriation. Host-country pull factors were measured by outcome expectancies which refer to the likelihood of re-expatriation leading to particular consequences. The findings illustrate that when returnees expect that re-expatriation result in positive outcomes for their career and family, they have a more favourable attitude toward re-expatriation leading to a higher intention to re-expatriate. Thus the results support the TPB (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) as outcome expectancies (family and career outcomes) determine the attitude toward re-expatriation, and, in turn, the attitude increases returnees' intention to re-expatriate.

Second, either attitude toward re-expatriation or subjective norm partially mediated the links of life dissatisfaction and community embeddedness to intentions to re-expatriate. Subjective norm also partially mediated the effects of career dissatisfaction and career embeddedness when controlling for life dissatisfaction and community embeddedness, respectively. As discussed in chapter three (section 3.3), home-country pull-push factors (including life dissatisfaction, career dissatisfaction, community embeddedness and career embeddedness) are considered as attitudes toward targets (e.g. life, career, community in the home country). Thus, the findings indicate that attitudes toward targets increase returnees' intention to re-expatriate both directly and indirectly via the factors of the TPB. The findings support Eagly and Chaiken's (1993, p. 205) argument that "one's attitudes toward the target probably does come to mind before attitudes toward the behaviours in which one might engage in relation to the target". In other words, attitudes toward targets

can directly lead to intentions to re-expatriate as these attitudes are starting points of the re-expatriation action (Van Breukelen et al., 2004). The findings challenge the argument by Ajzen (Ajzen, 2001) in his TPB where he posits that attitudes toward targets are considered as external factors in his model where these attitudes can only indirectly affect intentions through the attitude toward behaviour.

Table 6.2: Summary of results for testing mediation hypotheses 7 to 9

Hypotheses	Results
Host-country pull forces	
H7a: Attitude toward re-expatriation fully mediate the link of non-career outcomes → intention to re-expatriate	Supported
H7b: Attitude toward re-expatriation fully mediate the link of career outcomes → intention to re-expatriate	Supported
Home-country pull-push forces	
H8a: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of life dissatisfaction → Intention to re-expatriate	Not supported
H8b: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of career dissatisfaction → Intention to re-expatriate	Partially supported
H8c: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of community embeddedness → Intention to re-expatriate	Not supported
H8d: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of career embeddedness → Intention to re-expatriate	Partially supported
Re-entry experiences	
H9a: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of RSC → Intention to re-expatriate	Not supported
H9b: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of interaction readjustment → Intention to re-expatriate	Not supported
H9c: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of work readjustment → Intention to re-expatriate	Not supported
H9d: The three predictors of the TPB fully mediate the link of general readjustment → Intention to re-expatriate	Not supported

Finally, the links of RCS to intentions to re-expatriate were partially mediated by both subjective norm and attitude toward re-expatriation. Other re-entry experience factors, including interaction readjustment and work readjustment, did not affect intentions to re-expatriate, while subjective norm partially mediated the influence of general readjustment on the intentions when controlling for life dissatisfaction. Again, the results are not consistent with Ajzen's (2011) argument, which points out that emotions/affects only affect intentions indirectly via the three predictors of the TPB. In contrast, several studies (Kim, Chan, & Chan, 2007; Kwortnik & Ross, 2007; Moons & Pelsmacker, 2012; Sandberg & Conner, 2008; Wang, 2011) argue that emotions can be a direct driver of intentions. In line with these studies, the results of the current study support the view that negative affective responses to home country culture (e.g. RCS) and general life (e.g. poor general readjustment) increase returnees' favourable attitudes, subjective norms and intention to re-expatriate.

6.3. Theoretical implications

The results of this study make a number of theoretical contributions to the IHRM literature.

First, the phenomenon of why returnees intend to re-expatriate on their own initiative has not been fully explored in the literature. Prior research has focused on why people expatriate or repatriate, or perceive global mobility as brain drain or reversing the brain drain. The study contributes to the extant literature on SIEs by examining the intentions of returnees to re-expatriate. The results support the brain circulation theory when they show that repatriation/reversing brain drain is not always an end point of the expatriation process.

The findings indicate that returnees intend to re-expatriate, for example, when they are pushed away from their home country and attracted back by pull forces from the host country, or if they are not happy at home when they experience RCS and poor general readjustment.

Second, expatriation research has been undertaken on SIEs from developed economies who are working abroad in similar or less-developed countries (e.g. Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010; Doherty et al., 2013b; Guo et al., 2013). This ignores a significant number of people whose home countries are in emerging economies and who have gone overseas, often to more developed economies for work, studies and/or other experiences before returning home to oftentimes, more hardship contexts in their home countries. There is a significant gap in the expatriation literature in understanding the phenomenon of SIEs from an emerging economy context (Al Ariss, 2010; Doherty et al., 2013b). This study sheds new light on understanding the experiences of an under-researched group in the expatriation literature, namely returnees from an emerging economy.

Third, most previous studies have focused on the simple pull-push theory (Toren, 1976), that explains why people expatriate for economic or career reasons (Tharenou & Seet, 2014). This study has extended pull-push theory by exploring not only career factors (e.g. career outcomes and career satisfaction) but also non-career factors (e.g. family outcomes) and psychological factors (e.g. home country embeddedness). This study suggests that re-expatriation intentions are not affected by career or economic related push forces (e.g. career outcomes and career dissatisfaction), but also non-economic factors (e.g. RCS, poor general readjustment, life dissatisfaction and family outcomes). The incorporation of these

factors is important as the re-expatriation decision is not only influenced by individuals themselves, but also by the values, beliefs and needs of their families, employers and country (Baruch, 1995; Baruch & Reis, 2015). The decision is also based on existing social structures and relationships (Guo et al., 2013; Richardson, 2006), and psychological factors (Tharenou & Seet, 2014).

Fourth, while several studies have explored what returnees experience on re-entry to their home country and what factors influence their re-entry experiences (e.g. Begley et al., 2008; Hansel, 1993; Pritchard, 2011), a few empirical studies have investigated the links of re-entry experiences with re-expatriation intentions (e.g. Caulfield, 2008; Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gill, 2005). These studies have small sample sizes which limit their generalisability. The current study enriches our understanding of how re-entry experiences, including RCS and cross-cultural readjustment, affect intentions to re-expatriate through using a larger sample size.

Fifth, prior studies (e.g. Baruch et al., 2007; Selmer & Luring, 2012) suggested the relevance of the TPB in explaining the expatriation/repatriation intentions. Nevertheless, prior studies have not examined the effects of the TPB variables – specifically, attitude toward re-expatriation, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control - on these intentions. This study is the first to test the application of the TPB in understanding re-expatriation intentions. This study suggests that if returnees have a positive attitude toward re-expatriation and perceive that other important people (e.g. parents, spouse and children) think that they should re-expatriate, returnees are more inclined to re-expatriate. However,

the re-expatriation intentions do not depend on how much control the returnees have over re-expatriation.

Finally, by integrating pull-push theory and the TPB, this study provides a better understanding on how pull-push forces indirectly affect re-expatriation intentions through the mediation of the TPB variables. According to Ajzen (2001; 2011), the three predictors of the TPB (attitude toward behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) are sufficient to explain an intention to conduct a behaviour. He argues that the links of other variables to an intention are fully mediated by the three predictors of the TPB. However, the results of this study show that attitude toward re-expatriation and subjective norm, but not perceived behavioural control, either fully or partially mediated the links of pull-push factors to intention to re-expatriate. Thus, this study contributes to our understanding of how pull-push theory integrates with the TPB in explaining re-expatriation intentions.

6.4. Practical implications

Vietnamese returnees who possess skills, advanced knowledge, international experience, and foreign language proficiency are valuable human resource resources for their home country (Gribble, 2011). The successful recruitment, motivation and retention of such employees will help firms gain significant competitive advantage (Björkman & Xiucheng, 2002). This study has a number of implications for Vietnamese governments and managers with respect to retaining these talented returnees.

First, Vietnamese government and managers need to encourage returnees to stay by ensuring returnees' re-entry experiences are positive. In particular, they need to develop repatriation programs that help returnees to deal with the issue of RCS because RCS has the strongest impact on returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. The main cause of RCS is that returnees do not expect to have significant difficulties in adjusting back to their home country as returnees think that their home country is not a new place to them (Thompson & Christofi, 2006). Returnees may expect to return to their former life-styles and former relationships with friends and colleagues. In reality, their expectations are not always met (Suutari & Brewster, 2003) and the unmet expectation leads to RCS. Another reason for RCS is that returnees have changed during their overseas experiences (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Gill, 2010). The new cultural values acquired abroad may be in conflict with the cultures of the home country. In addition, their home country may have changed (e.g. economic and political changes) while returnees were abroad (Christofi & Thompson, 2007; Haines, 2012). Returnees may be not aware of changes to themselves and their home country, which may lead to their discomfort on re-entry and their frustration and discomfort with the home environment (Martin & Harrell, 2004). Therefore, repatriation programs should focus on providing critical information that will help returnees have realistic expectations during repatriation. The information may include economic and political changes in the home country. Further, it also should involve information about how to utilise the skills and knowledge acquired abroad to achieve or advance their career goals. The programs should also help returnees understand how they have changed in terms of their values, life-style and views, which may help them avoid RCS when they return to Vietnam.

Second, Vietnamese government and managers can retain returnees by enhancing their career and community embeddedness through the three dimensions of embeddedness constructs: 1) *links*, 2) *fit* and 3) *sacrifices*. In terms of the *links* dimension, policies and practices need to be developed to encourage returnees to build links with their colleagues, family and community via organising team activities, after work socialisation and community involvement programs, including developing such activities and programs for their family members as well. With respect to the *fit* dimension, policies and practices need to focus on enhancing returnees' fit with their career and community in their home country. For example, managers need to utilise returnees' skills and knowledge acquired abroad and match them with appropriate tasks and projects. In regard to the *sacrifices* dimension, home country government and managers can create good work conditions, offer appropriate rewards and financial incentives. The support from their governments or organizations will lead returnees feel that they will be making huge sacrifices if they were to re-expatriate, thus they are less likely to re-expatriate.

Third, incentives and repatriation schemes are another way to lure back overseas Vietnamese and retain them in Vietnam (Gribble, 2011). The case from China illustrates one way to attract and retain returnees by repatriation schemes. In 2007, the Chinese government allocated funds to attract Chinese overseas graduates with urgently needed skills (Gribble, 2011). They also have the 'Hundred Talents program which aims to attract up to 2,000 top-level academics over 5 to 10 years by offering competitive salaries and research funding (Zweig, 2006). Chinese' repatriation schemes have attracted a large number of Chinese returnees and have helped them settle down in China (Zweig, 2006).

These Chinese returnees have contributed to the development of science and technology in private sector and to the research quality of top Chinese universities (Zweig & Han, 2010). Chinese government' incentives have been an effective way to attract Overseas Chinese talents back to China as these incentives overcome barriers to return (Tharenou & Seet, 2014). Further, these incentives also help narrow the salary gap between China and the West which reduce prospect of re-expatriation (Tharenou & Seet, 2014).

However, offering incentives (e.g. high salaries and housing allowance) is rare in Vietnam. There was one proposal by the Ministry of Education and Training in 2008 wich aims to attract Overseas Vietnamese scientists back to work in Vietnamese universities and institutions by offering attractive salary packages and research funding, but this proposal has not been implemented. In 2009, Vietnam set up the National Foundation for Science and Technology (NAFOSTED) with an annual budget of VND200 billion (US\$9.6 million) to fund Vietnamese researchers and encourage them to conduct world-class research in Vietnam (Le, 2013). Among awardees of NAFOSTED grants, many had already finished their studies abroad and pblished research in top international scientific journals (Le, 2013). However, the funding of NAFOSTED is limited and only helps a few research institutes and universities retain returnees in their organization. Thus, Vietnam needs to have more repatriation schemes to help returnees remain in the country.

Fourth, the Vietnamese government and managers need to create a good working environment for returnees as many returnees claim that they fail to stay in Vietnam because of a poor work environment. The Vietnamese government and managers need to provide better work conditions (e.g. research facilities), utilise their skills, and recognise their

contribution to retain these Vietnamese talents, and also to promote their contribution to the development of Vietnam (Dang et al., 2010; Gribble, 2011; Tran et al., 2014).

Vietnam can also learn from China and Taiwan which are countries that successfully attract talented returnees through creating good work environments in special zones or parks for returnees. Similarly, Taiwan established the Hsinchu Industrial Park which has a comparable work environment to the Silicon Valley in the US, which has been effective in attracting Taiwanese returnees (Gribble, 2011). Similarly, a lot of cities in China that have built incubators in their development zones or centres for returnees have recruited a large number of returnee scholars and scientists from overseas (Saxenian, 2005; Zweig, 2006).

Finally, the Vietnamese government needs to provide priority entry admission for returnees' children to key schools. The analysis of this study indicates that Vietnamese returnees have favorable attitudes toward re-expatriation in order to seek better education for their children in the host country. Thus, having preferential schooling policies for returnees can help them settle down in Vietnam.

6.5. Limitations of the study and future research

This study is subject to some limitations. First, the research focuses on intentions to re-expatriate, rather than actual re-expatriation. It relies on the TPB to suggest that a re-expatriation intention is the best predictor of actual re-expatriation. Additionally, this study does not investigate whether the relative importance of career and non-career outcomes to explain re-expatriation intentions differ from expatriation intention within a same sample. Future research should be longitudinal in nature in order to examine whether returnees

actually re-expatriate, and thus examine the relationship between intentions to re-expatriate and actual re-expatriation. Further, a longitudinal study needs to be conducted to compare the different stages of expatriation and re-expatriation.

Second, this study examined pull-push forces from the home country and pull forces from the host country, which affect returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. This study does not include push forces from the host country. Such forces include constraints or barriers from the host country (Bozionelos et al., 2015). The most common push forces from the host country include the lack of job opportunities (Gill, 2010) and lack of cultural assimilation resulting from language barriers and discrimination (Al Ariss, 2010; Wadhwa et al., 2009) and they also warrant further investigation. Future research should examine whether push forces from the host country influence returnees' intentions to re-expatriate.

Third, this study does not examine other pull forces from the host country that are not related to family or career outcomes but which may affect intentions to re-expatriate. These factors include, for example, re-expatriation to follow their spouse or partner, to care for their families in the host country, or to become a citizen of another country. Future research needs to examine whether other pull forces from the host country have impact on intentions to re-expatriate.

Fourth, this study does not compare the effect of the factors on re-expatriation intentions among different occupations. The factors that impact re-expatriation intentions may be different between occupations as some professionals, such as accountants and financial professionals, may have higher mobility than others (Benson & Pattie, 2008). Thus it may

be easier for these professionals to re-expatriate as they face fewer regulatory barriers (e.g., registration requirements) in order to work in other countries compared with other professionals, such as lawyers, doctors and other medical professionals. Therefore, the impact of factors on the intentions may differ between occupations with high mobility and those occupations with more regulatory hurdles (Benson & Pattie, 2008). Future research needs to compare the effects of factors on intentions to re-expatriate among different occupations.

Fifth, the sample in this study has a limited number of returnees with overseas work experience (N = 119 returnees). This study also recognises that gainful employment or employment intentions is an important criterion for delineating self-initiated expatriation/re-expatriation (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Doherty et al., 2013a). However, this study also acknowledges that in planning to re-expatriate, even if potential re-expatriates had employment intentions, just like returnees who have trouble securing gainful employment in their home countries (as discussed under home-country push factors above), self-initiated re-expatriates from developing countries may experience hurdles in the form of certification/registration requirements as well as experience other forms of “red-tape” in host locations that would limit their employability or lead to jobs in which their skills are underutilised or even (temporary) unemployment (Al Ariss, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Lee, 2005). Therefore, future research needs to incorporate the different employment experiences (both in the home and host countries) on re-expatriation intentions and outcomes of different groups of potential and/or actual re-expatriates.

Finally, the study is limited to one country, Vietnam and it did not examine cultural factors

(e.g. culture distance between the home and the host countries). As emerging economies differ widely, the generalisability of the research may be limited and data needs to be collected from different emerging economies to provide a better understanding of the factors that explain returnees' intention to re-expatriate, including the extent to which factors underlying intentions are similar or different between countries. Future research also needs to explore whether returnees re-expatriate to their previous host country or to a new country. Additionally, future research needs to examine whether cultural factors affect returnees' intention to re-expatriate. For example, a large cultural distance between the home and host countries might be related to more reverse cultural shock that returnees experience on re-entry (Szkudlarek, 2010), and also prompt their mobility between countries (Thorn et al., 2013).

6.6. Conclusion

This study investigated why returnees in an emerging economy, Vietnam, who had studied and/or worked abroad, and then returned to their home country, intend to re-expatriate. In the context of brain circulation theory, this study focuses on returnees' intentions to re-expatriate. This study integrated two key theoretical underpinnings, pull-push theory and the TPB, to explain their re-expatriation intentions. Other theories (e.g. expectancy theory, boundaryless careers theory, home country embeddedness, RCS and cross-cultural readjustment) were also used to explain particular pull-push forces or returnees' re-entry experiences. Therefore, this study has played a modest but important role in filling the research gap of better understanding the social, emotional and psychological challenges that

drive the behaviour of returnees in emerging economies when they return to their home countries.

Using path analysis on a sample of 433 Vietnamese returnees, the study indicated that pull forces from the host country and pull-push forces from the home country have an impact on the intentions to re-expatriate. There were three pull-push factors associated with home and host countries that had a significant impact on returnees' intention to re-expatriate: (1) dissatisfaction with career and life in their home country, (2) career and community embeddedness, and (3) expected career and non-career outcomes from re-expatriation. In terms of re-entry experiences, RCS had the strongest impact on intentions to re-expatriate while other re-entry factors had no significant effects (e.g. work readjustment and interaction readjustment) or weak effects (e.g. general readjustment). The findings also indicated that while some aspects of the TPB are supported in the Vietnamese context (including attitude toward re-expatriation and subjective norm), others like perceived behavioural control are more ambivalent. Additionally, attitude toward re-expatriation and/or subjective norm either fully or partially mediated the links of pull-push forces and RCS to intentions to re-expatriate.

The path analysis undertaken in this study suggests a more complex relationship at play and this reinforces the need for further research in this area. The results of this study will be critical for organizations and governments, especially those in emerging economies, to develop policies to alleviate skill shortages and to recruit and retain highly skilled returnees (Scullion et al., 2007).

