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Welcome to the Canadian Journal of Career Development/ Revue canadienne de développement de carrière. Volume 20, Number 1 issue of the journal.

In my wildest dreams, I never thought I would be writing an editorial during a worldwide pandemic. This past year was one of challenges in both our personal and professional lives. During this time, we have confronted the challenges of social isolation and embraced the opportunities of technology. During this challenging year, one thing has stood out abundantly. The importance of resilience.

For many of us, we have discovered within ourselves a resilience that was tested time and time again. We have navigated the complexities of our lives in the midst of a global pandemic. Our normal routines were disrupted as we retreated to our safe spaces. For many our careers were punctuated with a different work environment, the challenge to use multiple modalities of technology, different workgroups among many other challenges, and redefining what work meant to us personally. Yet, we have all delved deep into this conversation and the outcomes, as yet unknown, will define the new dawn of career discussions. I believe, these new discussions will centre around career resilience, the use of technology, remote learning, remote work and how social interaction is a key component of the workplace. Yet, throughout all of this, we will survive and many of us thrive. Why do I believe this? It is because human beings have always adapted. We are a resilient species.

Over the past decade, we here at CJCD/CERIC have celebrated the life of Etta St. John Wileman and her pioneering work that occurred in the early 1900s; A time when the world was in the grip of a world war and a pandemic. Yet, her resilience and those around her conceptualized the idea that work is of value...that unemployment is not a personal failing but a social responsibility...that parents are the purveyors of significant career guidance...and that government needs to be intimately involved in the discussion and support of Canadians who are navigating the complexities of all aspects of employment and unemployment. Out of those tumultuous days, those individuals survived, thrived, and evolved and we will do it again!

In the coming months, the Canadian Journal of Career Development/ Revue canadienne de développement de carrière will be launching a call for a special international issue on the future of career development in a post-pandemic world. We are excited, as your peer-reviewed journal to be the convenor of a thoughtful, deliberate, and evidence-based discussion on the future of career development.

In conclusion, many thanks to the authors whose time and commitment to research and writing during a pandemic has brought you these articles. To Diana Boyd, our Associate Editor, thank you for pivoting during this year to ensure authors, reviewers and others were supported all the while navigating working from home with a young child. Thank you to our funders CERIC, Memorial University and the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council for your continued support in enhancing evidence-based research on career development. To you, our readers thank you for your discerning work and always being there to support us through your reading and thoughtful comments on the articles published. You have contributed to a record of 1,907 full-text article downloads per month this past year. I look forward to watching that increase over the coming year.

Yours in career research,

Rob

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Ethical Risk Management in Co-operative Education Programs

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Abstract

Work-integrated learning (WIL) practitioners and higher education institutions (HEIs) regularly encounter ethical issues, dilemmas, or conflicts ('risks') in delivering WIL programs. Ethical risks that are not properly identified and managed can result in negative financial, legal and reputational consequences for the HEI. A case study of 10 Canadian WIL practitioners reported in this article identifies practices that reduce, transfer, control or eliminate ethical risk in co-operative education, a popular type of WIL program in Canadian HEIs. The findings are presented as a framework of risk management practices involving education and training, institutional support, policies and processes, collaboration with the WIL community, and student communication. A key theme underpinning the ethical risk management practices is the complexity of maintaining productive, quality relationships between three categories of WIL stakeholders—students, employers and the HEI. This study builds on earlier research revealing characteristics of ethical risk in WIL, with the subsequent findings intended to educate WIL stakeholders and assist them with evaluating and improving ethical risk management.

Keywords: work-integrated learning, co-operative education, ethical risk, risk, risk management, ethics

Previous work by the authors (Cameron, Dodds, & Maclean, 2019b) has described the ethical issues, dilemmas, or conflicts (collectively described as 'risks') experienced by work-integrated learning (WIL) practitioners. Ethical risks involve the conduct of WIL practitioners, students and employers and align with five ethical characteristics: equity, integrity, transparency, care, and adherence to rules (Cameron, Dodds, & Maclean, 2020). If not properly managed, ethical risks can have reputational, legal, and financial consequences for higher education institutions (HEIs), and negatively impact the goal of delivering quality WIL opportunities to students (Cameron, 2017). This article explores how WIL practitioners manage the ethical risks in co-operative education programs (co-op).

Co-op is a type of WIL program. WIL is defined as a "model or process of curricular experiential education which formally and intentionally integrates a student's academic studies within a workplace or practice setting" (Co-operative Education and Work-Integrated Learning Canada (CEWIL), 2020b). The distinguishing features of co-op, when compared to oth-

er types of WIL (e.g. internship, practicum), are the work term length relative to classroom study, and the requirement that work be paid (Cameron et al., 2020; Johnson et al., 2016). WIL practitioners is an umbrella term which describes all HEI employees who are involved with the management and/or delivery of WIL programs, including co-op. WIL practitioners generally engage with three key stakeholder groups; the co-op student, the work term employer, and the HEI which includes various personnel including WIL practitioners. Co-op program rules and policies exist, but each student-employer experience is unique, and practitioners often encounter ethically charged situations which could be damaging from a risk management perspective. On behalf of the HEI, WIL practitioners must take steps to reduce, transfer, control or eliminate ethical risk.

The purpose of this article is to describe the ethical risk management practices of WIL practitioners. HEI management and WIL practitioners can utilize the findings to educate their staff about risk management, and to evaluate and improve existing HEI risk management frameworks, as they apply to co-op programs. This article first reviews the literature relevant to ethical risk management in co-op programs, followed by a descrip-

tion of the research design, including case selection, data collection and data analytic techniques. The study findings are then presented as a framework of risk management practices, being education and training, institutional support, policies and processes, collaboration with the WIL community, and student communication. Relationship management is identified in the subsequent discussion as the key theme underpinning the ethical risk management practices of WIL practitioners. The article concludes by outlining recommendations for improving ethical risk management.

Literature Review

An understanding of how WIL practitioners manage the ethical risks they encounter is limited because empirical studies focus on the ethical risks experienced by students, particularly in health-related disciplines (Cameron et al., 2019b). Authors identify the ethical dilemmas of students, and generally recommend institutional support such as education and training to improve students' ethical decision-making and awareness, and thereby manage ethical risks (Davies & Heyward, 2019; Paulins & Lombardy, 2005; Ricks, 2003). In fact, student experiences of ethical risk can inform ethics education and WIL curriculum design (Sharp, Kuthy, & Heller, 2005). For example, Paulins & Lombardy (2005) incorporated case studies of ethical dilemmas experienced by retail interns into the curriculum to improve ethical

awareness and understanding. Besides formal education and training, students may access a range of resources to manage ethical risks such as supervisors, peer consultation, in-class discussion, as well as host organization personnel and policy (Dodd, 2007).

Institution and professional association ethics codes or policies are also frequently cited risk management mechanisms, guiding WIL practitioners as to how they should manage an ethical risk. Ethics policies and codes may cover a diverse range of WIL activities including the sharing of sensitive student information (Reeser & Wertkin, 1997), recruitment of host organizations (Baker, 2012; CEWIL, 2020a), stakeholder conduct during the WIL program (Cooper, Orrell, & Bowden, 2010), and decision-making in response to an ethical risk (Johnston-Goodstar, 2012). An important starting point for institutional risk management is ensuring that host organizations, as well as WIL activities, comply with ethical standards prescribed by institution policy (Baker, 2012). However, WIL practitioners may be unaware of institution policy designed to manage ethical risks. For instance, a study by Newhook (2013) of ethical and legal risks in WIL programs from multiple stakeholder perspectives revealed that WIL practitioners were largely 'self-taught' in risk management. Colleagues and previous work experiences were the primary sources of education, not the institution. The author concluded that "it is likely then that as a result of

ineffective risk communication coordinators lack awareness of the relevant policies and are unaware of the connection between risk and university policy" (Newhook, 2013, at p. 89).

The student, and not WIL practitioner, is predominantly the unit for analyzing ethical risk management in WIL programs. As such, the literature is generally limited to examples of how individual WIL practitioners, typically the authors, responded to particular ethical dilemmas they experienced. These WIL practitioners use institution policies and WIL agreements to address unethical student behavior (Mark, 2001), codes in ethical decision-making (Johnston-Goodstar, 2012; Surbeck 2013), as well as open discussion of live ethical issues with students and WIL practitioners to educate stakeholders and to manage the ethical risk in question (Surbeck, 2013). Neil-Smith (2001), when reflecting on ethical issues associated with industry scholarships in WIL programs, also stressed the importance of balancing stakeholder interests when managing risk: "co-op administrators must ensure that (the) interests of all parties are considered and respected; this requires constant vigilance and a balanced deliberate approach" (at p.37). The study reported in this article advances understanding of risk management in WIL by exploring how a stratified sample of Canadian WIL practitioners manage the ethical risks they experience in the specific context of co-op programs.

Methodology

Research Design

This research is part of a multiple instrumental case study (Stake, 1995) which explores the phenomenon of risk management in co-op programs. The research question relevant to this study is: *how do WIL practitioners manage ethical risk in co-operative education programs?* Five characteristics of ethical conduct and ethical risks identified by WIL practitioners have been reported separately by the authors (Cameron et al., 2019b). These ethical characteristics, as well as selected ethical risks, are referred to in the case study findings to contextualize, and to deepen understanding about how WIL practitioners manage these ethical risks.

Case Selection

A limitation of the case study is the sample size and geographical area, being 10 WIL practitioners in Canada. Accordingly, the sample cannot be generalized to a population of WIL practitioners. Nevertheless, the validity of the research design was supported by maximum variation sampling techniques in case selection and rich description of WIL practitioners' experiences in the case study findings. A case typology was maintained during case selection (Table 1) to gain diversity of WIL practitioner perspectives. Practitioners, who had to possess a minimum three years' experience with co-op programs, were each

selected from a different site in Canada. They were then stratified according to the following demographic characteristics: region of Canada, institution type and size, academic discipline(s) that the research participant is involved with in co-op, position, gender, experience, and co-op office. WIL practitioners may be working within a centralized co-op office (i.e. delivering co-op programs across all or multiple disciplines) or decentralized (single discipline).

Study Design

The data collected for the case study is based on 10 telephone and face-to-face interviews, with the interview design receiving institution ethics approval (BCIT 2017-34). The interviews began with structured demographic questions, followed by a mix of structured and open-ended questions about ethics, ethical risks and risk management. Structured questions (including prompts and probes) relevant to the study reported in this article include:

1. What ethical issues have you encountered in co-op programs?
2. How did you deal with the ethical issue?
 - a. Can you provide examples?
 - b. What assisted you in dealing with the ethical issue? What were the challenges in dealing with the ethical issue?
3. What recommendations would you make to improve the handling of ethical issues in co-op programs?

The data was analyzed using reflexivity, eclectic coding and pattern coding techniques, as previously described by the authors (Cameron et al., 2019b). Overall, the case study is presented as a cross-case analysis (Stake, 1995) of ethical risk management by WIL practitioners, who are given a pseudonym in the study findings which follow.

Results

Five risk management practices emerged from the data analysis—education and training, institutional support, policies and processes, collaboration within the WIL community, and student communication. Three WIL stakeholders (employer, student and HEI) shared in these practices, which are described in the sections which follow.

Education and Training

Education and training of WIL stakeholders about ethical risk situations and appropriate responses is timely and systematic. Mandatory student education and training of ethical risks takes place before the work term. John stresses the importance of clarity and communication when working with new co-op students to explain the tripartite relationship involving students, employers and the HEI: "...Educating them on professional conduct in the workplace and professional conduct before you even enter the workplace. I mean it starts right at the job search". While practitioners regularly discuss appropriate conduct in a broad sense, there are opportuni-

Table 1

Case typology of WIL practitioners

Region of Canada	N	Institution type	N	Institution size (students)	N	Discipline*	N
Central	4	University	8	< 6,000	2	Business	5
Western	3	College	2	6,000 – 20,000	3	Science & Engineering	5
Atlantic	3			> 20,000	5	Humanities & Social Sciences	2
						Tourism & Hospitality	2
						Arts	1
						Health	1
Co-op office size	N	Position	N	Gender	N	Experience	N
1 – 4 staff	4	Staff	5	Male	5	< 10 years	2
5 – 15 staff	4	Manager	3	Female	5	10 to 15 years	5
> 15 staff	2	Both	2			> 15 years	3

*Some participants have multi-discipline responsibilities

ties for educating students about ethical risk prior to co-op at two key touch points—when preparing for interviews and when reviewing student agreements (Clare). For instance, John conducts individual student meetings to ensure that application materials (resume and cover letter) are truthful. Providing accurate information to employers impacts the integrity of both the student and the co-op program.

Institutions also develop ethics-specific educational tools during the co-op program to manage ethical risk. Kate provides students with real-life scenarios during information sessions, workshops, mock interviews and one-on-one discussions: “we came across this recently, and this is how we had to deal with it, and you should be aware”. Clare’s institution created a simulation workshop series dealing with ‘grey area’ situations. Student engagement was high, and the series could be modified for an employer

WIL practitioner to “quality assurance check” the ethical standard of the co-op program, and to provide ethical guidance on issues revealed in student reflections. WIL practitioners may also educate students in dealing with ethical risks they experience during co-op. For instance, Alice struggled when a co-op student shared unsafe workplace activity which involved a co-op student from a different HEI. Her co-op team coached the student through an action plan sensitive to confidentiality. When suspecting that students were copying resumes, David relied on education and not policy to manage this ethical risk “... it’s not necessarily one of those things that we would push through governance. In the end, I want students to grow and learn”. In fact, Sarah’s institution has student awards which promote ethical behavior and integrity during co-op, offering “... the impetus to get them to perform at a higher level and not wander down

audience. Students of Chris currently submit reflective learning assignments based on graduate attributes, which includes ethics. Reflective practice in the workplace enables the

a dark alleyway”.

WIL practitioners train employers about their roles and responsibilities as a co-educator before engaging a co-op student. This includes articulating organizational expectations to students upfront through pre-employment packages, onboarding workshops and training (Lisa), and involving (amongst other things) a discussion on values and expectations for ethical behavior in the workplace. Program support is required for employers who may not have experience, time or resources to lead effectively when ethical challenges arise and may include webinars, inviting employers in for student-led panel sessions and ‘lunch-and-learns’ (Clare). WIL practitioners may educate employers with vetting student candidates and conducting reference checks, thereby avoiding ethical risks associated with WIL practitioner involvement in student selection on behalf of the employer (Greg). Coaching may continue during co-op to manage ethical risks relating to poor supervision. Alice described an employer who offered excellent learning experiences, but poor student supervision attributable to an aggressive communication style which was undermining student learning. The WIL practitioner recommended alternate techniques for working effectively with students, which helped the supervisor make adjustments, resulting in an improved student-employer relationship, a higher level of learning and better output.

WIL practitioners also educate and train each other about ethical risks through collaboration and resources. Purpose-driven conversations take place where practitioners routinely discuss cases that clearly demonstrate an ethical dilemma and “talk it through as a team” (Chris). A repository of best practices in response to an ethical risk, and past precedents from all stakeholder perspectives, represents effective risk management (Clare), with these resources potentially framed as an FAQ of different ethical challenges (Alice).

Institutional Support

Institutional divisions, other than the faculty delivering the co-op program, support WIL practitioners in ethically charged situations. Practitioners have benefited from speaking openly and in confidence with: the International Education office (Kate), counselling and career services personnel (Kate, Steve, Lisa, Greg), the on-campus ombudsman (Alice), campus security and safety about handling sexual allegations involving co-op students (Steve), accessibility advisors about appropriate actions and words to manage student limitations and medical conditions (Greg), and fair treatment and harassment advisors for legal counsel, risk management guidance and support with ethical issues impacting both the co-op team and students (Lisa). For instance, HEI accessibility advisors are involved with managing the oft-cited ethical

risk of students not disclosing their limitation or medical condition (Steve, Greg). Without disclosure, WIL practitioners cannot coordinate reasonable accommodations with the employer, and they witness “things dissolving and falling apart on the work term as a result of whatever accommodation they should have tabled” (Steve). According to Steve, advisors work towards facilitating a “circle of trust” with stakeholders, “where students are comfortable identifying where they might have a barrier, disclosing it and then working with us and the counselling team in accessibility, along with the employer, to make sure that their needs are being met and the employer’s needs are being met, as well”.

HEI legal counsel support WIL practitioners who encounter ethical issues with legal ramifications. Institutional lawyers guided a colleague of Clare’s team when a student was asked to sign a five-year non-compete clause when the work term was only four to eight months. In a separate occurrence, a change to Canadian cannabis regulation presented an ethical risk when alumni approached Clare with co-op opportunities. Clare liaised with legal counsel to discuss liability as well as the “... ethical issue to determine if those types of positions are things that we should recommend ... and if we can effectively work with those employers”. Institution-wide support may be required for ethical misconduct by students that also poses legal and reputation risks for the institution. For instance, John joined an

institution-wide committee, with participants from various experience and backgrounds, to investigate and discipline a student who had garnered a workplace client list from the employer to start their own business.

Policies and Processes

Policies and processes guide practitioner decision-making in response to ethical issues involving students and employers. Co-op is a contract between the student and HEI which incorporates policies and processes designed to afford students procedural fairness. Sarah implements an appeal process where co-op students can defend their actions, with the disciplinary action proportionate to the gravity of the alleged ethical misconduct: “[The student] shouldn’t stop studying engineering because they had something go amiss on their work term”. However, serious misconduct may result in termination of the work term and ineligibility to pursue future co-op opportunities, as was the case of a co-op student who stole employer contacts to bolster their own business client list, being an act of academic dishonesty (John). Conversely, student complaints relating to workplace harassment, workplace bullying or abuse of authority are resolved by following processes underpinned by fairness and relationship management. For instance, Chris’s team interviews the student before raising the issue with the appropriate employer representative: “where there is room

for misinterpretation of the intent of the other party, we don't want to throw the relationship into friction". In clear situations, the student is immediately removed from the workplace. Student-facing and employer-facing practitioner teams help with a fair review. If deemed safe, students are encouraged to solve problems by talking directly with their supervisor and engaging in workplace dispute resolution processes. Asking "what would you like us to do to help you?" allows for focused conversation between practitioner and student (Chris).

HEI policies and processes also apply to HEI recruitment of employers and employer recruitment of students. When onboarding new employers, a due diligence procedure facilitates consistent and fair treatment of prospective employers (Lisa). The information requested involves common employment conditions (work term, pay scale), but its focus is on the learning opportunities of co-op (description of duties, level of rigour) and employer participation as a co-educator with the HEI (worksite visits, evaluations). David identified the tension in recruitment between growing co-op opportunities and protecting students from harm: "Not every employer should be working in co-op. That doesn't make them a bad person or a bad employer, but they're not structured to provide the mentorship that co-op students require or need". The HEI may avoid ethical risks by terminating the employer relationship if the employer cannot meet the requisite

standard of a co-educator (Alice). Once onboarded, the employer may inappropriately request WIL practitioners to pre-screen student applicants or seek specific information about student grades, health and general suitability. Processes which prohibit such practitioner conduct, and make employers solely responsible for applicant review and hiring, creates a level playing field for both students and employers in recruitment (Chris).