Bibliography

- Aaker, D. A., Kumar, V., Day, G. S., & Leone, R. P. (2010). *Marketing Research* (10th ed.). Hoboken: Wiley.
- Adler, M. G., & Fagley, N. S. (2005). Appreciation: Individual Differences in Finding Value and Meaning as a Unique Predictor of Subjective Well-Being. *Journal of personality*, 73(1), 79-114.
- Adler, N. J. (1981). Re-Entry: Managing Cross-Cultural Transitions. *Group & Organization Management*, 6(3), 341-356.
- Adler, P. S. (1975). The Transitional Experience: An Alternative View of Culture Shock. *Journal of humanistic psychology*, 15(4), 13-23.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From Intentions to Actions: A Theory of Planned Behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action-Control: From Cognition to Behaviour* (pp. 11-39). Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Ajzen, I. (2001). Nature and Operation of Attitudes. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 27-58.
- Ajzen, I. (2006). Perceived Behavioral Control, Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of applied social psychology*, 32(4), 665-683.
- Ajzen, I. (2011). The Theory of Planned Behaviour: Reactions and Reflections. *Psychology & Health*, 26(9), 1113-1127.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior* (Vol. 278). Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall
- Al Ariss, A. (2010). Modes of Engagement: Migration, Self-Initiated Expatriation, and Career Development. *Career Development International*, 15(4), 338-358.
- Al Ariss, A., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2013). Self-Initiated Expatriation and Migration in the Management Literature: Present Theorizations and Future Research Directions. *Career Development International*, 18(1), 78-96.
- Al Ariss, A., & Özbilgin, M. (2010). Understanding Self-Initiated Expatriates: Career Experiences of Lebanese Self-Initiated Expatriates in France. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52(4), 275-285.
- Alberts, H. C., & Hazen, H. D. (2005). "There Are Always Two Voices...": International Students' Intentions to Stay in the United States or Return to Their Home Countries. *International Migration*, 43(3), 131-154.
- Allen, D. G. (2006). Do Organizational Socialization Tactics Influence Newcomer Embeddedness and Turnover? *Journal of Management*, 32(2), 237-256.
- Altman, Y., & Baruch, Y. (2012). Global Self-Initiated Corporate Expatriate Careers: A New Era in International Assignments? *Personnel Review*, 41(2), 233-255.
- Altman, Y., Baruch, Y., Vaiman, V., & Haslberger, A. (2013). Global Self-Initiated Corporate Careerists: What Drives Them and Implications for Hrm. In V. Vaiman & A. Haslberger (Eds.), *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent* (pp. 19-29). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Anderson, J., & Gerbing, D. (1988). Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.
- Andresen, M., Bergdolt, F., & Margenfeld, J. (2013). What Distinguishes Self-Initiated Expatriates from Assigned Expatriates and Migrants? A Literature-Based Definition and Differentiation of Terms. In M. Andresen, A. Al Ariss & M. Walther (Eds.), *Self-Initiated Expatriation: Individual, Organizational, and National Perspectives* (pp. 11-41). New York: Routledge.
- Andresen, M., Bergdolt, F., Margenfeld, J., & Dickmann, M. (2014). Addressing International Mobility Confusion—Developing Definitions and Differentiations for Self-Initiated and Assigned Expatriates as Well as Migrants. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(16), 2295-2318.
- Andresen, M., Biemann, T., & Pattie, M. W. (2015). What Makes Them Move Abroad? Reviewing and Exploring Differences between Self-Initiated and Assigned Expatriation. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(7), 932-947.
- Andresen, M., & Walther, M. (2013). Self-Initiated Repatriation at the Interplay between Field, Capital, and Habitus. In M. Andresen, A. A. Ariss & M. Walther (Eds.), *Self-Initiated Expatriation: Individual, Organizational, and National Perspectives*. New York: Routledge.
- Anh, D. N. (2003). Vietnam: Emergence of Return Skilled Migration. In R. Iredale, F. Guo & S. Rozario (Eds.), *Return Migration in the Asia Pacific* (pp. 136-168). Cheltenham, United Kingdom: Edward Elgar.
- Anwar, S., & Nguyen, L. P. (2010). Foreign Direct Investment and Economic Growth in Vietnam. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 16(1), 183-202.
- Arman, G. (2009). Repatriation Adjustment: Literature Review. *Journal of European Psychology Students*, 1, 1-6.
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Meta-Analytic Review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(4), 471-499.
- Armstrong, J., & Overton, T. (1977). Estimating Nonresponse Bias in Mail Surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14(3), 396-402.
- Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. (1996). *The Boundaryless Career: A New Employment Principle for a New Organizational Era*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Austin, C. N. (1989). *Cross-Cultural Reentry: A Book of Readings*: Abilene Christian University Press.
- Bach, S. (2011). Migration and International Hrm. In T. Edwards & C. Rees (Eds.), *International Human Resource Management: Globalization, National Systems and Multinational Companies* (2nd ed., pp. 272-293). Harlow: Pearson.
- Barrett, A., & O'Connell, P. (2001). Is There a Wage Premium for Returning Irish Migrants? *The Economic and Social Review*, 32(1), 1-22.
- Baruch, Y. (1995). Business Globalization - the Human Resource Management Aspect. *Human Systems Management*, 14, 313-326.
- Baruch, Y. (2006). Career Development in Organizations and Beyond: Balancing Traditional and Contemporary Viewpoints. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 125-138.

- Baruch, Y., & Altman, Y. (2002). Expatriation and Repatriation in Mncs: A Taxonomy. *Human Resource Management, 41*(2), 239-259.
- Baruch, Y., & Bozionelos, N. (2011). Career Issues. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *Industrial & Organizational Psychology Handbook* (Vol. 2, pp. 67-113). Washington, DC: APA.
- Baruch, Y., Budhwar, P. S., & Khatri, N. (2007). Brain Drain: Inclination to Stay Abroad after Studies. *Journal of World Business, 42*(1), 99-112.
- Baruch, Y., Dickmann, M., Altman, Y., & Bournois, F. (2013). Exploring International Work: Types and Dimensions of Global Careers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(12), 2369-2393.
- Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey Response Rate Levels and Trends in Organizational Research. *Human Relations, 61*(8), 1139-1160.
- Baruch, Y., & Reis, C. (2015). Global Career Challenges for Women Crossing International Borders. In A. M. Broadbridge & S. L. Fielden (Eds.), *Handbook of Gendered Careers in Management: Getting in, Getting on, Getting Out* (pp. 341-356). Massachusetts: Edward Elgar.
- Begley, A., Collings, D. G., & Scullion, H. (2008). The Cross-Cultural Adjustment Experiences of Self-Initiated Repatriates to the Republic of Ireland Labour Market. *Employee Relations, 30*(3), 264-282.
- Benson, G. S., & Pattie, M. (2008). Is Expatriation Good for My Career? The Impact of Expatriate Assignments on Perceived and Actual Career Outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19*(9), 1636-1653.
- Berry, D. P., & Bell, M. P. (2012). 'Expatriates': Gender, Race and Class Distinctions in International Management. *Gender, Work & Organization, 19*(1), 10-28.
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-Based and Time-Based Models of International Adjustment: Meta-Analytic Evidence and Theoretical Extensions. *The Academy of Management Journal, 48*(2), 257-281.
- Biemann, T., & Andresen, M. (2010). Self-Initiated Foreign Expatriates Versus Assigned Expatriates: Two Distinct Types of International Careers? *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*(4), 430-448.
- Björkman, I., & Xiucheng, F. (2002). Human Resource Management and the Performance of Western Firms in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 13*(6), 853-864.
- 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. (1994). O Kaerinasai: Factors Related to Japanese Repatriation Adjustment. *Human Relations, 47*(12), 1489-1508.
- Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (1991a). Antecedents to Cross-Cultural Adjustment for Expatriates in Pacific Rim Assignments. *Human Relations, 44*(5), 497-515.
- Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (1991b). 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). *So You're Coming Home*. San Diego, CA: Global Business Pub.

- Black, J. S., Gregersen, H. B., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1992). Toward a Theoretical Framework of Repatriation Adjustment. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(4), 737-760.
- Black, J. S., Gregersen, H. B., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1992b). *Global Assignments: Successfully Expatriating and Repatriating International Managers*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K. (1989). The Influence of the Spouse on American Expatriate Adjustment and Intent to Stay in Pacific Rim Overseas Assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15(4), 529.
- Blumberg, B., Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2011). *Business Research Methods* (3rd European ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.
- Bobko, P., Roth, P. L., & Buster, M. A. (2007). The Usefulness of Unit Weights in Creating Composite Scores a Literature Review, Application to Content Validity, and Meta-Analysis. *Organizational Research Methods*, 10(4), 689-709.
- Bossard, A. B., & Peterson, R. B. (2005). The Repatriate Experience as Seen by American Expatriates. *Journal of World Business*, 40(1), 9-28.
- Bozionelos, N., Bozionelos, G., Kostopoulos, K., Shyong, C.-H., Baruch, Y., & Zhou, W. (2015). International Graduate Students' Perceptions and Interest in International Careers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(11), 1428-1451.
- Brabant, S., Palmer, C. E., & Gramling, R. (1990). Returning Home: An Empirical Investigation of Cross-Cultural Reentry. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(4), 387-404.
- Brett, J. M., & Stroh, L. K. (1995). Willingness to Relocate Internationally. *Human Resource Management*, 34(3), 405-424.
- Briscoe, D. R., & Schuler, R. S. (2004). *International Human Resource Management* (2 ed.). London: Routledge.
- Brown, R. P. C., & Connell, J. (2004). The Migration of Doctors and Nurses from South Pacific Island Nations. *Social Science & Medicine*, 58(11), 2193-2210.
- Buglear, J. (2005). *Quantitative Methods for Business: The a-Z of Qm*. Amsterdam: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- 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.
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with Amos: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming* (2 ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Caligiuri, P. M., Hyland, M. A. M., Joshi, A., & Bross, A. S. (1998). Testing a Theoretical Model for Examining the Relationship between Family Adjustment and Expatriates' Work Adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(4), 598-614.
- Cameron, S., & Price, D. (2009). *Business Research Method: A Practical Approach*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Cao, C. (2008). China's Brain Drain at the High End. *Asian Population Studies*, 4(3), 331-345.
- Cao, L., Hirschi, A., & Deller, J. (2012). Self-Initiated Expatriates and Their Career Success. *Journal of Management Development*, 31(2), 159-172.

- Cao, L., Hirschi, A., & Deller, J. (2014). Perceived Organizational Support and Intention to Stay in Host Countries among Self-Initiated Expatriates: The Role of Career Satisfaction and Networks. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(14), 2013-2032.
- Carr, S. C., Inkson, K., & Thorn, K. (2005). From Global Careers to Talent Flow: Reinterpreting 'Brain Drain'. *Journal of World Business*, 40(4), 386-398.
- Caulfield, N. (2008). *Why Do Self-Initiated Expatriates Choose to Repatriate? An Examination of Skilled South Australians*. (Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation), University of South Australia, Adelaide.
- Cerdin, J.-L., & Le Pargneux, M. (2014). The Impact of Expatriates' Career Characteristics on Career and Job Satisfaction, and Intention to Leave: An Objective and Subjective Fit Approach. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(14), 2033-2049.
- Cerdin, J. L. (2013). Motivation of Self-Initiated Expatriates. In M. A. Anderson, A. Al Ariss & M. Walther (Eds.), *Self-Initiated Expatriation: Individual, Organizational, and National Perspectives* (pp. 59-74). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cerdin, J. L., & Selmer, J. (2014). Who Is a Self-Initiated Expatriate? Towards Conceptual Clarity of a Common Notion. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(9), 1281-1301.
- Chacko, E. (2007). From Brain Drain to Brain Gain: Reverse Migration to Bangalore and Hyderabad, India's Globalizing High Tech Cities. *GeoJournal*, 68(2), 131-140.
- Chamove, A. S., & Soeterik, S. M. (2006). Grief in Returning Sojourners. *Journal of Social Science*, 13(3), 215-220.
- Chang, M. K. (1998). Predicting Unethical Behavior: A Comparison of the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of business ethics*, 17(16), 1825-1834.
- Chang, S. L. (1992). Causes of Brain Drain and Solutions: The Taiwan Experience. *Studies in Comparative International Development (SCID)*, 27(1), 27-43.
- Chang, Y. (2009). A Qualitative Study of Temporary Reentry from Significant Others' Perspective. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 33(3), 259-263.
- Chen, S.-C., & Li, S.-H. (2010). Consumer Adoption of E-Service: Integrating Technology Readiness with the Theory of Planned Behavior. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(16), 3556-3563.
- Cheung, G. W., & Lau, R. S. (2008). Testing Mediation and Suppression Effects of Latent Variables Bootstrapping with Structural Equation Models. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(2), 296-325.
- Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating Goodness-of-Fit Indexes for Testing Measurement Invariance. *Structural equation modeling*, 9(2), 233-255.
- Chi, T., & Sun, Y. (2013). Development of Firm Export Market Oriented Behavior: Evidence from an Emerging Economy. *International Business Review*, 22(1), 339-350.
- Chia, S. Y. (2006). Labor Mobility and East Asian Integration. *Asian Economic Policy Review*, 1(2), 349-367.

- Christofi, V., & Thompson, C. L. (2007). You Cannot Go Home Again: A Phenomenological Investigation of Returning to the Sojourn Country after Studying Abroad. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 85*(1), 53-63.
- Churchill, J. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research, 16*(1), 64-73.
- Coakes, S. J., Steed, L. G., & Ong, C. (2010). *Spss : Analysis without Anguish : Version 17.0 for Windows*. Milton, Qld: John Wiley & Sons
- Conduit, J., & Mavondo, F. T. (2001). How Critical Is Internal Customer Orientation to Market Orientation? *Journal of Business Research, 51*(1), 11-24.
- Conner, M., & Armitage, C. J. (1998). Extending the Theory of Planned Behavior: A Review and Avenues for Further Research. *Journal of applied social psychology, 28*(15), 1429-1464.
- Conner, M., & McMillan, B. (1999). Interaction Effects in the Theory of Planned Behaviour: Studying Cannabis Use. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 38*(2), 195-222.
- Consular Department - Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Vietnam. (2012). Review of Vietnamese Migration Abroad. Hanoi: Consular Department - Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Vietnam.
- Cooper, A., Gomez, R., & Aucote, H. (2007). The Behavioural Inhibition System and Behavioural Approach System (Bis/Bas) Scales: Measurement and Structural Invariance across Adults and Adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences, 43*, 295–305.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business Research Methods* (8th ed.): Boston, McGraw-Hill, Irwin.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2011). *Business Research Methods* (11th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. L. (2008). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (3rd ed.). California: Sage Publications.
- Cox, J. B. (2004). The Role of Communication, Technology, and Cultural Identity in Repatriation Adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 28*, 201-219.
- Cox, P. L., Khan, R. H., & Armani, K. A. (2013). Repatriate Adjustment and Turnover: The Role of Expectations and Perceptions. *Review of Business & Finance Studies, 4*(1), 1-15.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3 ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Crossley, C. D., Bennett, R. J., Jex, S. M., & Burnfield, J. L. (2007). Development of a Global Measure of Job Embeddedness and Integration into a Traditional Model of Voluntary Turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 1031.
- Dang, N. A., Tran, T. B., Nguyen, N. Q., & Dao, T. S. (2010). Development on the Move: Measuring and Optimising Migration's Economic and Social Impacts in Viet Nam: GDN and IPSSR.
- Daskalaki, M. (2012). Personal Narratives and Cosmopolitan Identities an Autobiographical Approach. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 21*, 430-441.

- De Cieri, H., Sheehan, C., Costa, C., Fenwick, M., & Cooper, B. K. (2009). International Talent Flow and Intention to Repatriate: An Identity Explanation. *Human Resource Development International*, 12(3), 243-261.
- DeFillippi, R., & Arthur, M. (1996). Boundaryless Contexts and Careers: A Competency-Based Perspective. In M. B. Arthur & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *The Boundaryless Career: A New Employment Principle for a New Organizational Era*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- DeFillippi, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (2006). The Boundaryless Career: A Competency-Based Perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(4), 307-324.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of personality assessment*, 49(1), 71-75.
- Doherty, N. (2013). Understanding the Self-Initiated Expatriate: A Review and Directions for Future Research. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15, 447-469.
- Doherty, N., & Dickmann, M. (2013). Self-Initiated Expatriation: Drivers, Employment Experience, and Career Outcomes. In M. Andresen, A. Al Ariss & M. Walther (Eds.), *Self-Initiated Expatriation: Individual, Organizational, and National Perspectives* (pp. 122-142). New York: Routledge.
- Doherty, N., Dickmann, M., & Mills, T. (2011). Exploring the Motives of Company-Backed and Self-Initiated Expatriates. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(3), 595-611.
- Doherty, N., Richardson, J., & Thorn, K. (2013a). Self-Initiated Expatriation and Self-Initiated Expatriates: Clarification of the Research Stream. *Career Development International*, 18(1), 97-112.
- Doherty, N., Richardson, J., & Thorn, K. (2013b). Self-Initiated Expatriation: Career Experiences, Processes and Outcomes. *Career Development International*, 18(1), 6-11.
- Dorsch, M., Suutari, V., & Brewster, C. (2013). Research on Self-Initiated Expatriation: History and Future Directions. In M. Andresen, A. A. Ariss & M. Walther (Eds.), *Self-Initiated Expatriation: Individual, Organizational, and National Perspectives* (pp. 42-56). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Dustmann, C., Fadlon, I., & Weiss, Y. (2011). Return Migration, Human Capital Accumulation and the Brain Drain. *Journal of Development Economics*, 95(1), 58-67.
- Dustmann, C., & Weiss, Y. (2007). Return Migration: Theory and Empirical Evidence from the UK. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 45(2), 236-256.
- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The Psychology of Attitudes*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Enloe, W. (1986). Issues of Integration Abroad and Re-Adjustment to Japan of Japanese Returnees. *Hiroshima Forum for Psychology*, 11, 3-15.
- Eugenia Sánchez Vidal, M., Sanz Valle, R., Isabel Barba Aragón, M., & Brewster, C. (2007). Repatriation Adjustment Process of Business Employees: Evidence from Spanish Workers. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 31(3), 317-337.
- Fatimah, S., & Yusliza, L. S. (2013). You Are Kind, You Are Smart, You Are Important: The Linkages between Individual Factors and the Intention to Repatriate among

- Malaysian Self-Initiated Expatriates. *Journal of Social and Development Sciences*, 4(11), 498-507.
- Fee, A., & Karsaklian, E. (2013). Could International Volunteers Be Considered Ethical Consumers? A Cross-Discipline Approach to Understanding Motivations of Self-Initiated Expatriates. In V. Vaiman & A. Haslberger (Eds.), *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent* (pp. 88-116). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Felps, W., Mitchell, T. R., Hekman, D. R., Lee, T. W., Holtom, B. C., & Harman, W. S. (2009). Turnover Contagion: How Coworkers' Job Embeddedness and Job Search Behaviors Influence Quitting. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 52(3), 545-561.
- Ferro, A. (2006). Desired Mobility or Satisfied Immobility? Migratory Aspirations among Knowledge Workers. *Journal of Education and Work*, 19(2), 171-200.
- Finlay, J. L., Crutcher, R. A., & Drummond, N. (2011). 'Garang's Seeds': Influences on the Return of Sudanese-Canadian Refugee Physicians to Post-Conflict South Sudan. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 24(1), 187-206.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research *Reading*. MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 382-388.
- Frazer, L., & Lawley, M. (2000). *Questionnaire Design & Administration: A Practical Guide*. Brisbane: Wiley.
- Froese, F. J. (2012). Motivation and Adjustment of Self-Initiated Expatriates: The Case of Expatriate Academics in South Korea. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(6), 1095-1112.
- Fuchs, M. (2005). Children and Adolescents as Respondents. Experiments on Question Order, Response Order, Scale Effects and the Effect of Numeric Values Associated with Response Options. *Journal of Official Statistics*, 21(4), 701-725.
- Furr, M. (2011). *Scale Construction and Psychometrics for Social and Personality Psychology* London: SAGE.
- Furuya, N., Stevens, M. J., Bird, A., Oddou, G., & Mendenhall, M. (2008). Managing the Learning and Transfer of Global Management Competence: Antecedents and Outcomes of Japanese Repatriation Effectiveness. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40(2), 200-215.
- Gama, E. M. P., & Pedersen, P. (1977). Readjustment Problems of Brazilian Returnees from Graduate Studies in the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 1(4), 46-59.
- Gaw, K. F. (2000). Reverse Culture Shock in Students Returning from Overseas. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 24(1), 83-104.
- Gibson, J., & McKenzie, D. (2011). The Microeconomic Determinants of Emigration and Return Migration of the Best and Brightest: Evidence from the Pacific. *Journal of Development Economics*, 95(1), 18-29.