Despite due diligence processes, the employer may engage in conduct which exposes the HEI to ethical risks. HEIs respond by engaging in processes which may terminate or suspend the employer relationship. The decision to terminate is based on the nature of the misconduct and the HEI-employer relationship - length, quality and demonstrated alignment with co-op objectives (Chris). For instance, John has removed students from a workplace after discovering that their actual work practice did not match the duties outlined in the job posting, and employers have been removed from co-op programs for cancelling employment opportunities or withdrawing offers close to the work term start date (Chris, John). Alternatively, employers who withdraw employment offers may remain in co-op subject to conditions, such as covering the student's co-op fee or providing networking support, and they may be subject to a disclaimer on future postings alerting students that in the past, offers of employment have been withdrawn (Chris). Policies provide an ethical standard for WIL practitioners to

employ, but this does not prevent the WIL practitioner from offering solutions to employers that do not pose ethical risk. For instance, employers may offer co-op students full-time, permanent positions while on their work term, thereby discouraging a return to courses (Cameron et al, 2019b). Greg articulates the policy prohibiting such conduct, but as an alternative, suggests that the employer: hire the student for an additional work term (if possible), engage in other forms of WIL (applied studies), offer part time hours while the student completes their studies, and/or hires the student after graduation.

Collaboration With the WIL Community

WIL practitioners collaborate within their institution and externally through provincial and national associations to manage ethical risks. Clare acknowledged that collaboration using case conferencing provides clarity for WIL practitioners when responding to ethical risks: "... sometimes with ethical issues it's just kind of difficult to know how to proceed. It's difficult to know if there's a clear path". Discussions focus on alternatives and potential outcomes in the best interest of the student (first and foremost), HEI and the employer. Colleagues with similar ethical values provide collective strength, or validation, for the WIL practitioner when encountering an ethical dilemma. For instance, Alice's rejection of employer requests to "send only the good

students”, even when employers maintain that *other* institutions conduct applicant screening, is an action supported by colleagues who share a “very clear moral compass”.

Colleagues also provide a balanced view on an ethical risk by articulating student and employer perspectives through case consultation (Steve), and act as an ethical touchstone for WIL practitioners (Steve, Alice). When struggling with difficult decisions, Steve credits the ethical guidance of management: “... she’s always said ‘if you can explain it to me in a way that makes sense, and a way that makes you sleep at night, and really just employ some pretty hardcore common sense, you’re making the right decision’”. Regular meetings to discuss student and employer issues provides Alice with a sounding board and an opportunity to share intelligence about employers with whom multiple WIL practitioners interact with: “... we will sound off as a group on situations that we’re dealing with. Because we do have some shared employers. Therefore, there’s going to be shared student experiences. And so that’s been really nice, to be able to talk openly about it as a group if we want”. Provincial and national WIL associations also facilitate collaboration with WIL colleagues, providing access to best practice and resources. Lisa attributes the success of their program to adopting ideas shared in a “here’s what we’re doing” format at national conferences and professional development sessions. Greg reaches

out to CEWIL Canada regularly with questions for colleagues and board members, which include ethical issues.

Student Communication

Student communication, both incoming and outgoing, complements policies and processes designed to manage ethical risks. Steve emphasises the importance of building a program culture of communication, where students are comfortable sharing their concerns with Steve who can then be proactive in managing ethical issues, as “most of the issues we have come from students not saying anything until it’s too late”. WIL practitioners provide counsel and positive reinforcement so that students remain connected with the institution during co-op. Strategically timed emails reinforce course responsibilities and deadlines, reminding students that WIL practitioners are available year-round (Lisa). The WIL practitioner also act as liaison for student access to other institution services. For instance, when a student reported workplace harassment but would not permit the institution to intervene, Lisa connected the student with both the HEI’s counselling services and the harassment and discrimination advisor, reinforcing the option to change employers throughout the discussions. When workplace accommodation for health or mental needs are disclosed, Greg starts with an employer meeting to determine “what’s fair for the employer to offer a student while they’re

employed with them, and what’s fair for the student”. Determining student workplace readiness involves subsequent communication with the counselling department.

Student communication with employers can minimise the consequences of an ethical risk created by students. For example, students who terminate a co-op opportunity after accepting an offer was an oft-cited ethical risk (Chris, Clare). For students who disclose beforehand their intention to terminate the co-op arrangement, Clare recommends to students to communicate with the employer: “If you’re going to do this, with or without our support, you need to be communicating with the employer and be up front”. In one case, Clare required a student to write a letter of apology to the employer and was informed, following meeting with their faculty advisor, co-op advisor and manager, that they would be removed from the co-op program if the action was repeated. Clare then documented the activities and discussion in a follow-up e-mail. Fortunately, the employer relationship was maintained.

WIL practitioner communication also makes clear the responsibility of the student to manage the ethical risks they create. Kate focused on clarity and meticulous record keeping when dealing with an international co-op student who ignored work permit rules. With guidance from the HEI’s international student center, Kate provided clear information on options and potential consequences. All involved maintained detailed

records of emails and discussions with the student and made it “... very, very clear that it was their decision to move forward with this against our better judgement, against the institution’s better judgement and then, again, outlining what the consequences might be down the road if they elected to stay in Canada”. The WIL practitioner effectively transfers risk to the student, clearly communicating that it is the student’s responsibility to make the final decision on a matter which raises ethical issues, while it is the institution’s role to advise about the potential consequences of student decision-making.

Discussion

The findings are the first known systematic study of ethical risk management by WIL practitioners in co-op. In particular, the study described methods for *educating and training* WIL practitioners to handle ethical issues, whereas the existing literature focuses on WIL practitioner education of students (Davies & Heyward, 2019; Paulins, 2005; Ricks, 2003). Institution *policies and processes* to manage unethical stakeholder conduct has previously been identified as a risk management practice (Baker, 2012; CEWIL, 2020a; Cooper et al., 2010; Johnston-Goodstar, 2012; Newhook, 2013; Reeser & Wertkin, 1997), and is consistent with WIL practitioners’ assertions that ‘adherence to rules’ is a characteristic of ethical conduct (Cameron et al., 2019b). WIL practitioners

who self-regulate, that is adopt their own rules or processes for managing co-op situations, may be attribute to their perception that the policy undermines stakeholder interests, for example a minimum GPA requirement for students to enter a co-op program (Cameron et al., 2019b), or may arise from the total absence of policy. Either way, a failure of policy exposes the institution to ethical risks.

The experiences of WIL practitioners also revealed three practices to manage ethical risk not previously examined in the literature – institutional support, collaboration with the WIL community, and student communication. Internal and external collaboration with WIL practitioners, as well as support from institutional divisions (e.g. legal, disability and equity services) are practices which manage other risks including legal, reputation and operational risks (Cameron, 2019; Cameron et al., 2019a). As such, the findings confirm the capacity of these practices to manage ethical and non-ethical risks which may undermine the delivery of co-op programs.

Relationship management was the theme that underpinned the five risk management practices. Co-op involves more stakeholders, and relationships between stakeholders, than traditional study programs. The overall tripartite stakeholder relationship (student-employer-institution) entails layers of internal and external relationships, such as employer supervisor-student; institution supervisor-student; supervisor-supervisor; student-client/patient; WIL practi-

tioner-employer; and WIL practitioner-other institution divisions. The additional layers of communication attributable to additional relationships can complicate management of co-op programs and thereby expose the institution to risk (Rosenblum & Raphael, 1987). In fact, qualitative studies have identified stakeholder relationships as a source of strategic, legal and reputational risk (Cameron et al., 2019a). Effeney (2019) formulated a stakeholder centric model for use in risk management that conceptualizes risk in WIL as “a network of potentially fragile relationships and interactions”. If a breakdown in any relationship is a risk in WIL, then practices which manage relationships represent risk management. The study by Cameron et al. (2019a) found HEIs that effectively manage stakeholder relationship by clearly articulating their rights and obligations, as well as providing timely communication and education, can minimize risk in WIL programs.

Figure 1 illustrates the tripartite stakeholder relationship in the context of ethical risk management. The five characteristics of ethics described by WIL practitioners in the previous study (Cameron et al. 2019b) provide a foundation for the risk management practices of HEIs. From a HEI perspective, a breakdown in any internal relationships (e.g. between WIL practitioners) or external relationships (e.g. HEI-employer, academic supervisor-employer supervisor) can expose HEIs to ethical risks. WIL practitioners can effectively man-

age stakeholder relationships by educating employers and students about their rights and responsibilities on co-op (care), regularly communicating with students before and during co-op (care, transparency), applying policies and processes to regulate stakeholder behavior (adhere to rules, integrity, transparency), and by receiving support from the institution through internal collaboration and education to improve their understanding of ethical risks or 'risk literacy' (Cameron & Orrell, in press), and when managing ethical risks (care).

The research findings also revealed that relationship management often involves a balance within and across stakeholder groups. Equity was the ethical characteristic that supported this balancing exercise by WIL practitioners. WIL practitioners engage in balanced, as opposed to student-centered, decision-making when confronted by an ethical risk that may impact HEI-student relationships. For instance, David considered the interests of other students who may miss out on that co-op placement (equity) in rejecting a student's request to complete an additional co-op above and beyond degree requirements. Risk management practices grounded in equity can also strengthen student-employer relationships. For instance, in response to student discontent with their employer, Alice allowed the employer time to address the issues in their relationship, rather than immediately intervening on behalf of the student. It was agreed with the employer

that Alice be updated about the outcome of their meeting so that Alice could subsequently provide support to the student, who was working in a remote location. Alice felt it was important to give the supervisor space and "build that trust and hope that they're going to support the student".

Policies and processes, as well as institutional support, can guide WIL practitioners in balanced decision-making involving students and employers. Clare's institution has a formal process for handling student-employer conflict. When a student or employer approaches the WIL practitioner with a complaint or concern, they first collect and document details from both sides. A co-op portal allows sections for notes on each student file. Unless the student has expressed workplace health and safety concerns which require immediate action, in-person meetings are arranged at the work site, on campus or in a neutral location. Case conferencing with other staff and practitioners may follow. An action plan is created and shared with the student and/or employer as appropriate.

Disciplinary processes also require a delicate balance to maintain HEI relationships with students and employers. In extreme cases, relationship management may result in the HEI terminating the relationship, thus barring the student or the employer from future co-op opportunities (Chris). In all cases, Chris checks to see that the employer fulfilled their responsibilities as a quality co-op supervisor, verifying that

the student was informed of their shortcomings and was offered the opportunity for improvement. If activities before termination are questionable, a greater duty of care is offered to the student, often allowing them to continue in co-op. If the employer terminated the student responsibly, students are ineligible to continue with co-op. As stated by Chris:

But, if there's any question mark at all about the sequence of events, we'll basically give the student another opportunity to succeed with some very clear direction on 'if this happens again, you'll be ineligible to continue' ... I think we do a good job of exercising fairness and transparency in the process.

The next section outlines practices for improving ethical risk management, based on the research findings and the recommendations of WIL practitioners during the interviews.

Conclusion

Canadian WIL practitioners manage ethical risk through education and training, institutional support, policies and processes, collaboration with the WIL community, and student communication. The capability of the WIL practitioner to manage a variety of stakeholder relationships is a strong indicator of effective ethical risk management. The rich description of risk management practices reported in this article reinforces the complexity

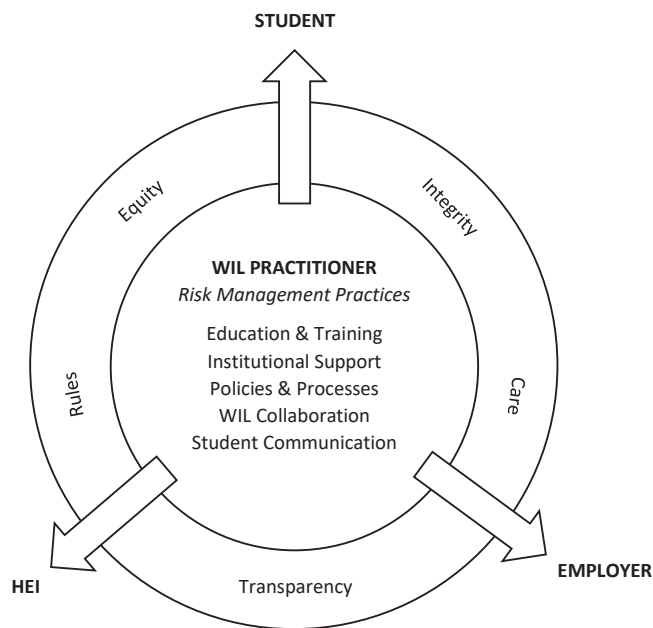


Figure 1: Ethical risk management in WIL

of the WIL practitioner role in managing stakeholder relations with care, equity and transparency, while adhering to program rules and maintaining program integrity. WIL practitioners clearly welcome support and collaboration in building greater understanding of ethical risk and risk management practices, and professional associations have a role to play in providing resources to manage ethical risks. Overall, the study findings can be used by HEI management to improve the risk literacy of their staff, and to evaluate and improve existing HEI risk management frameworks.

Recommendations

WIL practitioners sought more information, guidance and access to strategies for managing ethical risk. Risk management training for practitioners should

be more deliberate, systematic and structured, and could eventually be a required competency for the role. Practitioners are largely unaware of what constitutes ‘risk’ and would benefit from risk management training relative to the wider HEI environment and specific to their co-op program. Decision-making models and risk management strategies should be aligned with controlling, transferring, reducing and avoiding risk in WIL.

Provincial and national associations should increase educational opportunities focused on risk management. Professional development involving the sharing of best practices is a peer modelling strategy consistent with the collaborative culture described by WIL practitioners in the study. David envisions a co-op ombudsman type position (maintained through CEWIL or the HEI)

where students and practitioners could bring ethical complaints and challenges, allowing for a more neutral approach and increased transparency in decision-making. Online educational materials could include curriculum and problem-solving scenarios describing how peer practitioners’ approach ethical challenges. Webinars or an e-course on ethical issues (Clare) can provide a platform for discussing issues in a focused setting. Alice highlights on-line courses available to practitioners through the World Association for Cooperative and Work-Integrated Education (WACE) which presents a “broad spectrum of experiences and outcomes and questions” on how to approach “curious situations”. Global educational tools could be expanded to include a stand-alone course on ethics (Chris). Existing ethical guidelines provided by CEWIL (CEWIL, 2020a) focuses solely on recruiting and sets out principles for the three key co-op stakeholders (employer, student, HEI). These guidelines could be expanded to incorporate ethical risk management during the co-op program.

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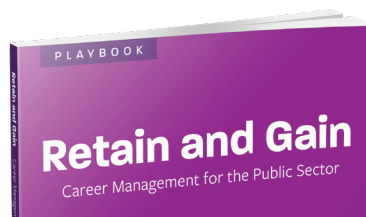


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Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness as Non-Cognitive Factors Related to College Adaptation and Satisfaction with Life Among Franco-Ontarian Post-Secondary Students Living in an Anglo-Dominant Context

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to determine how Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness, facilitate the College Adaptation and predict students' Satisfaction with Life. Using a sample of 179 first-year students, the development of a novel scale used to measure Vocational Readiness, or the degree to which a student is ready to make a post-secondary program choice and be engaged in the transition to post-secondary studies, was done and validated. Correlational analyses showed that all aspects of Vocational Readiness are consistently associated with better overall Adaptation in College and overall Vocational Readiness is associated with all subscales of College Adaptation. Regression analyses showed that Vocational Readiness was a significant predictor of College Adaptation and Satisfaction with Life. Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was also a significant predictor of Satisfaction with Life. The interaction between Vocational Readiness and Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity (Model F) was a significant, negative predictor of Satisfaction with Life. Post-hoc regression analyses indicated that both Vocational Readiness

and Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity are significant predictors of Social Adaptation.

Keywords: Vocational Readiness, College Adaptation, Satisfaction with Life, Ethnolinguistic Identity, Minorities

Traditionally, college perseverance and success has been attributed mainly to cognitive factors such as intelligence and academic abilities (Khine & Areepattamannil, 2016). However, an increasing body of research tends to demonstrate that non-cognitive factors have positive effects on college performance, and that these effects are sustained over time (Conley, Aspengren, Stout, & Veach, 2006). Broadly, five general categories of non-cognitive factors have been identified in relation to academic performance: Academic Behaviours, Academic Perseverance, Academic Mindsets, Learning Strategies, and Social Skills (Farrington *et al.*, 2012) with many sub-constructs being identified as the body of research grows (Khine & Areepattamannil, 2016).

In a racial minority context, research has shown that non-cognitive factors, such as cultural variables, influence college perseverance and success (Cohen, Garcia, Purdie-Vaughns, Apfel,

and Brzustoski, 2009). These non-cognitive factors seem also to be predictors of social integration, (Steele, 1992, 1997; Yeager & Walton, 2011), institutional sense of belonging, and student self-perception (Walton & Cohen, 2007; Walton & Spencer, 2009; Yeager & Walton, 2011). In a Canadian ethnolinguistic context, non-cognitive factors can have a special significance, where, side-by-side, two distinct linguistic groups coexist. Indeed, the Canadian constitution recognizes French and English as the official languages of the confederation. With a population surpassing 35 million, 20.39% of the Canadian population self-identify as Francophone (Statistics Canada, 2016) with the vast majority of these French-speakers living in Quebec. Outside of Quebec, there are approximately one million self-identified Francophone Canadians dispersed throughout the other Canadian provinces and territories (Statistics Canada, 2016).

Francophone students living outside of Quebec are constantly exposed to the dominant Anglophone culture. Relevant literature has shown (see Castonguay, 2002) that this constant exposure can dilute one's ethnolinguistic identity. Indeed, Francophone students in Ontario often perceive themselves as not

entirely Francophone, but rather as a combination of Francophone and Anglophone, often referred to as bilingual Francophone (Pilote, Magnan, & Vieux-Fort, 2010; Samson, Sovet, Cournoyer, & Lauzier, 2016). This perception is not in the sense that these individuals equally master both languages, but rather that this term represents the core of their cultural identity, being neither Francophone nor Anglophone but a combination of the two (Sovet, DiMillo, & Samson, 2016). An investigation of 1130 Grade 12 Francophone students enrolled in 30 different French-language high schools in Ontario indicated that there is a strong correlation between ethnolinguistic identity and the intention to pursue post-secondary education in either French or in English. The more a student perceived themselves as a Francophone, the greater their intention to pursue their post-secondary education in French. Conversely, the more a student perceived themselves as Anglophone, the greater their intention to pursue post-secondary education in English (Samson *et al.*, 2016). It is important to note that according to relevant research, French-language primary and secondary schools seem to be one of the most important predictors of the development of a strong Francophone ethnolinguistic identity (Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Landry, Deveau, & Allard, 2006).

Ethnolinguistic identity has a strong influence on whether students in a Francophone minority context decide to pursue their post-secondary studies in French.

Therefore, it is important to determine whether ethnolinguistic identity facilitates the transition from high school to a French-language post-secondary institution in a minority context. The non-cognitive factors examined in this research are Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness. The first objective of this research will be to determine whether having a strong Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity facilitates the process of Adaptation into a Francophone college, as well as whether this strengthens Satisfaction with Life. Nevertheless, the choice of a post-secondary program does not only involve ethnolinguistic identity in a minority context, but also (and this is true for all students regardless of their background) include a certain degree of preparedness to ensure a realistic and catered choice in college programs. For example, students must have attained an adequate degree of self-knowledge (Duncheon, 2015), sufficient knowledge of their program of choice (Duncheon, 2015), a good social support environment (Zavatkay, 2015), and have identified salient career aspirations (Martinez, Baker, & Young, 2017). Therefore, the second objective of this research will be to examine whether Ethnolinguistic Identity is of equal or of more importance for Franco-Ontarian students' Adaptation in a Francophone college than being adequately prepared to make the right program choices prior to being enrolled.

Methodology

Participants

Participants included 179 first-year students (100 female) enrolled in Collège La Cité, a French-language post-secondary college situated in Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. Participants' had a mean age of 21.77 years ($SD = 4.21$), 88 % of participants reported being born in Canada, whereas 11 % reported being born in another country (1 % did not report this information).