- Gill, B. (2005). Homeward Bound? The Experience of Return Mobility for Italian Scientists. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Science Research*, 18(3), 319-341.
- Gill, S. (2010). The Homecoming: An Investigation into the Effect That Studying Overseas Had on Chinese Postgraduates' Life and Work on Their Return to China. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 40(3), 359-376.
- Glavac, S. M. (2000). *A Longitudinal Analysis of Return Migration from Australia, 1982-1990*. (Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation), The University of Arizona, Ann Arbor.
- Gmelch, G. (1980). Return Migration. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 9, 135-159.
- Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, S., & Wormley, W. M. (1990). Effects of Race on Organizational Experience, Job Performance Evaluations, and Career Outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(1), 64-86.
- Gregersen, H. B., & Black, J. S. (1995). Global Executive Development: Keeping High Performers after International Assignments. *Journal of International Management*, 1(1), 3-31.
- Gregersen, H. B., & Stroh, L. K. (1997). Coming Home to the Arctic Cold: Antecedents to Finnish Expatriate and Spouse Repatriation Adjustment. *Personnel Psychology*, 50(3), 635-654.
- Gribble, C. (2011). National Policies on Skilled Labour and the Cross-Border Student Market, with a Focus on Vietnam. In S. Marginson, S. Kaur & E. Sawir (Eds.), *Higher Education in the Asia-Pacific* (Vol. 36, pp. 291-307). London New York: Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg
- Gullahorn, J. T., & Gullahorn, J. E. (1963). An Extension of the U-Curve Hypothesis. *Journal of Social Issues*, 19(3), 33-47.
- Güngör, N. D., & Tansel, A. (2008). Brain Drain from Turkey: An Investigation of Students' Return Intentions. *Applied Economics*, 40(23), 3069-3087.
- Guo, C., Porschitz, E. T., & Alves, J. (2013). Exploring Career Agency During Self-Initiated Repatriation: A Study of Chinese Sea Turtles. *Career Development International*, 18(1), 34-55.
- Guo, L., Xiao, J. J., & Tang, C. (2009). Understanding the Psychological Process Underlying Customer Satisfaction and Retention in a Relational Service. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(11), 1152-1159.
- Haines, D. (2012). "More Aware of Everything": Exploring the Returnee Experience in American Higher Education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 17(1), 19-38.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hall, P. (2005). Brain Drains and Brain Gains: Causes, Consequences, Policy. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 32(11), 939-950.
- Hammer, M. R., Hart, W., & Rogan, R. (1998). Can You Go Home Again? An Analysis of the Repatriation of Corporate Managers and Spouses. *Management International Review*, 38(1), 67-86.
- Hansel, B. (1993). *An Investigation of the Re-Entry Adjustment of Indians Who Studied in the U.S.A*. Occasional Papers in Intercultural Learning. The AFS Center for the

- Study of Intercultural Learning. New York. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED368290>
- Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical Mediation Analysis in the New Millennium. *Communication Monographs*, 76(4), 408-420.
- Ho, E. L.-E., & Ley, D. (2013). "Middling" Chinese Returnees or Immigrants from Canada? The Ambiguity of Return Migration and Claims to Modernity. *Asian Studies Review*, 38(1), 36-52.
- Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1988). The Confucius Connection: From Cultural Roots to Economic Growth. *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(4), 5-21.
- Holtom, B. C., & Inderrieden, E. J. (2006). Integrating the Unfolding Model and Job Embeddedness Model to Better Understand Voluntary Turnover. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 18(4), 435-452.
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. (2008). Structural Equation Modelling: Guidelines for Determining Model Fit. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 6(1), 53-60.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes in Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria Versus New Alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Hugo, G. (2005). The International Migration in Asia. *Asian Population Studies*, 1(1), 93-120.
- Hugo, G. (2006). An Australian Diaspora? *International Migration*, 44(1), 105-133.
- Iacobucci, D., Saldanha, N., & Deng, X. (2007). A Meditation on Mediation: Evidence That Structural Equations Models Perform Better Than Regressions. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 17(2), 139-153.
- Inkson, K., & Arthur, M. B. (2001). How to Be a Successful Career Capitalist. *Organizational Dynamics*, 30(1), 48-61.
- Inkson, K., Arthur, M. B., Pringle, J., & Barry, S. (1997). Expatriate Assignment Versus Overseas Experience: Contrasting Models of International Human Resource Development. *Journal of World Business*, 32(4), 351-368.
- Inkson, K., Carr, S. C., Allfree, N., Edwards, M. F., Hooks, J. J., Jackson, D. J., & Thorn, K. J. (2008). The Psychology of Migration and Talent Flow: A New Zealand Perspective. In A. Glendon, B. M. Thompson & B. Myers (Eds.), *Advances in Organisational Psychology* (pp. 301-318). Bowen Hills, Qld: Australian Academic Press.
- Inkson, K., & Myers, B. A. (2003). "The Big Oe": Self-Directed Travel and Career Development. *Career Development International*, 8, 170-181.
- International Monetary Fund. (2015). World Economic Outlook Database April 2015. Retrieved 5th May, from International Monetary Fund http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2015/01/weodata/weorept.aspx?pr.x=74&pr.y=12&sy=1998&ey=2015&scsm=1&ssd=1&sort=country&ds=.&br=1&c=110%2C200&s=NGDP_RPCH&grp=1&a=1
- IP, M. (2006). Returnees and Transnationals: Evolving Identities of Chinese (Prc) Immigrants in New Zealand. *Journal of Population Studies*(33), 61-102.
- Iqbal, M. (2000). Brain Drain: Empirical Evidence of Emigration of Canadian Professionals to the United States. *Canadian Tax Journal*, 48(3), 674-688.

- Jackson, D. J. R., Carr, S. C., Edwards, M., Thorn, K., Allfree, N., Hooks, J., & Inkson, K. (2005). Exploring the Dynamics of New Zealand's Talent Flow. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 34*(2), 110–116.
- Jain, S. (2012). For Love and Money: Second-Generation Indian-Americans 'Return' to India. *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 1*-19.
- Jiang, K., Liu, D., McKay, P. F., Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (2012). When and How Is Job Embeddedness Predictive of Turnover? A Meta-Analytic Investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(5), 1077.
- Jokinen, T., Brewster, C., & Suutari, V. (2008). Career Capital During International Work Experiences: Contrasting Self-Initiated Expatriate Experiences and Assigned Expatriation. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19*(6), 979-998.
- Jones, J. T., Whitaker, M., Seet, P. S., & Parkin, J. (2012). Talent Management in Practice in Australia: Individualistic or Strategic? An Exploratory Study. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 50*(4), 399-420.
- Kautonen, T., Van Gelderen, M., & Tornikoski, E. T. (2013). Predicting Entrepreneurial Behaviour: A Test of the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *Applied Economics, 45*(6), 697-707.
- Kenny, D. A., & McCoach, D. B. (2003). Effect of the Number of Variables on Measures of Fit in Structural Equation Modeling. *Structural Equation Modeling, 10*(3), 333-351.
- Kerner, M. S., & Grossman, A. H. (2001). Scale Construction for Measuring Attitude, Beliefs, Perception of Control, and Intention to Exercise. *Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness, 41*(1), 124-131.
- Kharas, H. (2010). *The Emerging Middle Class in Developing Countries*. Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- Khoo, S.-E. (2003). Sponsorship of Relatives for Migration and Immigrant Settlement Intention. *International Migration, 41*(5), 177-199.
- Kidder, L. H. (1992). Requirements for Being "Japanese": Stories of Returnees. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 16*(4), 383-393.
- Kim, H. W., Chan, H. C., & Chan, Y. P. (2007). A Balanced Thinking-Feelings Model of Information Systems Continuance. *International Journal of Human Computer Studies, 65*, 511-525.
- Kim, Y. Y. (1988). *Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation: An Integrative Theory*: Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.
- Kim, Y. Y. (2001). *Becoming Intercultural: An Integrative Theory of Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation*. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.
- Kinncar, T. C., Taylor, J. R., Johnson, L., & Armstrong, R. (1993). *Australian Marketing Research*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principle and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling* (3rd ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Konopaske, R., Robie, C., & Ivancevich, J. M. (2005). A Preliminary Model of Spouse Influence on Managerial Global Assignment Willingness. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 16*(3), 405-426.

- Krist, W. (2015). Why We Need the Trans-Pacific Partnership and How to Get It Right. Retrieved 10 September, 2015, from <http://www.fpri.org/articles/2015/05/why-we-need-trans-pacific-partnership-and-how-get-it-right>
- Kulkarni, M., Lengnick-Hall, M. L., & Valk, R. (2010). Employee Perceptions of Repatriation in an Emerging Economy: The Indian Experience. *Human Resource Management, 49*(3), 531-548.
- Kvint, V. L. v. (2009). *The Global Emerging Market Strategic Management and Economics*. New York: Routledge.
- Kwortnik, R. J., & Ross, W. T. (2007). The Role of Positive Emotions in Experiential Decisions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 24*, 324-335.
- Labrianidis, L., & Vogiatzis, N. (2012). Highly Skilled Migration: What Differentiates the 'Brains' Who Are Drained from Those Who Return in the Case of Greece? *Population, Space and Place, 19*(5), 472-486.
- Lambert, D. M., & Harrington, T. C. (1990). Measuring Nonresponse Bias in Customer Service Mail Surveys. *Journal of Business Logistics, 11*(2), 5-25.
- Lane, I. M., Mathews, R. C., & Presholdt, P. H. (1988). Determinants of Nurses' Intentions to Leave Their Profession. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9*(4), 367-372.
- Le, A. (2014). *Vietnamese International Student Repatriates: An Exploratory Study*. (Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation), University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, Nebraska. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1185&context=cehsedaddiss>
- Le, T. H. (2013). Scientists Encouraged to Return Home. Retrieved 24 September, 2015, from <http://vietnamnews.vn/sunday/features/236423/scientists-encouraged-to-return-home.html>
- Lee, C. H. (2005). A Study of Underemployment among Self-Initiated Expatriates. *Journal of World Business, 40*(2), 172-187.
- Lee, H.-W., & Liu, C.-H. (2007). An Examination of Factors Affecting Repatriates' Turnover Intentions. *International Journal of Manpower, 28*(2), 122-134.
- Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablinski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). The Effects of Job Embeddedness on Organizational Citizenship, Job Performance, Volitional Absences, and Voluntary Turnover. *The Academy of Management Journal, 47*(5), 711-722.
- Ley, D., & Kobayashi, A. (2005). Back to Hong Kong: Return Migration or Transnational Sojourn? *Global Networks, 5*(2), 111-127.
- Lidgard, J. M. (1994). Return Migration of New Zealanders: A Profile of 1990 Returnees. *New Zealand Journal of Geography, 97*(1), 3-13.
- Lidgard, J. M. (2001). Return Migration of New Zealanders: A Profile of Returnees in 2000. *New Zealand Journal of Geography, 112*(1), 10-17.
- Lleras, C. (2005). Path Analysis. *Encyclopedia of social measurement, 3*, 25-30.
- Lo, K. I. H., Wong, I. K. A., Yam, C. M. R., & Whitfield, R. (2012). Examining the Impacts of Community and Organization Embeddedness on Self-Initiated Expatriates: The Moderating Role of Expatriate-Dominated Private Sector. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23*(20), 4211-4230.

- Lounsbury, J. W., Park, S.-H., Sundstrom, E., Williamson, J. M., & Pemberton, A. E. (2004). Personality, Career Satisfaction, and Life Satisfaction: Test of a Directional Model. *Journal of Career Assessment, 12*(4), 395-406.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A Comparison of Methods to Test Mediation and Other Intervening Variable Effects. *Psychological methods, 7*(1), 83-104.
- Mai, A., Bilbard, L., & Som, A. (2009). Conducting Business in Vietnam: A Brief for International Managers. *Global Business and Organizational Excellence, 28*(3), 55-78.
- Malhotra, N. K. (1999). *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Malhotra, N. K., Hall, J., Shaw, M., & Oppenheim, P. (2002). *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation* (2nd ed.). NSW: Prentice Hall.
- Manning, C., & Sidorenko, A. (2007). The Regulation of Professional Migration: Insights from the Health and It Sectors in Asean. *The World Economy, 30*(7), 1084-1113.
- Martin, J. N. (1984). The Intercultural Reentry: Conceptualization and Directions for Future Research. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 8*(2), 115-134.
- Martin, J. N., & Harrell, T. (2004). Intercultural Reentry of Students and Professionals. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett & M. J. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of Intercultural Training* (3 ed., pp. 309-336). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.
- McDonnell, A., & Karsaklian, E. (2013). Could International Volunteers Be Considered Ethical Consumers? A Cross-Discipline Approach to Understanding Motivations of Self-Initiated Expatriates. In V. Vaiman & A. Haslberger (Eds.), *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent* (pp. 88-116). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- McDonnell, A., Scullion, H., Vaiman, V., & Haslberger, A. (2013). Self-Initiated Expatriate's Adjustment: A Neglected Terrain. In V. Vaiman & A. Haslberger (Eds.), *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent* (pp. 136-155). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- McEachan, R. R. C., Conner, M., Taylor, N. J., & Lawton, R. J. (2011). Prospective Prediction of Health-Related Behaviours with the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Meta-Analysis. *Health Psychology Review, 5*(2), 97-144.
- McNulty, Y. (2013). Are Self-Initiated Expatriates Born or Made? Exploring the Relationship between Sie Orientation and Individual Roi. In V. Vaiman & A. Haslberger (Eds.), *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent* (pp. 30-58). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Melton, H. L., & Hartline, M. D. (2013). Employee Collaboration, Learning Orientation, and New Service Development Performance. *Journal of Service Research, 16*(1), 67-81.
- Mîndrilă, D. (2010). Maximum Likelihood (Ml) and Diagonally Weighted Least Squares (Dwls) Estimation Procedures: A Comparison of Estimation Bias with Ordinal and Multivariate Non-Normal Data. *International Journal of Digital Society, 1*(1), 60-66.
- Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and Family Therapy*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why People Stay: Using Job Embeddedness to Predict Voluntary Turnover. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1102-1121.
- Monteleone, S., & Torrissi, B. (2011). Geographical Analysis of the Academic Brain Drain in Italy. *Scientometrics*, 93(2), 413-430.
- Moons, A., & Pelsmacker, P. D. (2012). Emotions as Determinants of Electric Car Usage Intention. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28(3-4), 195-237.
- Munro, S., Lewin, S., Swart, T., & Volmink, J. (2007). A Review of Health Behaviour Theories: How Useful Are These for Developing Interventions to Promote Long-Term Medication Adherence for Tb and Hiv/Aids? *BMC public health*, 7(1), 104.
- Myers, B., & Inkson, K. (2003). The Big Oe: How It Works and What It Can Do for New Zealand. *University of Auckland Business Review*, 5(1), 44-54.
- Myers, B., & Pringle, J. K. (2005). Self-Initiated Foreign Experience as Accelerated Development: Influences of Gender. *Journal of World Business*, 40(4), 421-431.
- Nam, T. B. (2005). Vietnam: Mobilizing Overseas Vietnamese Human Capital to Promote Economic Growth in Vietnam. Retrieved 3 February, 2015, from http://www.afgventuregroup.com/asian_analysis/Vietnam-%20Mobilizing%20Overseas%20Vietnamese%20Human%20Capital%20to%20Promote%20Economic%20Growth%20in%20Vietnam.php
- Näsholm, M. H. (2012). Global Careerists' Identity Construction: A Narrative Study of Repeat Expatriates and International Itinerants. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 5, 804-812.
- National Bureau of Statistics of P.R. China. (2011). *China Statistical Yearbook 2011*.
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (7th ed.). Essex: Pearson Education.
- Nguyen, C. H. (2005). *Brain Drain, Brain Gain and Brain Circulation. To Stay or to Return? Brain Drain or Brain Gain?* (Master Thesis), The University of Queensland, Queensland.
- Nguyen, C. H. (2013). Vietnamese International Student Mobility: Past and Current Trends. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, 2(2), 127-148.
- Nguyen, C. H. (2014). Development and Brain Drain: A Review of Vietnamese Labour Export and Skilled Migration. *Migration and Development*, 3(2), 181-202.
- Nguyen, M. L. T. (2012). Vietnamese Students' Transitions in Study Abroad Programs. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 21(3), 13-22.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3rd ed.). Sydney: McGraw-Hill.
- Oberg, K. (1960). Culture Shock: Adjustment to New Cultural Environment. *Practical Anthropologist*, 7, 177-182.
- OECD. (2008). Return Migration: A New Perspective. *International Migration Outlook 2008*: OECD. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/migr_outlook-2008-7-en.
- Onwumehili, C., Nwosu, P. O., Jackson, R. L., & James-Hughes, J. (2003). In the Deep Valley with Mountains to Climb: Exploring Identity and Multiple Reacculturation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27(1), 41-62.
- Oommen, T. K. (1989). India: 'Brain Drain' or the Migration of Talent? *International Migration*, 27(3), 411-425.

- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2009). *The Future of International Migration to Oecd Countries*. Paris: OECD.
- Park, H. S., & Smith, S. W. (2007). Distinctiveness and Influence of Subjective Norms, Personal Descriptive and Injunctive Norms, and Societal Descriptive and Injunctive Norms on Behavioral Intent: A Case of Two Behaviors Critical to Organ Donation. *Human Communication Research, 33*(2), 194-218.
- Parutis, V. (2013). Returning “Home”: East European Migrants' Discourses of Return. *International Migration, 52*(5), 159-177.
- Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (2008). The Satisfaction with Life Scale and the Emerging Construct of Life Satisfaction. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 3*(2), 137-152.
- Peltokorpi, V., & Jintae Froese, F. (2009). Organizational Expatriates and Self-Initiated Expatriates: Who Adjusts Better to Work and Life in Japan? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 20*(5), 1096-1112.
- Perugini, M., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2001). The Role of Desires and Anticipated Emotions in Goal-Directed Behaviours/Broadening and Deeping the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 40*, 79-98.
- Pham, A. T. (2010). The Returning Diaspora: Analyzing Overseas Vietnamese (Viet Kieu) Contributions toward Vietnam’s Economic Growth *Working Paper Series No. 2011/20: DEPOCEN*.
- Pinto, L. H., Cabral-Cardoso, C., & Werther Jr, W. B. (2012). Compelled to Go Abroad? Motives and Outcomes of International Assignments. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23*(11), 2295-2314.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects. *Journal of Management, 12*(4), 531-544.
- Prestholdt, P. H., Lane, I. M., & Mathews, R. C. (1987). Nurse Turnover as Reasoned Action: Development of a Process Model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(2), 221.
- Primack, B. A., Switzer, G. E., & Dalton, M. A. (2007). Improving Measurement of Normative Beliefs Involving Smoking among Adolescents. *Archives of pediatrics & adolescent medicine, 161*(5), 434.
- Pritchard, R. (2011). Reentry Trauma: Asian Reintegration after Study in the West. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 15*(1), 93-111.
- Quang, T. (2013). *Vietnam: An Emerging Economy at a Crossroads*. Working paper. Maastricht school of management. Retrieved from <ftp://ftp.repec.org/opt/ReDIF/RePEc/msm/wpaper/MSM-WP2013-09.pdf>
- Quinlan, C. (2011). *Business Research Methods*. Hampshire: Cengage Learning EMEA.
- Ren, H., Bolino, M. C., Shaffer, M. A., & Kraimer, M. L. (2013). The Influence of Job Demands and Resources on Repatriate Career Satisfaction: A Relative Deprivation Perspective. *Journal of World Business, 48*(1), 149-159.
- Richardson, J. (2006). Self-Directed Expatriation: Family Matters. *Personnel Review, 35*(4), 469-486.

- Richardson, J., & Mallon, M. (2005). Career Interrupted? The Case of the Self-Directed Expatriate. *Journal of World Business*, 40(4), 409-420.
- Richmond, A. H. (1968). Return Migration from Canada to Britain. *Population Studies*, 22(2), 263-271.
- Rivis, A., & Sheeran, P. (2003). Descriptive Norms as an Additional Predictor in the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Meta-Analysis. *Current Psychology*, 22(3), 218-233.
- Sandberg, T., & Conner, M. (2008). Anticipated Regret as an Additional Predictor in the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Meta-Analysis. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 47, 589-606.
- Saxenian, A. (2005). From Brain Drain to Brain Circulation: Transnational Communities and Regional Upgrading in India and China. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 40(2), 35-61.
- Schulmann, P. (2014). Trends in Vietnamese Academic Mobility. Retrieved 27 September, 2015, from <http://wenr.wes.org/2014/06/trends-in-vietnamese-academic-mobility-opportunities-for-u-s-institutions/>
- Schulze, R., & Wittmann, W. W. (2003). A Meta-Analysis of the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior: The Principle of Compatibility and Multidimensionality of Beliefs as Moderators. In R. Schulze, H. Holling & D. Bohning (Eds.), *Meta-Analysis: New Developments and Applications in Medical and Social Sciences* (pp. 219–250). Seattle, WA: Hogrefe & Huber.
- Schwarz, N., Knäuper, B., Hippler, H.-J., Noelle-Neumann, E., & Clark, L. (1991). Rating Scales Numeric Values May Change the Meaning of Scale Labels. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 55(4), 570-582.
- Scullion, H., Collings, D. G., & Gunnigle, P. (2007). International Human Resource Management in the 21st Century: Emerging Themes and Contemporary Debates. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 17(4), 309-319.
- Searle, W., & Ward, C. (1990). The Prediction of Psychological and Sociocultural Adjustment During Cross-Cultural Transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(4), 449-464.
- Seiter, J. S., & Waddell, D. (1989). *The Intercultural Reentry Process: Reentry Shock, Locus of Control, Satisfaction, and Interpersonal Uses of Communication*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Western Speech Communication Association, Spokane, WA.
- Selmer, J. (2004). Psychological Barriers to Adjustment of Western Business Expatriates in China: Newcomers Vs Long Stayers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(4-5), 794-813.
- Selmer, J., & Luring, J. (2012). Reasons to Expatriate and Work Outcomes of Self-Initiated Expatriates. *Personnel Review*, 41(5), 665-684.
- Shaffer, M. A., Kraimer, M. L., Chen, Y. P., & Bolino, M. C. (2012). Choices, Challenges, and Career Consequences of Global Work Experiences a Review and Future Agenda. *Journal of Management*, 38(4), 1282-1327.
- Sheeran, P., Trafimow, D., Finlay, K. A., & Norman, P. (2002). Evidence That the Type of Person Affects the Strength of the Perceived Behavioural Control-Intention Relationship. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(2), 253-270.

- Shook, C. L., & Bratianu, C. (2010). Entrepreneurial Intent in a Transitional Economy: An Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior to Romanian Students. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 6(3), 231-247.
- Singh, S. (Ed.). (2010). *Handbook of Business Practices and Growth in Emerging Markets*: World Scientific, New Jersey.
- Sniehotta, F. F., Presseau, J., & Araújo-Soares, V. (2014). Time to Retire the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *Health Psychology Review*, 8(1), 1-7.
- Solimano, A. (2008). Causes and Consequences of Talent Mobility. In A. Solimano (Ed.), *The International Mobility of Talent: Types, Causes, and Development Impact* (pp. 1-23). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Soon, J.-J. (2010). When Do Students Intend to Return? Determinants of Students' Return Intentions Using a Multinomial Logit Model. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 11(1), 17-32.
- Sreeleakha, P. (2014). Managing Culture Shock and Reverse Culture Shock of Indian Citizenship Employees. *International Journal Management Practice*, 7(3), 250-274.
- Stevens, M. J., Oddou, G., Furuya, N., Bird, A., & Mendenhall, M. (2006). Hr Factors Affecting Repatriate Job Satisfaction and Job Attachment for Japanese Managers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(5), 831-841.
- Straubhaar, T. (2000). *International Mobility of the Highly Skilled: Brain Gain, Brain Drain or Brain Exchange*. Discussion Paper. Hamburgisches Welt-Wirtschafts-Archiv (HWWA). Hamburg.
- Stroh, L. K. (1995). Predicting Turnover among Repatriates: Can Organizations Affect Retention Rates? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6(2), 443-456.
- Super, D. E., Savickas, M. L., & Super, C. M. (1996). The Life-Span, Life-Space Approach to Careers. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.), *Career Choice and Development* (pp. 121-178). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- 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. (2001). Repatriation Transitions: Psychological Preparedness, Cultural Identity, and Attributions among American Managers. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25(2), 109-123.
- 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.
- Suutari, V., & Brewster, C. (2000). Making Their Own Way: International Experience through Self-Initiated Foreign Assignments. *Journal of World Business*, 35(4), 417-436.
- Suutari, V., & Brewster, C. (2003). Repatriation: Empirical Evidence from a Longitudinal Study of Careers and Expectations among Finnish Expatriates. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(7), 1132-1151.
- Suutari, V., Brewster, C., & Tornikoski, C. (2013). The Careers of Self-Initiated Expatriates. In V. Vaiman & A. Haslberger (Eds.), *Talent Management of Self-*

- Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent* (pp. 159-180). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Suutari, V., & Valimaa, K. (2002). Antecedents of Repatriation Adjustment: New Evidence from Finnish Repatriates. *International Journal of Manpower*, 23(7), 617-634.
- Szkudlarek, B. (2010). Reentry—a Review of the Literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34(1), 1-21.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Tarkiainen, A., & Sundqvist, S. (2005). Subjective Norms, Attitudes and Intentions of Finnish Consumers in Buying Organic Food. *British Food Journal*, 107(11), 808-822.
- Teng, Y.-M., Wu, K.-S., & Liu, H.-H. (2013). Integrating Altruism and the Theory of Planned Behavior to Predict Patronage Intention of a Green Hotel. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*.
- Tharenou, P. (2003). The Initial Development of Receptivity to Working Abroad: Self-Initiated International Work Opportunities in Young Graduate Employees. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76(4), 489-515.
- Tharenou, P. (2008). Disruptive Decisions to Leave Home: Gender and Family Differences in Expatriation Choices. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 105(2), 183-200.
- Tharenou, P. (2009). Self-Initiated International Careers: Gender Differences and Career Outcomes. In G. Baugh & S. Sullivan (Eds.), *Maintaining Energy, Focus and Options over the Career: Research in Careers* (Vol. 1, pp. 197-226). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Tharenou, P. (2010). Identity and Global Mobility. In S. C. Carr (Ed.), *The Psychology of Global Mobility* (1st ed., pp. 105-123). New York, NY: Springer.
- Tharenou, P. (2015a). Chinese International Business Graduates: A Career Dilemma: Repatriate or Stay? *Journal of Management and Organization*, 21(01), 37-59.
- Tharenou, P. (2015b). Researching Expatriate Types: The Quest for Rigorous Methodological Approaches. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 25(2), 149-165.
- Tharenou, P., & Caulfield, N. (2010). Will I Stay or Will I Go? Explaining Repatriation by Self-Initiated Expatriates. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(5), 1009-1028.
- Tharenou, P., & Seet, P.-S. (2014). China's Reverse Brain Drain: Regaining and Retaining Talent. *Journal of International Studies of Management & Organisation*, 44(2), 55-74.
- The Vietnamese Government. (2006). *Decree on Detailing and Guiding the Implementation of the Housing Law*. (90/2006/ND-CP). Hanoi: Retrieved from http://moj.gov.vn/vbpq/en/Lists/Vn%20bn%20php%20lut/View_Detail.aspx?ItemID=4995.
- The Vietnamese Government. (2007). *Decision on Visa Exemption for Vietnamese Residents Overseas*. (135/2007/QĐ-TTg). Hanoi: Retrieved from <http://mienthithucvk.mofa.gov.vn/H%C6%B0%E1%BB%9Bngd%E1%BA%ABn/Quich%E1%BA%BFmi%E1%BB%85nth%E1%BB%8Bth%E1%BB%B1c/tabid/112/Default.aspx>.

- The Vietnamese Ministry of Finance. (2015). Advantages and Challenges for Vietnam to Join Tpp. Retrieved 10 September, 2015, from https://translate.google.com/translate?sl=vi&tl=en&js=y&prev=_t&hl=vi&ie=UTF-8&u=http%3A%2F%2F**Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**
- The World Bank. (2012). Vietnam Development Report 2012: An Overview. Retrieved 10 September, 2015, from <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/EASTASIAPACIFICEXT/VIETNAMEXTN/0,,contentMDK:23087025~pagePK:141137~piPK:141127~theSitePK:387565,00.html>
- The World Bank. (2015). World Development Indicator Database. Retrieved 5 May 2015, from The World Bank <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG/countries?display=default>
- Thompson, C., & Christofi, V. (2006). Can You Go Home Again? A Phenomenological Investigation of Cypriot Students Returning Home after Studying Abroad. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 28(1), 21-39.
- Thorn, K. (2009). The Relative Importance of Motives for International Self-Initiated Mobility. *Career Development International*, 14(5), 441-464.
- Thorn, K., Inkson, K., & Carr, S. (2013). New Constructs for the Prediction of Self-Initiated International Mobility: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Pacific Rim Psychology*, 7(01), 24-35.
- Toren, N. (1976). Return to Zion: Characteristics and Motivations of Returning Emigrants. *Social Forces*, 54(3), 546-558.
- Tran, L. T., Marginson, S., & Nguyen, N. T. (2014). Internationalization. In L. Tran, S. Marginson, H. Do, Q. Do, T. Le, N. Nguyen, T. Vu, T. Pham & H. Nguyen (Eds.), *Higher Education in Vietnam: Flexibility, Mobility and Practicality in the Global Knowledge Economy* (pp. 127-151). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Tung, R. L. (2007). The Human Resource Challenge to Outward Foreign Direct Investment Aspirations from Emerging Economies: The Case of China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(5), 868-889.
- Tung, R. L. (2008). Brain Circulation, Diaspora, and International Competitiveness. *European Management Journal*, 26(5), 298-304.
- Tzeng, R. (2006). Reverse Brain Drain. *Asian Population Studies*, 2(3), 239-256.
- Uehara, A. (1986). The Nature of American Student Reentry Adjustment and Perceptions of the Sojourn Experience. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 10(4), 415-438.
- UNCTAD. (2015). Unctad Statistical Database. Retrieved 5 May 2015, from UNCTAD <http://unctadstat.unctad.org/ReportFolders/reportFolders.aspx>
- UNESCO. (2015). Data Centre Unesco Institute of Statistics. Retrieved 27 February 2015 <http://www.uis.unesco.org>
- Van Breukelen, W., Van der Vlist, R., & Steensma, H. (2004). Voluntary Employee Turnover: Combining Variables from the 'Traditional' Turnover Literature with the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(7), 893-914.
- Van Hear, N. (2014). Reconsidering Migration and Class. *International Migration Review*, 48(s1), S100-S121.

- Vance, C. M. (2005). The Personal Quest for Building Global Competence: A Taxonomy of Self-Initiating Career Path Strategies for Gaining Business Experience Abroad. *Journal of World Business*, 40(4), 374-385.
- Vidal, M. E. S., Valle, R. S., & Aragón, M. I. B. (2007). Antecedents of Repatriates' Job Satisfaction and Its Influence on Turnover Intentions: Evidence from Spanish Repatriated Managers. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(12), 1272-1281.
- Vidal, M. E. S., Valle, R. S., & Aragón, M. I. B. (2010). Analysis of the Repatriation Adjustment Process in the Spanish Context. *International Journal of Manpower*, 31(1), 21-41.
- Vietnamese National Assembly. (2008). *Law on Vietnamese Nationality*. (24/2008/QH12). Hanoi: Retrieved from http://www.moj.gov.vn/vbpq/en/Lists/Vn%20bn%20php%20lut/View_Detail.aspx?ItemID=10451.
- Vietnamnet. (2011). More Return to Viet Nam after Overseas Study. Retrieved 15 February, 2012, from <http://english.vietnamnet.vn/en/education/12587/more-return-to-viet-nam-after-overseas-study.html>
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Wadhwa, V., Jain, S., Saxenian, A., Gereffi, G., & Wang, H. (2011). *The Grass Is Indeed Greener in India and China for Returnee Entrepreneurs: America's New Immigrant Entrepreneurs - Part Vi*. Working Paper. Rochester. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/864223161?accountid=10910>
- Wadhwa, V., Saxenian, A. L., Freeman, R., Gereffi, G., & Salkever, A. (2009). America's Loss Is the World's Gain: America's New Immigrant Entrepreneurs. Kannas: Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation.
- Wall, A. M., Hinson, R. E., & McKee, S. A. (1998). Alcohol Outcome Expectancies, Attitudes toward Drinking and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs*, 59(4), 409.
- Wang, X. (2011). The Role of Anticipated Negative Emotions and Past Behavior in Individuals' Physical Activity Intentions and Behaviors. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 12(3), 300-305.
- Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). *The Psychology of Culture Shock* (2 ed.). London: Routledge.
- Ward, C., & Chang, W. C. (1997). "Cultural Fit": A New Perspective on Personality and Sojourner Adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 21(4), 525-533.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1993a). Psychological and Socio-Cultural Adjustment During Cross-Cultural Transitions: A Comparison of Secondary Students Overseas and at Home. *International Journal of Psychology*, 28(2), 129-147.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1993b). Where's the "Culture" in Cross-Cultural Transition? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24(2), 221-249.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1994). Acculturation Strategies, Psychological Adjustment, and Sociocultural Competence During Cross-Cultural Transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18(3), 329-343.
- Ward, C., & Rana-Deuba, A. (1999). Acculturation and Adaptation Revisited. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 30(4), 422-442.

- Ward, C., & Searle, W. (1991). The Impact of Value Discrepancies and Cultural Identity on Psychological and Sociocultural Adjustment of Sojourners. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15(2), 209-224.
- Warshaw, P. R., & Davis, F. D. (1985). The Accuracy of Behavioral Intention Versus Behavioral Expectation for Predicting Behavioral Goals. *The Journal of psychology*, 119(6), 599-602.
- Wielkiewicz, R. M., & Turkowski, L. W. (2010). Reentry Issues Upon Returning from Study Abroad Programs. *Journal of College Student Development*, 51(6), 649-664.
- Wilson, D., & Dragusanu, R. (2008). *The Expanding Middle: The Exploding World Middle Class and Falling Global Inequality*. New York, NY: Goldman Sachs.
- Yoshida, T., Matsumoto, D., Akiyama, T., Moriyoshi, N., Furuiye, A., & Ishii, C. (2003). Peers' Perceptions of Japanese Returnees. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27(6), 641-658.
- Yousafzai, S. Y., Foxall, G. R., & Pallister, J. G. (2010). Explaining Internet Banking Behavior: Theory of Reasoned Action, Theory of Planned Behavior, or Technology Acceptance Model? *Journal of applied social psychology*, 40(5), 1172-1202.
- Zhang, M., Fried, D. D., & Griffeth, R. W. (2012). A Review of Job Embeddedness: Conceptual, Measurement Issues, and Directions for Future Research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 22(3), 220-231.
- Zhao, X., Sayeed, S., Cappella, J., Hornik, R., Fishbein, M., & Ahern, R. K. (2006). Targeting Norm-Related Beliefs About Marijuana Use in an Adolescent Population. *Health communication*, 19(3), 187-196.
- Zikmund, W. G., Ward, S., Lowe, B., Winzar, H., & Babin, B. (2011). *Marketing Research* (2nd ed.). Australia: Cengage Learning.
- Zink, E. (2013). The Science of Returning Home: A Study of Vietnamese Scientists. In L. Alexandrova & D. Belyaev (Eds.), *The "Knowledge Society" — a Glocal Challenge*. Toronto: Mind & Time Publications.
- Zweig, D. (1997). To Return or Not to Return? Politics Vs. Economics in China's Brain Drain. *Studies in Comparative International Development (SCID)*, 32(1), 92-125.
- Zweig, D. (2006). Learning to Compete: China's Efforts to Encourage a "Reverse Brain Drain". In C. Kuptsch & E. F. Pang (Eds.), *Competing for Global Talent* (pp. 187-214). Geneva: International Institute for Labour Studies.
- Zweig, D., Chung, S., & Vanhonacker, W. (2006). Rewards of Technology: Explaining China's Reverse Migration. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 7(4), 449-471.
- Zweig, D., & Han, D. (2010). "Sea Turtles" or "Seaweed?" the Employment of Overseas Returnees in China. In C. Kuptsch (Ed.), *The Internationalization of Labour Markets* (pp. 89-104). Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Summary of the measurement of key constructs