Measures

Taking into account the goal of this study, the instruments chosen focus essentially on the non-cognitive factors related to Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness. To meet the goals of this research, three validated scales were used and one was developed to measure Vocational Readiness. The first scale, developed by Landry, Allard, and Deveau (2007), measured different aspects of *Ethnolinguistic Identity*. Ethnolinguistic Identity includes the sociostructural factors that affect a group's ability to behave and survive as a distinct and active collective entity within multilingual settings (Howard *et al.*, 1977; Landry & Bourhis, 1997). According to Landry and Bourhis (1997), the weaker the position of an ethnolinguistic group relative to a more dominant ethnolinguistic out-group, the more likely minority ethnolinguistic groups will assimilate linguistically into

the larger out-group, fading as a distinct ethnolinguistic collective. For this study, students were asked to rate their Ethnolinguistic Identity on a 9-point semantic differential scale from five differing perspectives spanning: culture, language, ancestry, the future, and territory. With a range from 1 to 9, 1 referred to “Doesn’t correspond to me”, 5 referred to “Moderately corresponds to me” and 9 referred to “Completely corresponds to me”. For example, *according to my culture (my way of thinking, my way of acting, my interests, my beliefs, my values), I consider that I am: Non-Francophone (1) - Francophone (9); according to my culture (my way of thinking, my way of acting, my interests, my beliefs, my values), I consider that I am: Non-Anglophone (1) - Anglophone (9)*. The Cronbach alphas for this scale were .80 (Francophone) and .85 (Anglophone).

The second scale used in this study was the French version of the *Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ-F)* by Larose, Soucy, Bernier and Roy (2015). Originally developed by Baker and Siryk (1984), this highly-cited 67-item questionnaire assessed overall Adaptation to College, as well as adjustment in four specific, but related areas including: Academic Adjustment, Personal-Emotional Adjustment, Social Adjustment, and Institutional Attachment. Larose, Soucy, Bernier and Roy (2015) tested the French version of the SACQ on 174 college-level students at several points in time to assess test-retest reliability. In addition,

academic records and data from other measures of emotional, academic, and social dispositions were collected by the authors at the end of high school and during the first year of college to assess the SACQ-F’s construct validity. The sample used to develop the translated version of the SACQ had equivalent means and sex differences when compared to those presented in American studies suggesting that the SACQ-F is a valid and reliable measure of the adjustment of French-speaking college populations (Larose *et al*, 2015). In the current study, students were asked to rate their College Adaptation on a 9-point semantic differential scale exploring Academic Adjustment, Personal-Emotional Adjustment, Social Adjustment, and Institutional Attachment. With a scale ranging from 1 to 9, 1 referred to “not applicable to me at all” while 9 referred to “applies perfectly to me”. The Cronbach alpha for this scale was .92.

The third scale used for this research was the *Satisfaction with Life* scale developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985). For the purpose of this study, we used a French version of this scale that has been validated by Blais, Vallerand, Pelletier and Brigare (1989). This measure consists of items such as: *My living conditions are excellent* and uses a seven-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 “Strongly disagree” to 7 “Totally agree”. A high score on this scale indicates a high level of Satisfaction with Life. The Cronbach alpha for this scale .93.

The last scale used in the current study was specially developed by the main author to measure participants’ Vocational Readiness, or their degree of readiness to make a post-secondary program choice and be engaged in the transition to post-secondary studies. In the current study we aimed to validate this new scale with an exploratory factor analysis. Correlational and regression analysis were conducted with the final version of this new scale. The Vocational Readiness scale is comprised of four subscales spanning: 1) Vocational Confidence - relationship between self-knowledge and career plan/post-secondary program choices; 2) Vocational Preparation - active search for information about postsecondary programs; 3) Vocational Aspirations – self-perceptions and beliefs about future career 4); Vocational Satisfaction – current satisfaction with vocational development and process. Cronbach’s alpha for the final version of Scale 4 indicated the test’s internal consistency to be highly reliable (14 items; $\alpha = .93$).

Analysis Plan

In order to evaluate the factor structure of Scale 4 (Vocational Readiness), an Exploratory Factor Analysis was undertaken. The Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed in Mplus Version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017), using Maximum Likelihood as researchers have suggested it yields the best results (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Eigen values and VSP test (scree plot) indicated

that the best model would include 4 factors. Analyses revealed that the factors were correlated, and consequently we used an oblique rotation (Promax) to allow factors to co-vary. We used sequentially the following criteria: first items were removed if they did not load on any factor with values greater than .40, or loaded on more than one factor with values greater than .40; second, items were removed if they loaded on a second factor with values greater than .20 (conservative criterion; Howard, 2016); finally, items were removed if they loaded on an additional factor not predicted by the Eigen values and VSP test. To evaluate model fit of the final solution, we used the Chi-Square and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) indices, with RMSEA values below 0.06 indicating an excellent fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Pearson correlations between all study variables were assessed using SPSS v25. Regression analyses were also conducted in SPSS to examine the predictive value of Vocational Readiness and Ethnolinguistic Identities. Models A, B, C and D aimed specifically at assessing how College Adaptation could be predicted from these non-cognitive factors, while Models E, F, G and H aimed at examining how Satisfaction with Life could be predicted. In Model A and E, Vocational Readiness and Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity were entered as predictors; in Model B and F, Vocational Readiness and its interaction with Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity; in Model C and G, Vocational

Readiness and Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity; in Model D and H, Vocational Readiness and its interaction with Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity. In addition, based on correlational analyses we conducted a post-hoc test to specifically examine the predictive value of Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity on Social Adaptation (in conjunction with Vocational Readiness; Model I). Finally, we tested the interaction between Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness with regards to that same variable.

Procedure

This research took place at Collège La Cité, a post-secondary French-language institution located in Ottawa, capital of the Canadian confederation with a Francophone population of 157,886 (16.9%). Students registered at Collège La Cité study exclusively in French. All first-year students were invited to participate in the present study by professors teaching a mandatory French grammar course. The questionnaires used in this study were disseminated to participants through a website specifically created for this research. Each professor provided their students with a password to access the website. Those whom accepted to participate in the study were given adequate time at the end of the class to complete the questionnaire. Data collection occurred between the beginning of February and the end of March of the academic year which began in September. The password

provided allowed access to the study website for a period of five hours. This research was reviewed and approved by the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board.

Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis and the final items of the Vocational Readiness Scale are shown in Table 1, along with their factor loadings. According to the criteria outlined in the Analysis Plan, we performed the following item deletions. Items 5, 9, and 12 were removed on the second iteration; item 11 on the third iteration; items 10 and 24 on the fourth iteration; items 1, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23 on the fifth iteration; and lastly items 16 and 26 on the sixth iteration. The sixth iteration yielded a 4-factor model solution that had good fit to the data (Chi-Square = 50.06, $p = 0.16$; RMSEA = 0.035, C.I.: 0.000–0.065).

Correlational Analyses

Descriptive statistics and correlations between study variables are shown in Table 2. Correlational analyses showed that all aspects/factors of Vocational Readiness are consistently associated with better overall Adaptation in College (r ranging from .276 to .357; $p < 0.01$), and overall Vocational Readiness is associated with all subscales of College Adaptation (r ranging from .249 to .476; $p < 0.01$). This suggests that individuals showing high

Table 1
Rotated Component Matrix for the Vocational Readiness Scale

		Factors			
		1	2	3	4
2	J'ai une bonne idée de ce que je veux choisir comme formation, métier ou profession (<i>I have a good idea of what I want to choose as training, trade or profession</i>).	.93			
3	Je sais ce que j'aimerais faire comme travail plus tard (<i>I know what I would like to do as a job later</i>).	.89			
4	Je connais assez mes points forts pour choisir une formation, un métier ou une profession (<i>I know enough about my strengths to choose a training, a trade or a profession</i>).	.76			
7	J'ai pris le temps de faire des recherches sur l'internet pour en savoir plus sur des formations, métiers ou professions qui pourraient m'intéresser (<i>I took the time to research the internet to learn more about training, trades or professions that could interest me</i>).		.95		
6	J'ai pris le temps de me renseigner sur des formations, métiers ou professions que je pourrais faire (<i>I took the time to learn about training, trades or professions that I could do</i>).		.81		
8	J'ai pris le temps de parler à une ou des personnes pour en savoir plus sur des formations, métiers ou professions qui pourraient m'intéresser (<i>I took the time to talk to one or more people about training, trades or professions that might interest me</i>).		.60		
15	Selon moi, le travail peut m'aider à me développer personnellement (<i>In my opinion, work helps with my personal development</i>).			.97	
14	Selon moi, le travail peut m'aider à être fier de moi (<i>In my opinion, my work is a source of personal pride</i>).			.97	
13	Selon moi, le travail est une manière d'utiliser mes talents (<i>In my opinion, work allows me to use my talents</i>).			.81	
18	Je compte surtout sur mes efforts pour réussir dans le monde du travail (<i>I count especially on my efforts to succeed in the world of work</i>).			.69	
21	J'ai confiance que je pourrai faire ma place dans le monde du travail (<i>I am confident that I will be able to take my place in the world of work</i>).			.57	
27	Dans le contexte de mes études collégiales, si je pouvais recommencer ma vie, je n'y changerais rien (<i>In the context of my college studies, if I could redo my life, I wouldn't change anything</i>).				.97
28	Dans le contexte de mes études collégiales, jusqu'à maintenant, j'ai atteint les objectifs que je m'étais fixés (<i>In the context of my college studies, up until now I've achieved the goals I've set out for myself</i>).				.81
25	Dans le contexte de mes études collégiales, je suis satisfait(e) de ma vie (<i>In the context of my college studies, I am satisfied with my life</i>).				.71

Estimator: Maximum Likelihood
Rotation: Promax
Rotation type: Oblique

Factor 1: Vocational Confidence
Factor 2: Vocational Preparation
Factor 3: Vocational Aspirations
Factor 4: Vocational Satisfaction

Vocational Readiness adapt better to college, academically, socially, as well as emotionally, and have a better sense of belonging in their college. Having a stronger Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was associated with having greater Vocational Readiness (especially with regards to Vocational Aspirations and Satisfaction), and having better Social Adaptation. Having an Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was associated with being younger, having a poorer Voca-

tional Readiness (especially with regards to Vocational Aspirations), and having a decreased sense of belonging. Older age was positively correlated with Vocational Confidence and Preparation. There was no significant gender differences observed.

Regression Analyses

The results of the regression models are shown in Tables 3 and 4. Table 3 shows the results

of the four models (Models A, B, C, and D) that tested the predictive values of Vocational Readiness, Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity, Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity, and their interactions on College Adaptation. Overall, only Vocational Readiness was a significant predictor of College Adaptation. Table 4 displays the results of the four regression models (Models E, F, G, and H) that assessed the predictive value of Vocational Readiness, Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity, Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity, and their interactions on Satisfaction with Life. Vocational Readiness remained predictive of Satisfaction with Life in all models. Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was also a significant predictor of Satisfaction with Life. The interaction between Vocational Readiness and Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity (Model F) was a significant, negative predictor of Satisfaction with Life (although the β value was very modest for this interaction). There was no significant gender differences observed.

The post-hoc regression analyses for Social Adaptation are shown in Table 5. Results indicated that both Vocational Readiness and Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity were significant predictors of Social Adaptation (Model I) but

Table 2

Correlational analyses and descriptive statistics

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Gender															
2. Age	0.112														
3. Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity	0.097	-0.046													
4. Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity	-0.129	-.232**	0.003												
5. (Overall) Vocational Readiness	0.015	.195**	.154*	-.151*											
6. Vocational Confidence	-0.08	.220**	0.026	-0.118	.863**										
7. Vocational Preparation	-0.004	.160*	0.052	-0.11	.814**	.694**									
8. Vocational Aspirations	0.082	0.136	.246**	-.154*	.811**	.588**	.525**								
9. Vocational Satisfaction	0.036	0.127	.149*	-0.105	.778**	.564**	.494**	.477**							
10. (Overall) College Adaptation	-0.126	0.079	0.111	-0.13	.404**	.357**	.276**	.307**	.375**						
11. Academic Adaptation Subscale	-0.02	0.1	0.046	-0.081	.279**	.275**	.199**	.197**	.242**	.902**					
12. Social Adaptation Subscale	-0.07	0.072	.202**	-0.053	.476**	.393**	.333**	.396**	.425**	.677**	.423**				
13. Personal and Emotional Adaptation Subscale	-.223**	0.071	0.058	-0.137	.346**	.295**	.218**	.247**	.366**	.843**	.682**	.423**			
14. Sense of Belonging Adaptation Subscale	-0.13	-0.024	0.105	-.181*	.249**	.217**	.174*	.205**	.214**	.827**	.722**	.514**	.574**		
15. Satisfaction with Life	0.035	0.114	.231**	-0.085	.807**	.611**	.540**	.662**	.803**	.432**	.276**	.469**	.447**	.240**	
Alpha	-	-	.804	.848	.932	.940	.888	.923	.878	.922	.835	.743	.768	.744	.931
Mean	1.56	21.77	6.56	4.08	5.49	5.43	5.28	5.95	4.99	6.48	6.28	6.76	6.13	7.18	5.48
SD	0.50	4.21	1.72	2.23	1.15	1.56	1.48	1.11	1.67	1.40	1.60	1.60	1.78	1.89	1.18

* = $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed); ** = $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed)

the interaction was not (Model J).

Interaction Effects

A follow-up analysis was performed to examine the (interaction) effect of the strength of Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity on the link between Vocational Readiness and the levels of Satisfaction with Life. The Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity variable was centered, and three groups were formed: low, mid, and high Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identities. Low Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was defined as any value below $-.5$ standard

deviations, and high Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was defined as any value above $.5$ standard deviations, with all values in between considered as mid-levels of Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity.

Figure 1 shows the linear regressions of Satisfaction with Life on Vocational Readiness for each group. At high levels of Vocational Readiness, all groups seem to score high on the Satisfaction with Life Scale. However, at low levels of Vocational Readiness, individuals with lower Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identities also scored lower on the Satisfac-

tion with Life Scale.

Discussion

Although Franco-Ontarian linguistic rights are protected by the Canadian constitution, members within this minority linguistic group face a strong possibility of being assimilated by the massive presence of an English-speaking North American majority (Castonguay, 2002). The Franco-Ontarian school system is one of the main tools through which the French language can not only survive, but also thrive in this specific context. The preservation and

Table 3

Multiple Regression Analyses for College Adaptation (N = 179)

	A	B	C	D
(Overall) Vocational Readiness	.396**	.408**	.393**	.393**
Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity	0.05			
Vocational Readiness * Francophone Identity		.088		
Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity			-.070	
Vocational Readiness * Anglophone Identity				-.123
R^2	.165**	.171**	.168**	.178**

* = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; Standardized Coefficients (β) shown for each predictor variable.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analyses for Satisfaction with life (N = 179)

	E	F	G	H
(Overall) Vocational Readiness	.790**	.803**	.813**	.803**
Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity	.109*			
Vocational Readiness * Francophone Identity		-.092*		
Anglophone Ethnolinguistic Identity			.038	
Vocational Readiness * Anglophone Identity				-.049
R^2	.663**	.660**	.653**	.654**

* = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; Standardized Coefficients (β) shown for each predictor variable.

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Adaptation (N = 179)

	I	J
(Overall) Vocational Readiness	.456**	.478**
Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity	.132*	
Vocational Readiness * Francophone Identity		.025
R^2	.244**	.228**

* = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; Standardized Coefficients indicated (β)

flourishing of the French language necessitate a strong Francophone school system where students will master their native language while also being immersed in an immediate English social environment that requires the daily and constant use of the Shakespearean language (Landry & Allard, 1997; Landry, Deveau, & Allard, 2006). As such, the aim of this research was to determine how two important non-cognitive factors, namely Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness, facilitate the process of adaptation into a French-language college and predict students' satisfaction with life. To this end, the development of a novel scale used to measure Vocational Readiness, or the degree to which a student is ready to make a post-secondary program choice and be engaged in the transition to post-secondary studies, was done, and the validation process was started by performing an exploratory factor analysis that yielding a 4-factor solution that had good fit to the data. Future research should aim at further validating the structure of this new scale on a greater sample with confirmatory factor analysis.

As research supports the necessity of elementary and high school Francophone systems in the preservation of the French language, an increasing number of voices advocate for the development of a stronger and more comprehensive French-language post-secondary education system in Ontario (Labrie & Lamoureux, 2016; Malatest et al, 2017; Boucher, 2015). Therefore, it would be of

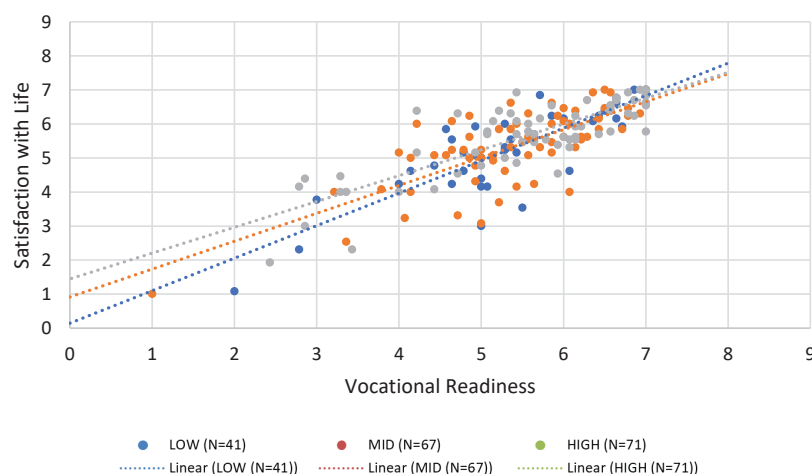


Figure 1. Interaction Effects of Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity on Vocational Readiness and Satisfaction with Life

importance to verify if the aspirations of the Francophone community are empirically based. In other words, is it objectively preferable for Franco-Ontarian students to pursue their post-secondary studies in French knowing that they will eventually enter a job market that is predominantly Anglophone?

The results of this investigation suggest that Francophone ethnolinguistic identity plays a substantial role in the process of adaptation to college life within a linguistic minority context that is officially recognized and protected by the constitution of the land. Specifically, a stronger Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was associated with a higher overall Vocational Readiness as well as Vocational Aspirations and Vocational Satisfaction. Also, Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was significantly correlated with Satisfaction with Life and Social Adaptation to college. Therefore, the correlational analyses of this investigation suggest that it is

objectively preferable for Franco-Ontarian students to pursue a post-secondary education that would foster their Francophone ethnolinguistic identity. The post-hoc regression analyses also supported this conclusion: Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity was found to be a significant predictor of Social Adaptation in addition to Vocational Readiness (Model I).

These results are in line with other research suggesting that a strong ethnolinguistic identity has a positive impact on many aspects of Franco-Ontarian students' lives. Using the Career Decision-Making Autonomy Scale (Guay *et al.*, 2006), research conducted on a sample of 716 Grade 12 students spanning 24 French-language secondary schools in Ontario showed a correlation between attachment to their mother tongue and career decision-making autonomy ($r = 0,24$; $p < 0,01$). Specifically, results from this study indicated that when Francophone students

demonstrate a high attachment to their mother tongue, they expressed a high degree of autonomy when making career decisions (Samson & Lauzier, 2016). This finding is not surprising as autonomy could be viewed as a requirement for one to express their cultural and linguistic specificity while being immersed in a massive Anglophone environment. It seems also that ethnolinguistic identity has an impact on the capacity to make a career decision. Administering the Career Decision-Making Difficulty Questionnaire (CDDQ; Gati *et al.*, 1996) on a sample of 984 Grade 12 participants enrolled in 30 French-language secondary schools in Ontario, researchers determined that participants that had a strong Francophone ethnolinguistic identity experienced less career decision-making difficulties than those students who reported weak Francophone ethnolinguistic identities (Sovet, DiMillo, & Samson, 2016).