CONSTRUCT	ORIGINAL MEASURE	FINAL MEASURE	QN
Career embeddedness	<p>Career embeddedness (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010)</p> <p>To what extent would these be sacrifices or losses for you if you repatriated from abroad?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The career and employment opportunities I have here/abroad 2. The money I earn or can earn here/abroad 3. The business opportunities I have here/abroad <p>How much do you agree with these statements with respect to the country you live in? (fit)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. My career needs fit with the opportunities available in this country 5. My professional growth and development fits with what is happening in this country 6. My career plans do not fit with what is available back home (reversed) 7. I have needs for international experience met by the opportunities in this country <p>With respect to your employment abroad: (Links)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. How long have you worked for your present employer? Up to 2 years (1), 2 to 5 years (2), 5 to 10 years (3), 10 to 15 years (4), 15 to 20 years (5), 20 or more years (6). 9. Is your employment abroad casual (1), contract (2), permanent (3)? 	<p>Career embeddedness</p> <p>To what extent would these be sacrifices or losses for you if you re-expatriated?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The career and employment opportunities I have in Vietnam 2. The money I earn or can earn in Vietnam 3. The business opportunities I have in Vietnam <p>How much do you agree with these statements with respect to Vietnam? (fit)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. My career needs fit with the opportunities available in Vietnam 5. My professional growth and development fits with what is happening in Vietnam 6. My career plans do not fit with what is available abroad (reversed) 7. I have needs for work experience met by the opportunities in Vietnam <p>With respect to your employment in Vietnam: (Links)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. How long have you worked for your present employer? Up to 2 years (1), 2 to 5 years (2), 5 to 10 years (3), 10 to 15 years (4), 15 to 20 years (5), 20 or more years (6). 9. Is your employment in Vietnam: casual (1), contract (2), permanent (3)? 	<p>A</p>

<p>Community embeddedness</p>	<p>Community embeddedness (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010)</p> <p>To what extent would these be sacrifices or losses for you if you repatriated from abroad?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The range of social activities and events I have here/abroad 2. The friends and social ties I have abroad 3. The lifestyle of the country I live in <p>How much do you agree with these statements with respect to the country you live in?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. The community I live in is a good match to me (Fit). 5. The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like (Fit). 6. I think of the community where I live as home (Fit). 7. My close friends live nearby (Links). 8. My family roots are in the community I live in (Links). <p>With respect to your family life abroad (Links)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Do you have children? 0, no children; 1, 1 child; 2, 2 children; 3, 3 or more children 10. Are you married or do you have a partner you live with/cohabit with? 1, no; 2, yes 11. Where was your partner born? 1, Australia; 2, another English-speaking country; 3, a non-English-speaking country 12. What is your partner's citizenship? 1, Australian; 2, dual citizenship (Australian–another country); 3, only another country's citizenship. 	<p>Community embeddedness</p> <p>To what extent would these be sacrifices or losses for you if you re-expatriated?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The range of social activities and events I have in Vietnam 2. The friends and social ties I have in Vietnam 3. The lifestyle of Vietnam <p>How much do you agree with these statements with respect to Vietnam?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. The community I live in is a good match to me (Fit). 5. The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like (Fit). 6. I think of the community where I live as home (Fit). 7. My close friends live nearby (Links). 8. My family roots are in the community I live in (Links). <p>With respect to your family life in Vietnam (Links)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Do you have children? 0, no children; 1, 1 child; 2, 2 children; 3, 3 or more children 10. Are you married or do you have a partner you live with/cohabit with? 1, no; 2, yes 11. Where was your partner born? 1, Vietnam; 2, a non-Vietnam country 12. What is your partner's citizenship? 1, Vietnamese; 2, dual citizenship (Vietnamese–another country); 3, only another country's citizenship. 	<p>A</p>
<p>Cross-cultural readjustment</p>	<p>Repatriation adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991b) includes three dimensions:</p> <p>Interaction adjustment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interaction with home nationals 	<p>Cross-cultural readjustment includes three dimensions:</p> <p>Interaction readjustment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interaction with people in Vietnam 	<p>B1</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Socialization with home nationals 3. Dealing with home nationals 4. Speaking with home nationals <p>Work adjustment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Supervisory responsibilities 6. Performance expectations 7. Job responsibilities <p>General environment adjustment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Shopping 9. Cost of living 10. Housing conditions 11. Entertainment/recreations facilities 12. Food 13. Living conditions 14. Health care facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Socialization with people in Vietnam 3. Dealing with people in Vietnam 4. Speaking with people in Vietnam <p>Work readjustment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Supervisory responsibilities 6. Performance expectations 7. Job responsibilities <p>General readjustment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Shopping 9. Cost of living 10. Housing conditions 11. Entertainment/recreations facilities 12. Food 13. Living conditions 14. Health care facilities 	
Reverse culture shock	<p>Re-entry shock (Seiter & Waddell, 1989)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. When I returned, people did not seem that much 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 experiences abroad. 10. When I returned home I felt generally alienated. 11. My friends and I have grown in separate directions since I have returned. 	<p>Reverse culture shock</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. When I returned, people did not seem that much 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 experiences abroad. 10. When I returned home I felt generally alienated. 11. My friends and I have grown in separate directions since I have returned. 	B2

	<p>12. Life in my home culture is boring after the excitement of living abroad</p> <p>13. I miss the friends that I made in the host culture.</p> <p>14. Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home cultures.</p> <p>15. My friends and family have pressured me to 'lit in' upon returning home.</p> <p>16. The values and beliefs of the host culture are very different from those of my home culture.</p>	<p>12. Life in my home culture is boring after the excitement of living abroad</p> <p>13. I miss the friends that I made in the host culture.</p> <p>14. Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home cultures.</p> <p>15. My friends and family have pressured me to 'lit in' upon returning home.</p> <p>16. The values and beliefs of the host culture are very different from those of my home culture.</p>	
Life dissatisfaction	<p>Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) (Diener et al., 1985)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal 2. The conditions of my life are excellent 3. I am satisfied with my life 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing 	<p>Life dissatisfaction</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In most ways, my life after returning to Vietnam is close to my ideal 2. The conditions of my current life after returning to Vietnam are excellent 3. I am satisfied with my life after returning to Vietnam 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in my life after returning to Vietnam 5. If I could live my life over in Vietnam after returning from abroad, I would change almost nothing 	C
Career dissatisfaction	<p>Career satisfaction scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career. 2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals. 3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income. 4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement. 5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills. 	<p>Career dissatisfaction</p> <p>After returning to Vietnam:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career. 2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals. 3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income. 4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement. 5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills. 	C

<p>Attitude toward re-expatriation</p>	<p>Attitude toward behaviour (Van Breukelen et al., 2004)</p> <p>Means of four 7-point scales, on which the bipolar adjectives were ‘pleasant–unpleasant,’ ‘unfavourable–favourable,’ ‘annoying–nice,’ and ‘good–bad.’</p>	<p>Attitude toward re-expatriation</p> <p>1. According to me, returning abroad to live is strongly pleasant - strongly unpleasant. 2. According to me, returning abroad to live is strongly un-favourable – strongly favourable. 3. According to me, returning abroad to live is very annoying – very nice. 4. According to me, returning abroad to live is very good – very bad.</p>	<p>D1</p>
<p>Subjective norm</p>	<p>Subjective norm (Park & Smith, 2007)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Most people who are important to me think that I should talk with my family about organ donation. 2. Most people whose opinion I value consider that I should talk with my family about organ donation. 3. It is expected of me that I talk with my family about organ donation. 	<p>Subjective norm</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Most people who are important to me think that I should return abroad to live. 2. Most people whose opinion I value consider that I should return abroad to live. 3. It is expected of me that I return abroad to live. 	<p>D2</p>
<p>Perceived behaviour control</p>	<p>Perceived behavioural control (Conner & McMillan, 1999)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How much control do you think you have over whether or not you use cannabis/marijuana in the next 3 months? very little control - complete control 2. How much do you feel that whether you use cannabis is beyond your control? not at all - very much so 3. For me, using cannabis in the next 3-month period would be: difficult - easy 4. If I wanted to, I could easily use cannabis/marijuana in the next 3-month period: extremely unlikely - extremely likely 	<p>Perceived behavioural control</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How much control do you think you have over whether or not you return abroad to live? very little control - complete control 2. How much do you feel that whether you return abroad to live is beyond your control? not at all - very much so 3. For me, returning abroad to live would be: difficult - easy 4. If I wanted to, I could easily return abroad to live: extremely unlikely - extremely likely 	<p>D3</p>

<p>Host-country pull forces</p>	<p>Expected outcomes from repatriation (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) What is the likelihood you would expect to gain each of these outcomes if you repatriated? 1. Career opportunities (Career) 2. Money/income (Career) 3. The lifestyle (Lifestyle) 4. Physical environment and/or weather (Lifestyle) 5. Safety and security (Lifestyle) 6. A better place to bring up children (Lifestyle) 7. Settling down (Lifestyle) 8. Friendships at home (Lifestyle)</p>	<p>Expected outcomes from re-expatriation (family and career outcomes) What is the likelihood you would expect to gain each of these outcomes if you re-expatriated? 1. Better career opportunities 2. Higher salaries/income 3. Better social welfare (health care, pensions...) 4. Further professional development 5. More opportunities for career advancement 6. Broader career choices 7. Better working environment 8. Safety and security 9. Lifestyle 10. Better opportunities for children's future 11. Better education for children 12. Better place to bring up children</p>	<p>E</p>
<p>Intentions to re-expatriate</p>	<p>Intention to repatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) What is the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements? 1. I intend to repatriate to Australia to live permanently. 2. I intend to remain abroad permanently (reversed). 3. I plan to return to Australia within the next two years.</p>	<p>Intention to re-expatriate What is the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements? 1. I intend to return abroad to live for a long period. 2. I intend to stay in Vietnam for a long period (reversed). 3. I plan to return abroad within the next two years. 4. Even I have opportunities to return abroad to live, I will stay in Vietnam. 5. If the opportunity arises, I will return abroad to live.</p>	<p>E</p>

Note: QN is the question number in the survey questionnaire

Appendix 2: Ethics approval

FINAL APPROVAL NOTICE

Project No.:	<input type="text" value="6037"/>		
Project Title:	<input type="text" value="Re-expatriation intentions of Vietnamese Returnee Professionals"/>		
Principal Researcher:	<input type="text" value="Mrs Nga Ho"/>		
Email:	<input type="text" value="ho0160@flinders.edu.au"/>		
Address:	<input type="text" value="Flinders Business School"/>		
Approval Date:	<input type="text" value="2 June 2013"/>	Ethics Approval Expiry Date:	<input type="text" value="1 August 2015"/>

The above proposed project has been **approved** on the basis of the information contained in the application, its attachments and the information subsequently provided with the addition of the following comment:

Additional information required following commencement of research:

1. Please ensure that copies of the correspondence requesting and granting permission to conduct the research from any additional entities that may be approached are submitted to the Committee *on receipt*. Please ensure that the SBREC project number is included in the subject line of any permission emails forwarded to the Committee. Please note that data collection should not commence until this researcher has received the relevant permissions (item D8 and Conditional approval response – number 4).

RESPONSIBILITIES OF RESEARCHERS AND SUPERVISORS

1. Participant Documentation

Please note that it is the responsibility of researchers and supervisors, in the case of student projects, to ensure that:

- all participant documents are checked for spelling, grammatical, numbering and formatting errors. The Committee does not accept any responsibility for the above mentioned errors.
- the Flinders University logo is included on all participant documentation (e.g., letters of Introduction, information Sheets, consent forms, debriefing information and questionnaires – with the exception of purchased research tools) and the current Flinders University letterhead is included in the header of all letters of introduction. The Flinders University international logo/letterhead should be used and documentation should contain international dialling codes for all telephone and fax numbers listed for all research to be conducted overseas.

the SBREC contact details, listed below, are included in the footer of all letters of introduction and information sheets.

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (Project Number 'INSERT PROJECT No. here following approval'). For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035 or by email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au.

2. Annual Progress / Final Reports

In order to comply with the monitoring requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (March 2007)* an annual progress report must be submitted each year on the **2 June** (approval anniversary date) for the duration of the ethics approval using the annual progress / final report pro forma. *Please retain this notice for reference when completing annual progress or final reports.*

If the project is completed *before* ethics approval has expired please ensure a final report is submitted immediately. If ethics approval for your project expires please submit either (1) a final report; or (2) an extension of time request and an annual report.

Your first report is due on **2 June 2014** or on completion of the project, whichever is the earliest.

3. Modifications to Project

Modifications to the project must not proceed until approval has been obtained from the Ethics Committee. Such matters include:

- proposed changes to the research protocol;
- proposed changes to participant recruitment methods;
- amendments to participant documentation and/or research tools;
- change of project title;
- extension of ethics approval expiry date; and
- changes to the research team (addition, removals, supervisor changes).

To notify the Committee of any proposed modifications to the project please submit a Modification Request Form to the Executive Officer. Download the form from the website every time a new modification request is submitted to ensure that the most recent form is used. Please note that extension of time requests should be submitted prior to the Ethics Approval Expiry Date listed on this notice.

Change of Contact Details

Please ensure that you notify the Committee if either your mailing or email address changes to ensure that correspondence relating to this project can be sent to you. A modification request is not required to change your contact details.

4. Adverse Events and/or Complaints

Researchers should advise the Executive Officer of the Ethics Committee on 08 8201-3116 or human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au immediately if:

- any complaints regarding the research are received;
- a serious or unexpected adverse event occurs that affects participants;
- an unforeseen event occurs that may affect the ethical acceptability of the project.

Appendix 3: Survey instruments

Appendix 3.1: Information sheet (English and Vietnamese)

INFORMATION SHEET

Title: ‘Re-expatriation Intentions of Vietnamese Returnee Professionals’

Investigators:

Mrs Nga Ho
Flinders Business School
Flinders University
Tel: +61 4 14376478 (in Australia)
+84 949 068259 (in Vietnam)
Email: ho0160@flinders.edu.au

Project Supervisors:

Associate Professor Pi-Shen Seet
Flinders Business School
Room 3.69, Law and Commerce building
GPO Box 2100
Adelaide SA 5001
Tel: +61 8 82012840
Email: pi-shen.seet@flinders.edu.au

Dr. Jane Jones
Flinders Business School
Room 3.16, Law and Commerce building
GPO Box 2100
Adelaide SA 5001
Tel: + +61 8 82013891
Email: janice.jones@flinders.edu.au

Description of the study:

This study is part of the project entitled ‘*Re-expatriation Intentions of Vietnamese Returnee Professionals*’. This project will investigate why Vietnamese Returnee Professionals who have studied or worked abroad, have returned to Vietnam, intend to return abroad to live. This project is supported by Flinders University Business School.

Purpose of the study:

This project aims to find out:

- What home-country pull-push factors and host-country pull factors that influence re-expatriation intentions among Vietnamese returnee professionals?
- How Vietnamese returnee professionals experience when they returned to Vietnam to live?

- What are Vietnamese returnee professionals' attitudes and behaviours toward re-expatriation?

What will I be asked to do?

You are invited to participate in a survey. The participant is entirely voluntary.

The survey questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. You can choose either online based or paper based questionnaire. If you fill the questionnaire online, it can be undertaken at any computer with the Internet access. If you fill the paper questionnaire that you received directly from the investigator, it can be undertaken at your convenience and the paper questionnaire will be collected directly by the investigator. If you fill the paper questionnaire that you received via postal mail, it can be undertaken at your convenience and put the completed questionnaire in the pre-stamped envelope that is provided to you to return to the investigator.

What benefit will I gain from being involved in this study?

The sharing of your experiences will help companies in Vietnam and Vietnamese government have appropriate policies or programs to help Vietnamese returnee professionals addressing re-entry issues such as reverse culture shock, poor readjustment and unmet expectation.

Will I be identifiable by being involved in this study?

We do not need your name and your company, association or alumni name and you will be anonymous. Only survey data from the total large group are analysed and reported. At no time will your response be shared with anyone else or identified as yours.

Are there any risks or discomforts if I am involved?

The investigator anticipates few risks from your involvement in this study. If you have any concerns regarding anticipated or actual risks or discomforts, please raise them with the investigator.

How do I agree to participate?

Participation is voluntary.

You may refuse to answer any questions and you are free to withdraw from the survey at anytime without effect or consequences. You can consent to participate to the survey by completing and returning the questionnaire to the investigator.

How will I receive feedback?

Outcomes from the project will be summarised and given to you by the investigator if you would like to see them. To request this report, please contact the investigator on the email provided above.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet and we hope that you will accept our invitation to be involved.

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (Project number 6037). For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035 or by email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

BẢN THÔNG TIN
(Cho người tham gia vào cuộc điều tra)

Tiêu đề: ‘Ý định quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống của những người từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài’

Điều tra viên:

Cô Hồ Thị Thúy Nga
Trường Kinh doanh
Đại học Flinders
Tel: +61 4 14376478 (ở Úc)
+84 949 068259 (ở Việt Nam)
Email: ho0160@flinders.edu.au

Người hướng dẫn:

Phó giáo sư Pi-Shen Seet
Trường Kinh doanh, Đại học Flinders
Phòng 3.69, Tòa nhà Law and Commerce
GPO Box 2100
Adelaide SA 5001
Tel: +61 8 82012840
Email: pi-shen.seet@flinders.edu.au

Tiến sĩ Jane Jones
Trường Kinh doanh, Đại học Flinders
Phòng 3.16, Tòa nhà Law and Commerce
GPO Box 2100
Adelaide SA 5001
Tel: + +61 8 82013891
Email: janice.jones@flinders.edu.au

Mô tả về dự án:

Nghiên cứu này là một phần của dự án với tiêu đề ‘*Ý định xuất ngoại của người đã từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài sau khi đã về nước sinh sống*’. Dự án này sẽ nghiên cứu tại sao những người đã từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài sau khi đã về nước lại có ý định quay lại nước ngoài sinh sống. Dự án này được sự ủng hộ của trường Kinh doanh thuộc Đại học Flinders.

Mục đích nghiên cứu:

Mục tiêu của dự án này là nhằm tìm ra:

- những yếu tố nào lôi kéo và thúc đẩy liên quan đến Việt Nam và nước ngoài có ảnh hưởng đến ý định quay lại nước ngoài sinh sống của những người đã từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài sau khi đã về nước.
- những kinh nghiệm của những người đã từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài sau khi đã về nước sinh sống như thế nào.
- những thái độ và hành vi về sự quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống của những người đã từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài sau khi về nước.

Những gì người tham gia được yêu cầu phải làm?

Bạn được mời tham gia vào một điều tra. Sự tham gia của bạn là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Bản câu hỏi điều tra sẽ tốn khoảng 20 phút để hoàn thành. Bạn có thể trả lời bằng câu hỏi bằng giấy hoặc trực tuyến. Nếu bạn điền bản hỏi trực tuyến thì bạn có thể điền bản hỏi ở bất kỳ máy tính nào có nối mạng Internet. Nếu bạn điền bản hỏi bằng giấy được gửi trực tiếp bởi điều tra viên, thì trả lại bằng hỏi hoàn tất cho điều tra viên trên. Nếu bạn điền bản hỏi bằng giấy được chuyển qua bưu điện bạn có thể thực hiện ở bất kỳ chỗ nào tiện cho bạn và gửi trả theo phong bì có địa chỉ sẵn ở trên.

Những lợi ích có thể mang lại cho tôi khi tham gia nghiên cứu này không?

Việc chia sẻ những kinh nghiệm của bạn sẽ giúp những doanh nghiệp ở Việt Nam và chính phủ Việt Nam giải quyết những vướng mắc và trở ngại của những người đã từng học tập hoặc làm việc ở nước ngoài sau khi quay trở lại Việt Nam sinh sống, chẳng hạn như: sự sốc về văn hóa, sự thích nghi lại cuộc sống và công việc kém và những kỳ vọng không đạt được.