An interesting result generated from this research comes from the interaction between Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity and Vocational Readiness to predict the Satisfaction with Life of Francophone students (see Figure 1). At high levels of Vocational Readiness, all groups scored highly on the Satisfaction with Life Scale. However, at low levels of Vocational Readiness, individuals with lower Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identities also scored lower on the Satisfaction with Life Scale. Herein a buffering effect against the negative consequences of low Vocational Readiness is shown

when strong Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identities are present. This finding is in line with studies that found that ethnolinguistic identity is an important factor of resilience for Francophones living amid an Anglophone majority (Sovet, DiMillo, & Samson, 2016).

Regression models tested suggest that Vocational Readiness would be the most important predictor of the process of adaptation to post-secondary studies. The Vocational Readiness scale measured students' self-knowledge, their active search for information about postsecondary programs, their perceptions of career, and their vocational aspirations and satisfaction; characteristics that are associated with the decision to make an catered post-secondary program choice. Therefore, not only is it important for Francophone students to develop a strong ethnolinguistic identity, it is of even more importance for these students to be prepared to make a program choice. In the context of the Franco-Ontarian minority, the synergy of these two specific non-cognitive factors facilitates the process of adaptation to post-secondary studies.

Finally, additional regression analyses showed both Vocational Readiness and Francophone Ethnolinguistic Identity as significant predictors of Satisfaction with Life. It is important to underline these results knowing that life satisfaction, according to research, is predictive of student performance (e.g., GPA) even after controlling for traditional academic achieve-

ment predictors (e.g., cognitive aptitude; Rode *et al*, 2005).

The present research provides a strong argument for the development of post-secondary programs offered in French in Ontario. This argument is further strengthened by the fact that many Francophone students are often required to enroll in Anglophone post-secondary programs due to the paucity of such programs being offered in French (Samson *et al*, 2016). In conclusion, this investigation indicates that Francophone post-secondary institutions appear to be the ideal environment for students within this linguistic minority. When Franco-Ontarian students pursue their post-secondary studies in their mother tongue, they increase the likelihood of obtaining their degree and increase their chances of being competitive in a knowledge economy that fosters higher education (Marginson, 2010). Ultimately, the promotion and development of Francophone post-secondary institutions in Ontario will not only be respectful of the spirit of the Canadian constitution, but also contribute to the socioeconomic development of the country.

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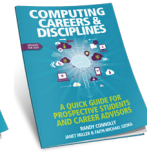
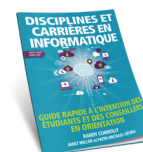
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Does Work Have to Make Sense? Work Engagement in a Group of Micro-Entrepreneurs. The Mediating Role of Coherence at Work.

Arkadiusz M. Jasiński. *University of Opole*
Marcin M. Ociepa. *University of Opole & Ministry of
Entrepreneurship and Technology of the Republic of Poland*

Abstract

There is increasing interest in psychological research concerning sense of coherence and its associations with psychological functioning in workplace. In an attempt to confirm and extend previous knowledge on this topic, in a three wave study, we investigated the relationships between coherence at work, job satisfaction and work engagement. The final sample consisted of 80 business owners (micro-entrepreneurs) operating in Poland and Germany. Women accounted for 48.75% of respondents. Either a high level of job satisfaction, coherence at work, and work engagement are being observed in the examined study. Meaningfulness of work, manageability at work, and job satisfaction are most closely related to work engagement. Meaningfulness of work represents the most essential indicator of work engagement. Results suggest that coherence at work is a mediator between job satisfaction and work engagement.

Keywords: sense of coherence, work engagement, job satisfaction, meaningfulness of work, micro-entrepreneurs

The objective of this article is to describe the links between work engagement (the dependent

variable), job satisfaction (independent variable), and the coherence at work (mediating variable) in a group of micro-entrepreneurs. According to the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), the characteristics of work environments can be shaped by job demands and job resources. The authors of this model assume that job demands are the physical, social or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and psychological effort and are associated with physiological and psychological costs. Job demands can lead to burnout, especially among medical personnel (Gleason et al., 2020; Xian et al., 2020). Job resources are the physical, social or organizational aspects of a job that are functional in achieving work-related goals and reducing job demands (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). In this paper, the focus is on resources and their relationship with work engagement.

Contemporary research suggest that job resources are associated with work engagement (Albrecht & Marty, 2020). In this article the job resources are: job satisfaction and coherence at work, as research demonstrates that both variables can be understood as job resources (Ghanayem et al., 2020; Masanotti et al., 2020). For our research we chose a sample based on micro-entrepreneurs. Micro-entre-

preneurs are owners of businesses that employ ten or less employees. This group has not yet been the subject of systematic psychological research in Poland. Thus, we investigated whether job satisfaction is a predictor of work engagement and whether this correlation is mediated by coherence at work. Our aim was to answer the following questions: Are both job satisfaction and coherence at work predictors of work engagement in a group of micro-entrepreneurs? Is the correlation between job satisfaction and work engagement mediated by coherence at work?

Work Engagement

Work engagement is defined as an affective-cognitive attitude to duties, people, and work-related objects (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Work engagement consists of three components: 1) vigor: a high level of energy, the will to invest effort and perseverance at work, especially in the face of difficulties; 2) dedication: identification with one's work, a sense of its importance, a sense of enthusiasm and pride in its performance; and 3) absorption: concentration at work, a sense of time at work passing by rapidly. It is implied that work engagement may be treated as a personal trait (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007) or as a state (Sonnentag,

2011). It represents a relatively constant phenomenon depending on the time of day, available resources, autonomy (Sonnetag et al., 2010) or support given by colleagues (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). The approach adopted in this study (Dalal et al., 2008) is to view work engagement as a construct containing a component similar to the trait (dedication) and components similar to the state (vigor, absorption).

A vast amount of research has been devoted to explaining other psychological variables based on work engagement (Eldor et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2019). Most research into work engagement has been conducted on teachers (Zeng & Xu, 2020), medical personnel (Baka & Derbis, 2012), or random employees (Geldenhuis et al., 2014). In the presented research, the sample is comprised of Polish and German micro-entrepreneurs that own companies employing fewer than ten employees. This professional group is a specific sector of managers whose have not yet been examined by empirical research.

Literature indicates that work engagement often is reflected through organizational and leadership-related factors (Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020) or job characteristics and perceived organizational support (Saks, 2019). Other significant organizational-related predictors of engagement are role clarity and growth opportunities (Duraisingam et al., 2020). Research results indicate that personal resources may also have a positive relationship with

the tendency to engage (Contreras et al., 2020). Within the classical concept of work engagement, Kahn (1992) assumed that individual characteristics and the perception of the work environment determine work engagement. In this concept, work engagement is based on three psychological conditions: reasonableness, safety, and possibilities. Work engagement is determined by the answers to three questions: Does the professional role make sense to the employee? Does the job give them a sense of security? Are they able to perform work-related tasks? Despite the well-established position of this theory in psychology, more studies investigating work engagement based on personal factors are not of prevalent in research databases.

A majority of research on the correlation between personality traits and work engagement has been conducted based on the big five model (Smith & DeNunzio, 2020; McCrae & Costa, 1987). Other research, emerging from the concept of conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 2006), has confirmed the mediation role of resources such as self-efficacy (Mérida-López et al., 2020; Liu & Hang, 2019), hardiness (Corso-de-Zúñiga et al., 2020) or self-esteem and optimism (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) in the correlation between job resources and work engagement.

Sense of Coherence at Work

In the explanation of the variability of work engagement, the concept of the sense of coher-

ence has not yet been given much attention (Antonovsky, 1995). Having a sense of coherence constitutes a personal variable, expressing the degree to which a person has a durable sense of certainty that: “stimuli coming from both the internal and external environment throughout life are structured, predictable, and explainable in character” (Antonovsky, 1995, p. 34). The sense of coherence includes three factors. The first, meaningfulness, reflects “the extent to which the subject feels that life has sense from an emotional viewpoint, where at least part of the problems and requirements that life brings are worth the effort, dedication and commitment” (Antonovsky, 1995, p. 34). Second, comprehensibility, refers to the extent to which persons perceives the stimuli coming from both the internal and external environment as cognitively-sensible, ordered, clear structured, and having a “high probability that everything will work out as well as expected” (Antonovsky, 1979, p. 123). Lastly, manageability, is the extent to which humans perceives the available resources as sufficient in meeting the requirements of the bombarding stimuli (Antonovsky, 1995). Resources are all forms of support that a person has at his or her disposal, in material forms such as a home, car, money, as well as ideology, religion, or beliefs.

Previous studies were concerned with temperamental conditions for a sense of coherence (Szcześniak & Stochalska, 2019). Research indicates that a sense of

coherence is positively associated with efficient work during stressful conditions and that it is a variable akin to a trait, and it does not depend on gender, age of employees, nor seniority (Rębak & Głuszek, 2014). High scores on a sense of coherence scale are a predictor of a reliable practice of a profession (Bracha & Hoffenbartal, 2015). Components of the sense of coherence play an important role in professional-work-related situations (Grødal et al., 2019).

It is worth considering a sense of coherence when explaining work engagement because it represents a construct similar to engagement. Like engagement, it has either cognitive (comprehensibility), instrumental-behavioral (manageability), and emotional-motivational (meaningfulness) aspects. The contemporary and most important theoretical proposition inspired by the salutogenic model is the conception of a work-related sense of coherence (Bauer & Jenny, 2007). Work-related sense of coherence (Work-SoC) is defined as the “perceived comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness of an individual’s current work situation” (Vogt et al., 2013, p. 1). In this study, the basis of research is not the modern approach of a sense of coherence (Work-SoC), but an original concept adapted to the work environment. In our view, coherence at work constitutes a personal variable expressing the durable possible degrees of coping with work-related phenomena. Work comprehensibility is important because of the capability to perceive

the profession as cognitive and predictable. Vogt et al. (2013) defined it as a perception of the work situation as structured, consistent, and clear. Manageability at work is conducive to thinking about a difficult situation as an achievable success, thanks to the awareness of the available resources that are sufficient to deal with the problem. In this approach, ‘meaningfulness of work’ is related with ‘perception of the problem as a challenge’. Meaningfulness of work leads to using more resources in job tasks. The continuance of research on the relationship between coherence at work and work engagement is in line with up-to-date research trends in social sciences which aim to better comprehend the positive aspects of human experience (Mittelmark & Bauer, 2017).