Tôi có bị nhận diện khi tham gia nghiên cứu này không?

Chúng tôi không cần tên bạn và tên của công ty bạn, hoặc tổ chức, hội cựu sinh viên mà bạn đang tham gia và danh tính của bạn sẽ được giữ bí mật. Chỉ có số liệu điều tra về một nhóm mẫu lớn sẽ được phân tích và báo cáo.

Có bất kỳ rủi ro hoặc sự không thoải mái nào nếu tôi tham gia nghiên cứu này không?

Điều tra viên đã dự kiến được một số rủi ro mà bạn có thể mắc phải khi tham gia vào nghiên cứu này. Nếu bạn có những quan tâm nào đến những rủi ro dự kiến hoặc thực tế hoặc sự không thoải mái, xin vui lòng nói với điều tra viên.

Tôi có thể đồng ý tham gia bằng cách nào?

Việc tham gia này là hoàn toàn tình nguyện.

Bạn có thể từ chối trả lời bất kỳ câu hỏi nào và bạn có quyền tự do rút lui tại bất kỳ thời điểm nào mà không có bất kỳ ảnh hưởng hay hậu quả nào. Bạn có thể đồng ý tham gia vào cuộc điều tra bằng cách hoàn tất bản hỏi điều tra và trả lại cho điều tra viên.

Bằng cách nào tôi có thể nhận được sự phản hồi?

Kết quả của dự án này sẽ được tóm tắt và gửi lại cho bạn bởi điều tra viên nếu bạn muốn xem. Để yêu cầu bản báo cáo này, xin vui lòng liên hệ điều tra viên qua thư điện tử ghi ở trên.

Cảm ơn bạn đã dành thời gian đọc những thông tin này và chúng tôi hy vọng bạn đồng ý lời mời của chúng tôi.

Dự án nghiên cứu này được được phê duyệt bởi Ủy ban đạo đức về những nghiên cứu xã hội và hành vi (Mã số nghiên cứu số 6037). Để biết thêm thông tin về việc phê duyệt đạo đức của dự án, bạn có thể liên lạc Giám đốc điều hành ủy ban qua số điện thoại +61 8201 3116, fax +61 8201 2035 hoặc email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Appendix 3.2: Survey questionnaire (English and Vietnamese)

A SURVEY OF VIETNAMESE RETURNEES' EXPERIENCES AFTER RETURNING TO VIETNAM

A – YOUR EMBEDDEDNESS IN YOUR CAREER AND COMMUNITY

The following questions relate to your embeddedness in your career and community after your return to live in Vietnam.

A1. After your return to work in Vietnam, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My career needs fit with the opportunities available in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My professional growth and development fits with what is happening in Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My career plans do not fit with what is available abroad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I have needs for work experience met by the opportunities in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The community I live in is a good match for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I think of the community where I live as home.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My close friends live nearby.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My family roots are in the community I live in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A2. To what extent would these (6 items below) be sacrifices or losses to you if you left Vietnam to return abroad to live?	No loss at all	A very small loss	A small loss	Some loss	A moderate loss	A great loss	A very great loss
1. The career and employment opportunities I have in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The money I earn or can earn in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The business opportunities I have in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The range of social activities and events I have in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The friends and social ties I have in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The lifestyle of Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B. CROSS-CULTURAL READJUSTMENT

These questions refer to when you returned from abroad and re-entered Vietnam's society. Whenever an individual returns her/his home country to live, there is a period of adjustment to the lifestyle and home country.

B1. After your return to live in Vietnam, please indicate to what extent you have or have not adjusted to the following:	Not Adjusted At All	Not Adjusted	Slightly Not Adjusted	Neither Adjusted or Not Adjusted	Slightly Adjusted	Adjusted	Very Well Adjusted
1. Interaction with people in Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Socialization with people in Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Dealing with people in Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Speaking to people in Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Supervisory responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Performance expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Cost of living	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Entertainment/recreational facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Living conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B1. After your return to live in Vietnam, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When I returned, people did not seem that much interested in my experiences abroad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Life was more exciting in the host culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My friends seem to have changed since I left Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When I returned home, I felt really depressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I had difficulty adjusting to my home culture after returning from abroad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. After I have been abroad, I have become more critical of Vietnam culture's values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I miss the foreign culture where I stayed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I had a lot of contact with members of the host culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel like I have changed a lot because of my experiences abroad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. When I returned home I felt generally alienated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My friends and I have grown in separate directions after I returned.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Life in my home culture is boring after the	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

excitement of living abroad.							
13. I miss the friends that I made in the host culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. After I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home culture's government.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. My friends and family have pressured me to 'lit in" upon returning home.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. The values and beliefs of the host country culture are very different from those of Vietnam culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C. HOME COUNTRY SATISFACTION

The following questions relate to your satisfaction with living and working in Vietnam after you have returned to Vietnam.

C1. With respect to your life in Vietnam, after returning to Vietnam, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:	Strongly						
	Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In most ways, my life after returning to Vietnam is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The conditions of my life after returning to Vietnam are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am satisfied with my life after returning to Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. So far I have achieved the important things I want in my life after returning to Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I could live my life over after returning to Vietnam, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2. With respect to your career in Vietnam, after returning to Vietnam, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:	Strongly						
	Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D – YOUR POINT OF VIEW TOWARD RETURNING ABROAD (TO THE HOST COUNTRY OR A DIFFERENT COUNTRY) TO LIVE

The following questions relate to your point of view toward going abroad to live.

D1. Please indicate your point of view toward returning abroad to live.							
1. According to me, returning abroad to live is	Strongly Pleasant	Pleasant	Slightly Pleasant	Neutral	Slightly Unpleasant	Unpleasant	Strongly Unpleasant
2. According to me, returning abroad to live is	Strongly Unfavourable	Unfavorable	Slightly Unfavourable	Neutral	Slightly Favourable	Favorable	Strongly Favourable
3. According to me, returning abroad to live is	Very Annoying	Annoying	Slightly Annoying	Neutral	Slightly Nice	Nice	Very Nice
4. According to me, returning abroad to live is	Very Good	Good	Slightly Good	Neutral	Slightly Bad	Bad	Very Bad

D2. The following relate to your perception or opinion about whether others think you should return abroad to live. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:							
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Most people who are important to me think that I should return abroad to live.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Most people whose opinion I value consider that I should return abroad to live.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. It is expected of me that I return abroad to live.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D3. The following relate to your perceived control over returning abroad to live:							
1. How much control do you think you have over whether or not return abroad to live?	Very little Control	Little Control	Slightly Little Control	Neutral	Slightly Control	Control	Complete Control
2. How much do you feel that whether you return abroad to live is beyond your control?	Not at all	Not Out of Control	Partially Not Out of Control	Neutral	Partially Out of Control	Out of control	Very much so
3. For me, returning abroad to live would be:	Very Difficult	Difficult	Slightly Difficult	Neutral	Slightly Easy	Easy	Very Easy
4. If I wanted to, I could easily return abroad to live.	Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Partially Unlikely	Neutral	Partially Likely	Likely	Extremely likely

E – EXPECTED OUTCOMES FROM RETURNING ABROAD (TO THE HOST COUNTRY OR A DIFFERENT COUNTRY) TO LIVE

There are many reasons why you might return abroad to live. There are outcomes you may expect to gain from returning abroad to live.

Please indicate to what extent do you expect or not expect to achieve the following outcomes if you return abroad to live:	Completely not expect	Not expect	Partially not expect	Neutral	Partially expect	Expect	Completely expect
1. Better career opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Higher salaries/income	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Better social welfare (health care, pensions...)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Further professional development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. More opportunities for career advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Broader career choices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Better working environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Safety and security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Better opportunities for children's future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Better education for children	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Better place to bring up children	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

F – INTENTION TO RETURN ABROAD (THE HOST COUNTRY OR A DIFFERENT COUNTRY) TO LIVE

Individuals may consider going abroad to live, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I intend to return abroad to live for a long period.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I intend to stay in Vietnam for a long period.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I plan to return abroad to live within the next two years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Even I have opportunities to return abroad to live, I will stay in Vietnam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. If the opportunity arises, I will return abroad to live.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

G – PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age: Under 20 20-25 26-30 31-35 35-40 Over 40
3. How long did you live overseas? _____ years _____ months
4. How long has it been since you returned from overseas to live in Vietnam? _____ years _____ months
5. How many years did you work overseas in a fulltime capacity? _____ years _____ months
6. Which was the country you lived in that you have returned from? _____
7. What qualification did you gain from studying overseas? _____
8. What was your broad area of study? _____
- Accounting or Finance Business management Economics
- Social science Humanities and arts Natural science (including health) Applied science or engineering Other, please specify _____
9. What source of funding for your overseas studies?
- Self-funded Overseas government scholarship
- Vietnam government scholarship Other, please specify _____
10. If you were a scholarship student, did the terms of your scholarship require you to return to Vietnam after graduation?
- Yes No
11. How long have you been employed by your current company/organization? _____ years _____ months
12. Do you currently work for a: Domestic privately owned firm
- Foreign owned firm State – owned enterprises International joint venture Government or public organization University or research institute
- Other, please specify _____

13. Is your employment in Vietnam permanent contract
 casual?
14. Select the occupation that best describes you.
- Entrepreneur Manager or executive Scientist
 Engineer Information technologist
Auditing/Accounting professional
 Banking/ Finance professional Lecturer
 Researcher Other, please specify: _____
15. What broad industry do you work in?
- Auditing/Accounting services Banking/Financial services
 Commercial or other services sector Manufacturing, industrial
 High technology/Telecommunications
 Education and research institutes
 Health/medical services Other, please specify: _____
16. Are you married or do you have a partner you live with/cohabit with?
- Yes No
17. Do you have children? No children 1 child 2 children
 3 or more
18. Where was your partner born? Vietnam a non-Vietnam country
19. What is your partner's citizenship? Vietnamese dual citizenship (Vietnam's–
another country) Only another country's citizenship

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND CONTRIBUTION.

**BẢN THĂM DÒ Ý KIẾN
VỀ CUỘC SỐNG VÀ KINH NGHIỆM CỦA NHỮNG NGƯỜI ĐÃ TỪNG HỌC
TẬP/LÀM VIỆC Ở NƯỚC NGOÀI SAU KHI VỀ NƯỚC SINH SỐNG**

A – SỰ GẮN KẾT TRONG CÔNG VIỆC VÀ CỘNG ĐỒNG

Những câu hỏi sau đây liên quan đến sự gắn kết trong công việc và cộng đồng của bạn tại Việt Nam kể từ khi quay về nước sinh sống.

A1. Kể từ khi quay về nước để sinh sống và làm việc, xin vui lòng chỉ rõ là bạn đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với những phát biểu sau.	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Hơi không đồng ý	Trung lập	Hơi đồng ý	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
1. Tôi có nhiều cơ hội để tìm được công việc phù hợp ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Việc phát triển chuyên môn của tôi phù hợp với điều kiện thực tế ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Tôi cảm thấy khó tìm được công việc phù hợp ở nước ngoài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Tôi tích lũy được những kinh nghiệm làm việc mà tôi cần thông qua những cơ hội việc làm mà tôi đã có ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Tôi cảm thấy phù hợp với cộng đồng nơi tôi đang sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Cộng đồng nơi tôi đang sống có nhiều hoạt động vui chơi giải trí mà tôi thích	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Tôi xem cộng đồng nơi tôi đang sống giống như gia đình lớn của tôi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Những người bạn thân của tôi sống gần nơi tôi đang sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Gia đình lớn của tôi (ví dụ ông, bà, bố, mẹ, anh, chị, em) sống cùng hoặc sống gần nơi tôi đang sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A2. Xin vui lòng chỉ rõ mức độ hy sinh hoặc mất mát nếu bạn rời Việt Nam ra nước ngoài sinh sống	Hoàn toàn không	Rất nhỏ	Nhỏ	Có một số mất mát	Vừa phải	Lớn	Rất lớn
1. Sự nghiệp và cơ hội nghề nghiệp hiện có của tôi ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Mức thu nhập hiện có hoặc có thể kiếm được ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Những cơ hội kinh doanh mà tôi có ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Những hoạt động xã hội và sự kiện mà tôi đã tham gia ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Bạn bè và những mối quan hệ xã hội hiện có của tôi ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Lối sống ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

B – SỰ TÁI THÍCH NGHI LẠI CUỘC SỐNG VÀ CÔNG VIỆC SAU KHI VỀ NƯỚC

Những câu hỏi sau liên quan đến việc về nước sinh sống và sự tái thích nghi lại cuộc sống và công việc ở Việt Nam. Bất kỳ người nào khi về nước, thì đó là một giai đoạn thích nghi lại cuộc sống ở nước nhà.

B1. Từ khi bạn quay trở lại Việt Nam, xin vui lòng chỉ rõ sự tái thích nghi của bạn đối với những vấn đề sau ở Việt Nam.	Hoàn toàn thích nghi được	Không thích nghi được	Hơi không thích nghi được	Trung lập	Hơi thích nghi được	Thích nghi được	Hoàn toàn thích nghi được
1. Trong việc tiếp xúc với những người xung quanh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Trong việc hòa nhập xã hội	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Trong việc cư xử với những người xung quanh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Trong trò chuyện với những người xung quanh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Trách nhiệm quản lý	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Kỳ vọng về kết quả công việc	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Trách nhiệm công việc	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Việc mua sắm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Chi phí cuộc sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Điều kiện nhà ở	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Phương tiện dành cho vui chơi giải trí	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Thức ăn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Phương tiện chăm sóc sức khỏe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Điều kiện sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B2. Từ khi bạn quay về nước để sinh sống, vui lòng chỉ rõ bạn đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với những phát biểu sau.	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Hơi không đồng ý	Trung lập	Hơi đồng ý	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
1. Khi tôi về nước, mọi người dường như không quan tâm mấy về những trải nghiệm của tôi ở nước ngoài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Cuộc sống ở nước ngoài thú vị hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Bạn bè của tôi dường như đã thay đổi nhiều kể từ khi tôi đi nước ngoài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Khi tôi về nước, tôi cảm thấy chán nản	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Tôi cảm thấy khó hòa nhập lại với văn hóa Việt Nam sau khi về nước	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Vì tôi đã từng ở nước ngoài, tôi hay bình phẩm về giá trị văn hóa (ví dụ: quan niệm sống, sở thích...) của người Việt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Vì tôi đã từng ở nước ngoài, tôi hay bình phẩm về	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

nền văn hóa Việt Nam (ví dụ: phong tục, tập quán, ẩm thực, trang phục...)							
8. Tôi rất nhớ văn hóa của nước nơi tôi đã từng sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Tôi hay liên lạc với bạn bè ở nước ngoài nơi tôi đã từng sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Tôi cảm thấy tôi đã thay đổi nhiều vì những trải nghiệm ở nước ngoài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Khi tôi về nước, tôi cảm thấy mình xa lạ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Bạn bè tôi và tôi đã phát triển theo hướng riêng biệt kể từ khi tôi về nước	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Cuộc sống ở Việt Nam thật là nhàm chán sau những trải nghiệm thú vị ở nước ngoài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Tôi nhớ bạn bè của tôi ở nước ngoài rất nhiều	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Bạn bè và gia đình tôi đã thúc ép tôi phải tỏa sáng khi về nước	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Giá trị và niềm tin trong văn hóa nước ngoài nơi tôi đã từng sống rất khác với Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C – SỰ HÀI LÒNG VỚI CUỘC SỐNG VÀ CÔNG VIỆC Ở VIỆT NAM

Những câu hỏi sau liên quan đến sự hài lòng về công việc và cuộc sống của bạn ở Việt Nam kể từ khi bạn về nước.

C1. Sự hài lòng về cuộc sống ở Việt Nam sau khi về nước	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Hơi không đồng ý	Trung lập	Hơi đồng ý	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
1. Trên mọi phương diện, cuộc sống sau khi về nước gần với mong đợi của tôi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Điều kiện sống của tôi sau khi về nước là rất tốt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Tôi hài lòng với cuộc sống sau khi về nước	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Tôi đã nhận được những gì quan trọng mà tôi muốn trong cuộc sống sau khi về nước	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Nếu có thể làm lại cuộc sống sau khi về nước, tôi sẽ không thay đổi điều gì hết	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2. Sự hài lòng về nghề nghiệp ở Việt Nam sau khi về nước	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Hơi không đồng ý	Trung lập	Hơi đồng ý	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
1. Tôi hài lòng với những thành công trong sự nghiệp sau khi về nước	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Tôi hài lòng với những tiến triển đạt được trong mục tiêu nghề nghiệp chung của tôi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Tôi hài lòng với những tiến triển đạt được trong mục tiêu thu nhập mà tôi đặt ra	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Tôi hài lòng với những tiến triển đạt được trong mục tiêu phát triển chuyên môn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Tôi hài lòng với những tiến triển đạt được trong mục tiêu phát triển các kỹ năng mới	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D – QUAN ĐIỂM CỦA BẠN VỀ VIỆC QUAY TRỞ LẠI NƯỚC NGOÀI (NƯỚC BẠN TỪNG SỐNG HOẶC MỘT NƯỚC KHÁC) SINH SỐNG

D1. Xin vui lòng đánh giá về quan điểm của bạn về việc quay trở lại nước ngoài (nước bạn từng sống hoặc một nước khác) sinh sống

1. Tôi nghĩ việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống là một điều:	Rất thú vị	Thú vị	khá thú vị	Trung lập	ít thú vị	Không thú vị	Hoàn toàn ko thú vị
2. Tôi nghĩ việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống là một điều:	Hoàn toàn ko có hứa hẹn tốt	Không có hứa hẹn tốt	Hơi ko có hứa hẹn tốt	Trung lập	Hơi có hứa hẹn tốt	Có hứa hẹn tốt	Rất có hứa hẹn tốt
3. Tôi nghĩ việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống là một điều:	Rất phiền toái	Phiền toái	Hơi phiền toái	Trung lập	Khá dễ chịu	Dễ chịu	Rất dễ chịu
4. Tôi nghĩ việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống là một điều:	Rất tốt	Tốt	Khá tốt	Trung lập	Khá xấu	Xấu	Rất xấu

D2. Những câu hỏi sau liên quan đến quan điểm của bạn về việc người khác nghĩ rằng bạn có nên quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống hay không.	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Hơi không đồng ý	Trung lập	Hơi đồng ý	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
1. Những người rất quan trọng với tôi nghĩ rằng tôi nên quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Những người mà ý kiến của họ rất có giá trị với tôi nghĩ rằng tôi nên quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Mọi người kỳ vọng rằng tôi nên quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D3. Những câu hỏi sau liên quan đến sự tự chủ của bạn trong việc quyết định ở lại Việt Nam hay quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống

1. Mức độ tự chủ của bạn trong việc quyết định ở lại Việt Nam hay quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống như thế nào?	Rất ít	ít	Hơi ít	Trung lập	Hơi tự chủ	Tự chủ	Rất tự chủ
2. Việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống có vượt tầm kiểm soát của bạn không?	Hoàn toàn không	Không	Hơi không	Trung lập	Hơi vượt	Vượt	Hoàn toàn vượt
3. Đối với tôi, việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống là:	Rất khó	Khó	Hơi khó	Trung lập	Hơi dễ	Dễ	Rất Dễ
4. Nếu tôi muốn, tôi có thể dễ dàng quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống	Rất khó xảy ra	Khó xảy ra	Hơi khó xảy ra	Trung lập	Hơi dễ xảy ra	Dễ xảy ra	Rất dễ xảy ra

E – NHỮNG KỶ VỌNG VỀ CUỘC SỐNG VÀ CÔNG VIỆC SAU NÀY NẾU BẠN QUAY TRỞ LẠI NƯỚC NGOÀI SINH SỐNG (QUAY TRỞ LẠI NƯỚC BẠN ĐÃ TỪNG SỐNG HOẶC MỘT NƯỚC KHÁC)

Có rất nhiều nguyên nhân tại sao bạn có thể quay trở lại nước ngoài (nước bạn đã từng sống hoặc một nước khác) để sống. Dưới đây là những kết quả mà bạn có thể kỳ vọng đạt được từ việc quay trở lại nước ngoài để sống.

Xin vui lòng chỉ rõ mức độ kỳ vọng của bạn về việc quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống.	Hoàn toàn không kỳ vọng	Không kỳ vọng	Một phần không kỳ vọng	Trung lập	Một phần kỳ vọng	Kỳ vọng	Hoàn toàn kỳ vọng
1. Cơ hội nghề nghiệp tốt hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Mức lương hoặc thu nhập cao hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Phúc lợi xã hội tốt hơn (ví dụ như: y tế, lương hưu...)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Phát triển chuyên môn tốt hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Có nhiều cơ hội để phát triển nghề nghiệp	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Có nhiều lựa chọn nghề nghiệp	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Có môi trường làm việc tốt hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Lối sống phù hợp hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. An toàn và an ninh hơn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Có nhiều cơ hội cho con cái trong tương lai	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Có nền giáo dục tốt hơn cho con cái	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Có một nơi tốt hơn để nuôi dạy con cái	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

F – Ý ĐỊNH QUAY TRỞ LẠI NƯỚC NGOÀI SINH SỐNG (TRỞ LẠI NƯỚC MÀ BẠN ĐÃ TỪNG SINH SỐNG HOẶC MỘT NƯỚC KHÁC)

Mọi người có thể xem xét khả năng quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống, xin vui lòng chỉ rõ mức độ đồng ý của bạn với những phát biểu sau.	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Hơi không đồng ý	Trung lập	Hơi đồng ý	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
1. Tôi có ý định quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống lâu dài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Tôi có ý định sống ở Việt Nam lâu dài	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Tôi lên kế hoạch quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống trong vòng hai năm tới	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Mặc dù tôi có cơ hội quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống, tôi vẫn ở Việt Nam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Nếu có cơ hội, tôi sẽ quay trở lại nước ngoài sinh sống	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

G – THÔNG TIN CÁ NHÂN

<p>1. Giới tính <input type="checkbox"/> Nam <input type="checkbox"/> Nữ</p> <p>2. Tuổi: <input type="checkbox"/> Dưới 20 <input type="checkbox"/> 20-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 <input type="checkbox"/> Trên 40</p> <p>3. Bạn đã sống ở nước ngoài trong bao lâu? năm _____ tháng _____</p> <p>4. Bạn đã về nước từ năm nào? _____</p> <p>5. Nếu bạn đã có công việc toàn thời gian lúc bạn đang ở nước ngoài, thì bạn đã làm công việc đó trong bao lâu? năm _____ tháng _____</p> <p>6. Bạn đã sống hoặc học tập ở nước nào? _____</p> <p>7. Bằng cấp nào bạn đạt được từ việc du học ở nước ngoài? _____</p> <p>8. Bạn đã học ngành nào ở nước ngoài? <input type="checkbox"/> Kế toán hoặc tài chính <input type="checkbox"/> Quản trị hoặc kinh doanh <input type="checkbox"/> Kinh tế <input type="checkbox"/> Khoa học xã hội <input type="checkbox"/> Nhân văn học hoặc nghệ thuật <input type="checkbox"/> Khoa học tự nhiên (bao gồm y học) <input type="checkbox"/> Khoa học ứng dụng <input type="checkbox"/> Khác, xin chi tiết _____</p> <p>9. Nguồn tài trợ cho việc du học của bạn là: <input type="checkbox"/> Tự túc <input type="checkbox"/> Học bổng của chính phủ Việt Nam <input type="checkbox"/> Học bổng của chính phủ nước ngoài <input type="checkbox"/> Khác, xin chi tiết _____</p> <p>10. Nếu bạn là sinh viên học bổng, học bổng của bạn có yêu cầu trở về nước làm việc sau khi đã hoàn thành khóa học hay không? <input type="checkbox"/> Có <input type="checkbox"/> Không</p> <p>11. Bạn đã làm việc cho công ty hiện tại trong bao lâu? _____ năm _____ tháng _____</p> <p>12. Hiện giờ bạn làm việc cho một: <input type="checkbox"/> Công ty thuộc sở hữu tư nhân trong nước <input type="checkbox"/> Công ty liên doanh với nước ngoài <input type="checkbox"/> Công ty nước ngoài <input type="checkbox"/> Công ty thuộc sở hữu nhà nước <input type="checkbox"/> Cơ quan nhà nước <input type="checkbox"/> Trường đại học <input type="checkbox"/> Khác, xin chi tiết _____</p>	<p>13. Công việc hiện tại của bạn ở Việt Nam là: <input type="checkbox"/> Dài hạn <input type="checkbox"/> Hợp đồng <input type="checkbox"/> Không ổn định</p> <p>14. Bạn đang làm nghề gì? <input type="checkbox"/> Doanh nhân <input type="checkbox"/> Quản lý <input type="checkbox"/> Nhà khoa học <input type="checkbox"/> Kỹ sư <input type="checkbox"/> Kỹ sư tin học <input type="checkbox"/> Kế toán/Kiểm toán viên <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên ngân hàng/tài chính <input type="checkbox"/> Giảng viên <input type="checkbox"/> Nhà nghiên cứu <input type="checkbox"/> Khác, xin chi tiết _____</p> <p>15. Bạn đang làm việc trong lĩnh vực nào? <input type="checkbox"/> Dịch vụ kế toán, kiểm toán <input type="checkbox"/> Tài chính, ngân hàng <input type="checkbox"/> Thương mại hoặc dịch vụ khác <input type="checkbox"/> Công nghiệp <input type="checkbox"/> Công nghệ cao (ví dụ tin, điện toán) <input type="checkbox"/> Giáo dục hoặc viện nghiên cứu <input type="checkbox"/> Y tế <input type="checkbox"/> Khác, xin chi tiết _____</p> <p>16. Bạn đã lập gia đình chưa? <input type="checkbox"/> Chưa <input type="checkbox"/> Rồi</p> <p>17. Bạn đã có con chưa? <input type="checkbox"/> Chưa có <input type="checkbox"/> Có 1 con <input type="checkbox"/> Có 2 con <input type="checkbox"/> Có 3 con trở lên</p> <p>18. Chồng hoặc vợ của bạn sinh ra ở nước nào (nếu có)? <input type="checkbox"/> Việt Nam <input type="checkbox"/> Nước ngoài</p> <p>19. Quốc tịch của chồng hoặc vợ của bạn ở nước nào (nếu có)? <input type="checkbox"/> Việt Nam <input type="checkbox"/> Chỉ có quốc tịch nước ngoài <input type="checkbox"/> Hai quốc tịch (Việt Nam và nước khác)</p>
---	---

XIN CẢM ƠN SỰ HỢP TÁC VÀ ĐÓNG GÓP CỦA ANH/CHỊ RẤT NHIỀU!

Appendix 4: A legend to the labelling of the items

Label	Items
Intention to re-expatriate	
F1_Intend	1. I intend to return abroad to live for a long period.
F2_Intend	2. I intend to stay in Vietnam for a long period. (Reversed)
F3_Intend	3. I plan to return abroad to live within the next two years.
F4_Intend	4. Even I have opportunities to return abroad to live, I will stay in Vietnam. (Reversed)
F5_Intend	5. If the opportunity arises, I will return abroad to live.
Non-career outcomes	
E3_HostPull	3. Better social welfare (health care, pensions...)
E8_HostPull	8. Safety and security
E9_HostPull	9. Lifestyle
E10_HostPull	10. Better opportunities for children's future
E11_HostPull	11. Better education for children
E12_HostPull	12. Better place to bring up children
Career outcomes	
E1_HostPull	1. Better career opportunities
E2_HostPull	2. Higher salaries/income
E4_HostPull	4. Further professional development
E5_HostPull	5. More opportunities for career advancement
E6_HostPull	6. Broader career choices
E7_HostPull	7. Better working environment
Life dissatisfaction	
C1_1_LifSat	1. In most ways, my life after returning to Vietnam is close to my ideal. (Reversed)
C1_2_LifSat	2. The conditions of my life after returning to Vietnam are excellent. (Reversed)
C1_3_LifSat	3. I am satisfied with my life after returning to Vietnam. (Reversed)
C1_4_LifSat	4. So far I have achieved the important things I want in my life after returning to Vietnam. (Reversed)
C1_5_LifSat	5. If I could live my life over after returning to Vietnam, I would change almost nothing. (Reversed)
Career dissatisfaction	
C2_1_CarSat	1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career. (Reversed)
C2_2_CarSat	2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals. (Reversed)
C2_3_CarSat	3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income. (Reversed)
C2_4_CarSat	4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward

	meeting my goals for advancement. (Reversed)
C2_5_CarSat	5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills. (Reversed)
Community embeddedness	
A1_5_ComEmbed	5. The community I live in is a good match for me.
A1_6_ComEmbed	6. The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like.
A1_7_ComEmbed	7. I think of the community where I live as home.
A1_8_ComEmbed	8. My close friends live nearby.
A1_9_ComEmbed	9. My family roots are in the community I live in.
A2_4_ComEmbed	4. The range of social activities and events I have in Vietnam.
A2_5_ComEmbed	5. The friends and social ties I have in Vietnam.
A2_6_ComEmbed	6. The lifestyle of Vietnam.
Career embeddedness	
A1_1_CarEmbed	1. My career needs fit with the opportunities available in Vietnam.
A1_2_CarEmbed	2. My professional growth and development fits with what is happening in Vietnam
A1_3_CarEmbed	3. My career plans do not fit with what is available abroad.
A1_4_CarEmbed	4. I have needs for work experience met by the opportunities in Vietnam.
A2_1_CarEmbed	1. The career and employment opportunities I have in Vietnam.
A2_2_CarEmbed	2. The money I earn or can earn in Vietnam.
A2_3_CarEmbed	3. The business opportunities I have in Vietnam.
RCS	
B2_1_RCS	1. When I returned, people did not seem that much interested in my experiences abroad.
B2_2_RCS	2. Life was more exciting in the host culture.
B2_3_RCS	3. My friends seem to have changed since I have been gone
B2_4_RCS	4. When I returned home, I felt really depressed.
B2_5_RCS	5. I had difficulty adjusting to my home culture after returning from abroad
B2_6_RCS	6. Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home country culture's values
B2_7_RCS	7. Since I have been abroad, I have become more critical of my home cultures government
B2_8_RCS	8. I miss the foreign culture where I stayed
B2_9_RCS	9. I had a lot of contact with members of the host culture
B2_10_RCS	10. I feel like I have changed a lot because of my experiences abroad
B2_11_RCS	11. When I returned home I felt generally alienated
B2_12_RCS	12. My friends and I have grown in separate directions

	since I have returned
B2_13_RCS	13. Life in my home culture is boring after the excitement of living abroad
B2_14_RCS	14. I miss the friends that I made in the host culture
B2_15_RCS	15. My friends and family have pressured me to 'lit in' upon returning home
B2_16_RCS	16. The values and beliefs of the host country culture are very different from those of my home country culture
Interaction readjustment	
B1_1_IntAdj	1. Interaction with people in Vietnam
B1_2_IntAdj	2. Socialization with people in Vietnam
B1_3_IntAdj	3. Dealing with people in Vietnam
B1_4_IntAdj	4. Speaking to people in Vietnam
Work readjustment	
B1_5_WorAdj	5. Supervisory responsibilities
B1_6_WorAdj	6. Performance expectations
B1_7_WorAdj	7. Job responsibilities
General readjustment	
B1_8_GenAdj	8. Shopping
B1_9_GenAdj	9. Cost of living
B1_10_GenAdj	10. Housing conditions
B1_11_GenAdj	11. Entertainment/recreational facilities
B1_12_GenAdj	12. Food
B1_13_GenAdj	13. Living conditions
B1_14_GenAdj	14. Health care facilities
Attitude toward re- expatriation	
D1_1_Attit	1. According to me, returning abroad to live is (Strongly pleasant → Strongly un-pleasant) (Reversed)
D1_2_Atti	2. According to me, returning abroad to live is (Strongly un-favourable → Strongly favourable)
D1_3_Atti	3. According to me, returning abroad to live is (Very annoying → Very nice)
D1_4_Atti	4. According to me, returning abroad to live is (Very good → Very bad) (Reversed)
Subjective norm	
D2_1_Norm	1. Most people who are important to me think that I should return abroad to live.
D2_2_Norm	2. Most people whose opinion I value consider that I should return abroad to live.
D2_3_Norm	3. It is expected of me that I return abroad to live.
Perceived behavioural control	
D3_1_Control	1. How much control do you think you have over whether or not return abroad to live? (Very little control → Complete control)

D3_2_Control	2. How much do you feel that whether you returnabroad to live is beyond your control? (Not at all → Very much so) (Reversed)
D3_3_Control	3. For me, returningabroad to live would be: (Very difficult → Very easy)
D3_4_Control	4. If I wanted to, I could easily returnabroad to live. (Extremely unlikely → Extremely likely)

Appendix 5: Mahalanobis distance of outliers

Case no.	Mahalanobis d^2	Variables and case no.	Mahalanobis d^2
Career embeddedness Critical value $\chi^2 = 27.877$; df = 9; p<0.001		Career satisfaction Critical value $\chi^2 = 20.515$; df = 5; p<0.001	
216	32.961	65	62.321
49	30.226	190	51.135
Community embeddedness Critical value $\chi^2 = 29.588$; df = 10; p<0.001		209	28.864
36	32.111	49	25.927
Work readjustment Critical value $\chi^2 = 16.266$; df = 3; p<0.001		372	23.379
51	36.383	242	23.328
370	29.845	299	22.686
264	27.283	271	21.704
49	18.450	417	21.237
415, 58	17.968	Subjective norm Critical value $\chi^2 = 16.266$; df = 3; p<0.001	
291	17.821	266	37.769
209	17.803	121	28.172
General readjustment Critical value $\chi^2 = 24.321$; df = 7; p<0.001		12	24.696
67	37.890	36.886	22.747
279	36.786	178	17.706
416	33.322	Perceived behavioural control Critical value $\chi^2 = 18.466$; df = 4; p<0.001	
370	30.199	431	27.965
189	28.979	173	26.746
131	28.674	311	26.266
419	27.785	310	24.280
30	27.162	Career outcomes Critical value $\chi^2 = 22.458$; df = 6; p<0.001	
92	26.586	362	39.594
44	26.524	336	38.403
28	26.297	122	37.742
45	25.718	301	36.737

	378	24.564	254	34.961
Interaction readjustment				
Critical value $\chi^2 = 18.467$; df = 4;				
p<0.001			52	32.550
	421	50.151	254	28.690
	358	39.051	290	27.551
	24	35.509	68	26.703
	226	33.627	266	26.665
	58	32.221	259	26.039
	207	31.538	400	25.991
	189	30.671	418	22.951
	209	28.552	Non-career outcomes	
			Critical value $\chi^2 = 22.458$; df = 6;	
			p<0.001	
	49	27.472	122	64.147
	208	26.619	161	63.879
	107	25.928	37	58.984
	52	22.484	20	44.953
	370	22.369	433	43.152
	420	20.755	302	36.128
	323	20.060	38	32.234
	375	19.477	5	32.162
	415	18.542	235	30.466
RCS				
Critical value $\chi^2 = 20.515$; df = 5;				
p<0.001			50	30.007
		410	35.706	29.494
	321	28.808	93	29.398
	213	24.014	146	29.248
Life satisfaction				
Critical value $\chi^2 = 20.515$; df = 5;				
p<0.001			106, 322	28.176
	352	29.949	326	26.602
	65	29.350	51	25.712
	291	26.504	149	25.134
	228	25.109	192	24.448
	231	23.733	385	23.375
	215	21.302	46	23.109
	242	20.969	381	23.073
	98	35.518		23.051
	352	29.949		
	65	29.350		
	291	26.504		
	228	25.109		
	231	23.733		
	215	21.302		
	242	20.969		
	98	20.969		

Appendix 6: Assessment of univariate and multivariate normality

Variable	Skewness	Critical ratio	Kurtosis	Critical ratio
Intention to re-expatriate				
F1_Intend	.126	1.078	-.618	-2.639
F2_Intend	.316	2.699	-.537	-2.296
F3_Intend	.112	.956	-1.015	-4.338
F4_Intend	-.090	-.769	-.817	-3.491
F5_Intend	-.413	-3.532	-.592	-2.531
Non-career outcomes				
E3_HostPull	-1.115	-9.529	1.274	5.445
E8_HostPull	-1.074	-9.180	1.296	5.537
E9_HostPull	-1.067	-9.118	1.068	4.564
E10_HostPull	-1.292	-11.041	1.267	5.415
E11_HostPull	-1.413	-12.074	1.893	8.091
E12_HostPull	-1.133	-9.684	.654	2.795
Career outcomes				
E1_HostPull	-.637	-5.444	-.171	-.730
E2_HostPull	-1.072	-9.163	1.651	7.057
E4_HostPull	-.946	-8.084	.994	4.247
E5_HostPull	-.688	-5.882	-.078	-.335
E6_HostPull	-.296	-2.530	-.460	-1.965
E7_HostPull	-.902	-7.709	1.100	4.701
Life satisfaction				
C1_1_LifSat	-.339	-2.901	-.772	-3.300
C1_2_LifSat	-.446	-3.813	-.471	-2.013
C1_3_LifSat	-.551	-4.711	-.400	-1.711
C1_4_LifSat	-.441	-3.772	-.631	-2.699
C1_5_LifSat	-.025	-.214	-1.087	-4.644
Career satisfaction				
C2_1_CarSat	-.311	-2.661	-.871	-3.723

Variable	Skewness	Critical ratio	Kurtosis	Critical ratio
C2_2_CarSat	-.424	-3.622	-.835	-3.568
C2_3_CarSat	-.114	-.976	-1.025	-4.380
C2_4_CarSat	-.497	-4.249	-.760	-3.248
C2_5_CarSat	-.611	-5.226	-.586	-2.504
Community embeddedness				
A1_5_ComEmbed	-1.158	-9.901	1.004	4.289
A1_6_ComEmbed	-.350	-2.992	-.780	-3.335
A1_7_ComEmbed	-.601	-5.139	-.370	-1.580
A1_8_ComEmbed	-.932	-7.965	-.026	-.112
A1_9_ComEmbed	-1.261	-10.777	.394	1.685
A2_4_ComEmbed	-.150	-1.284	-.919	-3.929
A2_5_ComEmbed	-.951	-8.126	.437	1.866
A2_6_ComEmbed	-.497	-4.246	-.628	-2.685
Marital status	-.691	-5.908	-1.529	-6.536
Number of children	.576	4.925	-1.032	-4.412
Career embeddedness				
A1_1_CarEmbed	-1.178	-10.064	.730	3.122
A1_2_CarEmbed	-.876	-7.483	-.051	-.216
A1_3_CarEmbed	.309	2.641	-1.004	-4.292
A1_4_CarEmbed	-1.071	-9.156	.595	2.541
A2_1_CarEmbed	-.494	-4.222	-.514	-2.199
A2_2_CarEmbed	.004	.033	-1.001	-4.278
A2_3_CarEmbed	.080	.683	-1.090	-4.660
Tenure	1.066	9.114	.582	2.487
Permanency of employment	-1.592	-13.607	1.640	7.009
RCS				
B2_1_RCS	.210	1.788	-.872	-3.726
B2_2_RCS	-.306	-2.608	-.449	-1.917
B2_3_RCS	-.173	-1.477	-.940	-4.018
B2_4_RCS	.103	.882	-.945	-4.036
B2_5_RCS	.532	4.531	-.698	-2.983
B2_6_RCS	-.187	-1.591	-.873	-3.730

Variable	Skewness	Critical ratio	Kurtosis	Critical ratio
B2_7_RCS	-.173	-1.477	-.941	-4.020
B2_8_RCS	-.647	-5.517	.049	.210
B2_9_RCS	-.490	-4.177	-.216	-.923
B2_10_RCS	-1.134	-9.664	1.119	4.778
B2_11_RCS	.425	3.622	-.764	-3.266
B2_12_RCS	-.226	-1.923	-.808	-3.453
B2_13_RCS	.452	3.851	-.722	-3.086
B2_14_RCS	-.161	-1.375	-.422	-1.802
B2_15_RCS	.444	3.784	-.738	-3.153
B2_16_RCS	-.722	-6.154	-.204	-.873
Interaction readjustment				
B1_1_IntAdj	-1.327	-11.341	1.185	5.063
B1_2_IntAdj	-1.268	-10.839	.978	4.181
B1_3_IntAdj	-1.302	-11.127	1.314	5.615
B1_4_IntAdj	-1.373	-11.739	1.654	7.070
Work readjustment				
B1_5_WorAdj	-.958	-8.184	.633	2.705
B1_6_WorAdj	-.797	-6.812	-.081	-.344
B1_7_WorAdj	-1.270	-10.851	1.189	5.080
General readjustment				
B1_8_GenAdj	-.694	-5.931	-.335	-1.430
B1_9_GenAdj	-.890	-7.604	-.155	-.661
B1_10_GenAdj	-1.065	-9.100	.368	1.573
B1_11_GenAdj	-.554	-4.735	-.625	-2.669
B1_12_GenAdj	-1.423	-12.164	1.508	6.446
B1_13_GenAdj	-.393	-3.355	-.837	-3.577
B1_14_GenAdj	-.552	-4.716	-.586	-2.503
Attitude toward re-expatriation				
D1_1_Atti	-.814	-6.960	.750	3.207
D1_2_Atti	-.562	-4.806	-.099	-.423
D1_3_Atti	-.436	-3.729	-.405	-1.729

Variable	Skewness	Critical ratio	Kurtosis	Critical ratio
D1_4_Atti	-.168	-1.439	-.464	-1.983
Subjective norm				
D2_1_Norm	-.158	-1.348	-1.057	-4.517
D2_2_Norm	-.274	-2.338	-.927	-3.961
D2_3_Norm	-.051	-.434	-.884	-3.777
Perceived behavioural control				
D3_1_Control	-.925	-7.904	.066	.282
D3_2_Control	-.167	-1.431	-1.071	-4.577
D3_3_Control	.126	1.076	-.331	-1.416
D3_4_Control	.162	1.383	-.684	-2.925

Appendix 7: EFA results of expected outcomes from re-expatriation

Appendix 7.1: Correlation matrix of expected outcomes from re-expatriation

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12
1. E1_HostPull (V1)	1.000											
2. E2_HostPull (V2)	.548	1.000										
3. E3_HostPull (V3)	.142	.430	1.000									
4. E4_HostPull (V4)	.491	.433	.415	1.000								
5. E5_HostPull (V5)	.621	.444	.292	.716	1.000							
6. E6_HostPull (V6)	.529	.395	.163	.467	.680	1.000						
7. E7_HostPull (V7)	.337	.392	.439	.584	.597	.518	1.000					
8. E8_HostPull (V8)	.188	.310	.489	.353	.295	.165	.398	1.000				
9. E9_HostPull (V9)	.129	.213	.353	.217	.156	.077	.232	.604	1.000			
10. E10_HostPull (V10)	.202	.303	.474	.345	.244	.144	.366	.598	.523	1.000		
11. E11_HostPull (V11)	.151	.295	.522	.327	.214	.087	.326	.646	.551	.852	1.000	
12. E12_HostPull (V12)	.127	.235	.495	.275	.207	.101	.322	.619	.610	.759	.824	1.000

Appendix 7.2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.865
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. X2	3208.936
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

Appendix 7.3: Anti-image Correlation matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12
1. E1_HostPull (V1)	.809 ^a											
2. E2_HostPull (V2)	-.408	.844 ^a										
3. E3_HostPull (V3)	.180	-.307	.890 ^a									
4. E4_HostPull (V4)	-.100	-.022	-.158	.876 ^a								
5. E5_HostPull (V5)	-.303	.038	.004	-.456	.817 ^a							
6. E6_HostPull (V6)	-.151	-.094	.070	.087	-.399	.846 ^a						
7. E7_HostPull (V7)	.130	-.051	-.167	-.199	-.182	-.245	.903 ^a					
8. E8_HostPull (V8)	.015	-.032	-.114	-.008	-.065	.035	-.119	.924 ^a				
9. E9_HostPull (V9)	-.032	-.023	.014	-.009	.036	.005	.036	-.346	.890 ^a			
10. E10_HostPull (V10)	-.077	-.009	.023	-.045	.061	-.027	-.101	-.029	-.040	.873 ^a		
11. E11_HostPull (V11)	.033	-.059	-.099	-.063	.009	.067	.070	-.173	.028	-.576	.826 ^a	
12. E12_HostPull (V12)	.006	.090	-.116	.081	-.043	-.016	-.034	-.053	-.274	-.157	-.440	.887 ^a

Note: ^a Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSA)

Appendix 7.4: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.321	44.339	44.339	5.321	44.339	44.339	4.122	34.346	34.346
2	2.447	20.396	64.735	2.447	20.396	64.735	3.647	30.389	64.735
3	.786	6.553	71.288						
4	.752	6.266	77.553						
5	.595	4.957	82.510						
6	.497	4.142	86.652						
7	.385	3.207	89.859						
8	.359	2.992	92.852						
9	.305	2.540	95.392						
10	.231	1.926	97.317						
11	.196	1.636	98.953						
12	.126	1.047	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 7.5: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
1. E1_HostPull (V1)	1.000	.589
2. E2_HostPull (V2)	1.000	.467
3. E3_HostPull (V3)	1.000	.473
4. E4_HostPull (V4)	1.000	.649
5. E5_HostPull (V5)	1.000	.792
6. E6_HostPull (V6)	1.000	.647
7. E7_HostPull (V7)	1.000	.565
8. E8_HostPull (V8)	1.000	.650
9. E9_HostPull (V9)	1.000	.546
10. E10_HostPull (V10)	1.000	.760
11. E11_HostPull (V11)	1.000	.833
12. E12_HostPull (V12)	1.000	.797

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 8: EFA results of RCS

Appendix 8.1: Correlation matrix of RCS

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	V16
B2_1_RCS (V1)	1															
B2_2_RCS (V2)	.181**	1														
B2_3_RCS (V3)	.261**	.175**	1													
B2_4_RCS (V4)	.308**	.484**	.290**	1												
B2_5_RCS (V5)	.245**	.361**	.285**	.596**	1											
B2_6_RCS (V6)	.188**	.203**	.164**	.352**	.415**	1										
B2_7_RCS (V7)	.148**	.121*	.175**	.345**	.405**	.858**	1									
B2_8_RCS (V8)	-.001	.333**	.110*	.223**	.199**	.173**	.188**	1								
B2_9_RCS (V9)	-.070	.189**	.074	.167**	.146**	.039	.095*	.439**	1							
B2_10_RCS (V10)	.030	.192**	.161**	.140**	.124**	.119*	.099*	.361**	.259**	1						
B2_11_RCS (V11)	.242**	.330**	.327**	.572**	.669**	.322**	.316**	.217**	.140**	.158**	1					
B2_12_RCS (V12)	.182**	.193**	.474**	.302**	.314**	.177**	.180**	.118*	.074	.262**	.459**	1				
B2_13_RCS (V13)	.211**	.498**	.276**	.663**	.639**	.393**	.383**	.232**	.131**	.169**	.635**	.369**	1			
B2_14_RCS (V14)	-.029	.251**	.109*	.247**	.148**	.015	.066	.431**	.545**	.225**	.266**	.221**	.275**	1		
B2_15_RCS (V15)	.129**	.213**	.293**	.344**	.347**	.227**	.201**	.170**	.135**	.072	.372**	.266**	.418**	.198**	1	
B2_16_RCS (V16)	.121*	.269**	.181**	.277**	.337**	.310**	.253**	.265**	.219**	.319**	.313**	.300**	.372**	.277**	.349**	1

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 8.2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.827
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. X2	2734.102
	df	120
	Sig.	.000

Appendix 8.3: Anti-image Correlation matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	V16
B2_1_RCS (V1)	.858 ^a															
B2_2_RCS (V2)	-.059	.844 ^a														
B2_3_RCS (V3)	-.160	-.017	.823 ^a													
B2_4_RCS (V4)	-.169	-.217	-.047	.910 ^a												
B2_5_RCS (V5)	-.030	-.022	-.041	-.172	.892 ^a											
B2_6_RCS (V6)	-.061	-.142	.038	.005	-.039	.683 ^a										
B2_7_RCS (V7)	.033	.206	-.048	-.058	-.056	-.826	.667 ^a									
B2_8_RCS (V8)	.039	-.202	-.013	.021	-.009	-.008	-.066	.833 ^a								
B2_9_RCS (V9)	.076	-.024	-.027	-.041	-.098	.077	-.080	-.206	.730 ^a							
B2_10_RCS (V10)	.015	-.022	-.045	.002	.041	-.036	.040	-.239	-.108	.791 ^a						
B2_11_RCS (V11)	-.047	.063	-.015	-.125	-.386	-.013	.022	-.041	.036	.010	.887 ^a					
B2_12_RCS (V12)	-.015	.014	-.357	.026	.043	.021	-.019	.078	.079	-.168	-.240	.823 ^a				
B2_13_RCS (V13)	.058	-.252	.033	-.282	-.209	.005	-.088	.041	.104	-.018	-.204	-.061	.896 ^a			
B2_14_RCS (V14)	.051	-.028	.040	-.057	.146	.108	-.036	-.205	-.424	.030	-.107	-.110	-.106	.764 ^a		
B2_15_RCS (V15)	.018	.050	-.159	-.047	-.012	-.048	.049	-.040	-.029	.107	-.064	-.013	-.151	-.023	.902 ^a	
B2_16_RCS (V16)	-.035	-.043	.046	.062	-.091	-.147	.063	-.024	-.043	-.204	.028	-.109	-.072	-.107	-.200	.886 ^a

Note: ^a Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSA)

Appendix 8.4: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.181	32.380	32.380	5.181	32.380	32.380	4.131	25.817	25.817
2	1.948	12.177	44.557	1.948	12.177	44.557	2.288	14.301	40.117
3	1.406	8.785	53.342	1.406	8.785	53.342	1.764	11.028	51.145
4	1.141	7.132	60.474	1.141	7.132	60.474	1.493	9.328	60.474
5	.933	5.830	66.303						
6	.838	5.240	71.543						
7	.788	4.926	76.469						
8	.678	4.235	80.705						
9	.597	3.734	84.439						
10	.519	3.246	87.685						
11	.499	3.116	90.801						
12	.414	2.585	93.385						
13	.358	2.235	95.621						
14	.292	1.823	97.444						
15	.280	1.752	99.196						
16	.129	.804	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 8.5: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
B2_1_RCS	1.000	.300
B2_2_RCS	1.000	.503
B2_3_RCS	1.000	.613
B2_4_RCS	1.000	.701
B2_5_RCS	1.000	.666
B2_6_RCS	1.000	.906
B2_7_RCS	1.000	.892
B2_8_RCS	1.000	.582
B2_9_RCS	1.000	.612
B2_10_RCS	1.000	.507
B2_11_RCS	1.000	.648
B2_12_RCS	1.000	.666
B2_13_RCS	1.000	.734
B2_14_RCS	1.000	.614
B2_15_RCS	1.000	.317
B2_16_RCS	1.000	.415

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 9: Correlation matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14
Intention to re-expatriate (V1)	1													
Career satisfaction (V2)	.31**	1												
Life satisfaction (V3)	.49**	.72**	1											
RCS (V4)	.55**	.34**	.51**	1										
Interaction readjustment (V5)	-.39**	-.37**	-.49**	-.61**	1									
Work readjustment (V6)	-.32**	-.48**	-.49**	-.48**	.67**	1								
General readjustment (V7)	-.39**	-.35**	-.49**	-.49**	.54**	.52**	1							
Career embeddedness (V8)	-.33**	-.60**	-.48**	-.23**	.39**	.46**	.25**	1						
Community embeddedness (V9)	-.45**	-.38**	-.49**	-.37**	.49**	.38**	.42**	.48**	1					
Career outcomes (V10)	.17**	.17**	.16**	.20**	-.13**	-.09	-.06	-.12*	-.06	1				
Non-career outcomes (V11)	.22**	.04	.11*	.17**	-.04	-.04	-.14**	-.02	-.10*	.37**	1			
Attitude toward re-expatriation (V12)	.44**	.21**	.29**	.37**	-.22**	-.18**	-.23**	-.23**	-.33**	.35**	.39**	1		
Subjective norm (V13)	.47**	.14**	.27**	.36**	-.26**	-.24**	-.27**	-.21**	-.19**	.14**	.20**	.42**	1	
Perceived behavioural control (V14)	-.05	-.16**	-.19**	-.15**	.01	.10*	.10*	.08	.11*	.05	-.05	-.04	.10*	1

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 10: Reliability checks for all hypothesised constructs

Scale	Item	Standardized Loadings	SL squared	α	CR	VE	AVE
Intention to re-expatriate	F1_Intend	.88	.78				
	F2_Intend	.92	.84				
	F3_Intend	.52	.27				
	F4_Intend	.65	.43				
	Total	2.97	2.31	.82	.65	.33	.58
Non-career outcomes	E3_HostPull	.56	.31				
	E8_HostPull	.69	.47				
	E9_HostPull	.59	.34				
	E10_HostPull	.89	.79				
	E11_HostPull	.95	.91				
	E12_HostPull	.86	.75				
	Total	4.54	3.57	.90	.89	.59	.60
Career outcomes	E1_HostPull	.67	.45				
	E2_HostPull	.52	.27				
	E4_HostPull	.80	.64				
	E5_HostPull	.89	.79				
	E6_HostPull	.76	.58				
	E7_HostPull	.69	.48				
	Total	4.34	3.22	.86	.83	.45	.54
Life dissatisfaction	C1_1_LifSat	.87	.75				
	C1_2_LifSat	.85	.72				
	C1_3_LifSat	.94	.89				
	C1_4_LifSat	.83	.69				
	C1_5_LifSat	.72	.52				
	Total	4.21	3.58	.92	.83	.50	.72
Career dissatisfaction	C2_1_CarSat	.90	.81				
	C2_2_CarSat	.98	.96				
	C2_3_CarSat	.87	.76				
	C2_4_CarSat	.84	.70				
	C2_5_CarSat	.76	.58				
	Total	4.35	3.81	.94	.86	.56	.76
Community embeddedness	A1_7_ComEmbed	.80	.64				
	A1_5_ComEmbed	.69	.47				
	A1_6_ComEmbed	.70	.49				
	A2_4_ComEmbed	.52	.27				
	A2_5_ComEmbed	.74	.54				
	A2_6_ComEmbed	.79	.63				

	A1_8_ComEmbed	.83	.68				
	A1_9_ComEmbed	.54	.29				
	Total	5.61	4.03	.77	.76	.28	.50
Career embeddedness	A1_1_CarEmbed	.71	.50				
	A1_2_CarEmbed	.89	.79				
	A1_3_CarEmbed	.59	.35				
	A2_1_CarEmbed	.85	.72				
	A2_1_CarEmbed	.79	.62				
	A2_1_CarEmbed	.58	.34				
	Tenure	.71	.50				
	Permanency of Employment	.84	.71				
	Total	1.99	1.51	.73	.75	.54	.57
RCS	B2_3_RCS	.65	.42				
	B2_4_RCS	.74	.55				
	B2_5_RCS	.79	.62				
	B2_6_RCS	.91	.83				
	B2_7_RCS	.94	.89				
	B2_8_RCS	.61	.38				
	B2_9_RCS	.70	.49				
	B2_11_RCS	.78	.61				
	B2_12_RCS	.75	.56				
	B2_13_RCS	.77	.59				
	B2_14_RCS	.82	.67				
	Total	8.46	6.61	.83	.87	.38	.60
	Interaction readjustment	B1_1_IntAdj	.91	.83			
B1_2_IntAdj		.96	.91				
B1_3_IntAdj		.91	.82				
B1_4_IntAdj		.86	.74				
Total		3.63	3.30	.95	.93	.76	.83
Work readjustment	B1_5_WorAdj	.81	.65				
	B1_6_WorAdj	.87	.75				
	B1_7_WorAdj	.89	.79				
	Total	2.56	2.19	.89	.81	.59	.73
General readjustment	B1_8_GenAdj	.65	.42				
	B1_10_GenAdj	.69	.48				
	B1_11_GenAdj	.82	.68				
	B1_12_GenAdj	.57	.32				
	B1_13_GenAdj	.71	.51				
	Total	3.44	2.40	.82	.66	.28	.48
Attitude toward re-expatriation	D1_1_Atti	.66	.43				
	D1_2_Atti	.77	.59				
	D1_3_Atti	.71	.51				

	D1_4_Atti	.85	.72				
	Total	2.99	2.26	.83	.79	.48	.56
Subjective norm	D2_1_Norm	.89	.79				
	D2_2_Norm	.88	.78				
	D2_3_Norm	.87	.75				
	Total	2.64	2.32	.91	.78	.54	.77
Perceived behavioural control	D3_1_Control	.45	.20				
	D3_2_Control	.62	.39				
	D3_3_Control	.90	.82				
	D3_4_Control	.84	.70				
	Total	2.81	2.11	.81	.62	.30	.53