Relationship Between Job Satisfaction, Coherence at Work and Work Engagement

Job satisfaction is understood as a construct composed of three dimensions: emotional, cognitive, and behavioral (Hulin & Judge, 2003). Predictors of job satisfaction include: the level of remuneration, the perception of the attractiveness of work, the overall view at work, the possibility of both professional and personal development, as well as the level of stress at work (Jasiński & Derbis, 2019). Research to date has mostly sought out job satisfaction conditions (Walczak, 2019) or its inter-mediating role (Nikolaev et al., 2019; Tarkar et al., 2019). Within this study, job satisfaction consti-

tutes a variable explaining work engagement, suggesting that job satisfaction is a predictor of work engagement and not the other way around (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012; Yalabik et al., 2013).

Based on these results, the first hypothesis is: H1. Job satisfaction is a predictor of work engagement. Nowadays, most research has been focused on the concept of meaningfulness of work which is defined as the perception of one’s work as being more exciting, emotionally positive, and helpful in encouragement (Aguinis & Glavas, 2019; Bibby, 2001). Meaningfulness of work is reached when employees perceive their work as purposeful and significant (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Meaningful work has three components: a high passion for work, high sense of engagement in work, and a high connection to a sense of meaning in life. Results show that having a positive affect as a component of job satisfaction is a significant predictor of all meaningful work components. (Matz-Costa et al., 2019). The concept of sense of coherence at work is less popular but is a good theoretical basis for empirical research. Research that directly focuses on the role of the sense of coherence at work either has indicated a direct positive correlation between the sense of coherence with motivation to return to work (Leino-Loison et al., 2004), a healthy work pattern (Sharaf & Taha, 2019), and work engagement (Malagon-Aguilera et al., 2019). Additionally, research confirms the mediating role of a

sense of coherence in the burn-out–work engagement relationship (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010). More recent research shows that coherence at work is related to future work engagement but not with job satisfaction (Grødal et al., 2019).

Based on the previous theoretical analysis, we hypothesized: H2. Coherence at work is a predictor of work engagement. The results of previous research have proved that job resources, such as autonomy or social support, can contribute to the development of a general sense of coherence and coherence at work (Broetje et al., 2019). The mediation role of work meaningfulness was proven in previous study (Chaudhary & Akhouri, 2019). This study is the first attempt in testing all components of coherence at work as mediators between job satisfaction and work engagement in a group of micro-entrepreneurs. Thus, our final hypothesis: H3. Coherence at work is a mediator in the relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement.

Method

Participants

Analysis consisted of 80 business owners (micro-entrepreneurs) operating in Poland and Germany, all of which were full-time employees. Data about ethnicity and culture of participants was not collected. Women accounted for 48.75% of respondents, and men 51.25%. The average age of respondents was ($M =$

29.5, $SD = 6.82$), years of work experience ($M = 5.13$, $SD = 4.8$). In the year preceding the first measurement (2017), companies employed an average of 3.05 people ($SD = 2.39$). Taking into account the number of independent variables, the final sample size allows for the detection of at least the average size of the effects for the relationships under study (Cohen, 1992; Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007). The majority of companies were active in the professional, scientific, technical, and trade sectors. A detailed description of the sample is provided in Table 1.

Data Collection and Procedure

Data collection was implemented from March 2018 to May 2019. Participation in the research was voluntary and individuals could opt-out at any time. All respondents provided informed written consent to participate. No remuneration was provided for participating in the research. The questions were administered online. Participants were recruited online using publicly stated company's addresses emails.

The study had three rounds. In the first round of the study (T1), job satisfaction was measured. Moreover, a question-

Table 1

Demographic data

Trade	% ($N = 80$)
Commerce	37.5
Construction and finishing work	40
Professional, scientific and technical activities	18.75
Industry	3.75
Country	
Poland	58.75
Germany	41.25
Education	
Completed high school	30
Bachelor's degree	58.75
Master's degree	11.25
Number of employees	
one	35
two	23.75
three	10
four	6.25
five	8.75
six	2.5
seven	5
eight	5
nine	3.75

naire was used that contained questions about gender, age, education, length of business running, number of employees, industry, and country of operation. Six months later, in the second stage (T2), data was collected about coherence at work. For the following six months (May 2019), 80 people took part in the third stage (T3), and completed the work engagement questionnaire. 446 entrepreneurs participated in the study via invitation. The final sample was 80 respondents. The response rate was 17.93%. We did not observe any significant differences between the individuals who completed the study and the remaining 366 who dropped out.

Questionnaires

Work Engagement

This study used a shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale UWES-9 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The instrument serves for measuring the three components of work engagement and the overall level of commitment. The scale consists of nine items. The respondents provided answers on a seven-point scale (from zero – *never*, to six – *always*) by specifying to what extent the selected theorem describes their daily functioning at work. In the original version, the questionnaire has a reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .93$ (Baka, 2013). The reliability coefficient in our study was $\alpha = .90$.

Job Satisfaction

The Work Description Inventory questionnaire (Neuberger & Allerbeck, 1978) has been used in a previous Polish sample (Zalewska, 2001). The questionnaire examines the cognitive aspect of job satisfaction and allows for measuring in the following elements: Colleagues, Superiors, Contents, Work Conditions, Organization & Management, Development, and Salary. Satisfaction with each of them can be measured with a single-item, and this option has been used in the presented study. This version of the instrument consists of seven items in that check the overall level of job satisfaction. The reliability coefficient in our study was $\alpha = .87$.

Coherence at Work

Antonovsky (1995) developed the publicly available Life Orientation Questionnaire (SOC-29), which is used to study the general sense of coherence and its three components. It is comprised of 29 items and respondents rate using a scale of one to seven. For the purposes of the present research, the questionnaire items have undergone modification to refer to functioning at work. Modification was used by researchers with confidence judges' method. For instance: original sentence "When you talk to people, do you happen to sense they do not understand you?", after change "When you talk to people at work, do you happen to sense they do not understand you?", before change "Do you happen to sense that you do not really care about what is going on in your life?", after change "Do you happen to sense that you do not really care about what is going on in your work?", before modification "How often do you experience feelings about life where you do not you know if you exercise control?" after modification "How often do you experience feelings about work where you do not you know if you exercise control?" The reliability coefficient in our study of the whole instrument was $\alpha = .90$, and for the scales: meaningfulness of work $\alpha = .84$, work comprehensibility $\alpha = .73$, manageability at work $\alpha = .72$.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed using IBM SPSS 21 software and the PROCESS 3.3 bundle (Hayes, 2017). In the beginning, variable distributions were being tested. During the next step, *r*-Pearson's correlation analysis and linear regression analysis were performed. The mediation hypothesis (H3) was tested exploiting the PROCESS method based on regression analysis and the bootstrap procedure (Efron, 1982), which is resistant to breaking down the assumption about the normality of variable distribution in the population and allows for the detection of the indirect effect even with a very minor sample $n = 20$ (Creedon & Hayes, 2015). To be able to speak of mediation, the β coefficients for *a* and *b* paths and the indirect effect must be statistically significant.

Results

A high level of job satisfaction, coherence at work, and work engagement were observed in the measured sample. Statistically significant correlations between the variables examined have also been observed. Meaningfulness of work, manageability at work, and job satisfaction are most closely related to work engagement.

In order to test hypotheses H1 and H2, a stepwise regression analysis was performed. The results demonstrate that important predictors of work engagement are represented by job satisfaction and meaningfulness of work. Inclu-

Table 2

Descriptive statistics and *r*-Pearson's correlations

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Job satisfaction	37.73	7.55				
2. Work comprehensibility	49.76	9.1	.38 <i>p</i> = .008			
3. Manageability at work	52.41	7.36	.47 <i>p</i> = .005	.71 <i>p</i> = .007		
4. Meaningfulness of work	45.02	6.78	.47 <i>p</i> = .005	.64 <i>p</i> = .004	.81 <i>p</i> = .004	
5. Work engagement	49.71	9.31	.51 <i>p</i> = .002	.49 <i>p</i> = .006	.58 <i>p</i> = .003	.75 <i>p</i> = .004

sion of coherence at work into the explanatory model has increased the degree of the explained variance from 26%, $R^2 = .26$, $F(1, 78) = 27.6$, $p < .001$, to 60%, $R^2 = .60$, $F(4, 75) = 29.11$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis H3 was tested using the PROCESS method. For the mediation analysis, we implemented a bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 new samples taken from our sample, and indirect effects were calculated

(Hayes, 2009). The results led us to conclude that: job satisfaction is significantly related to work comprehensibility $a_1 = .38$, BCa 95% CI (-.16; .25), $p < .001$, and manageability at work $a_2 = .23$, BCa 95% CI (-.55; .14), $p < .001$; meaningfulness of work is significantly related to work engagement when variable job satisfaction is controlling $b_1 = .75$, BCa 95% CI (.69; 1.38), $p < .001$; and the indirect effect between job satisfaction

and work engagement – via components of coherence at work – is statistically significant $a_1 \times b_1 = .31$, BCa 95% CI (.14; .22), $p < .001$. In addition, the direct effect is significant, and job satisfaction is significantly related to work engagement $c' = .20$, BCa 95% CI (.15; .46), $p = .015$. Hence, we can conclude that coherence at work partly mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement.

Both the indirect and direct effects are of a statistical significance. It is reasonable to conclude that coherence at work partly mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement. The indirect effect is more considerable, which suggests that when taking into account coherence at work as a mediator, the correlation between job satisfaction and work engagement becomes stronger.

Discussion

The main objective of this research was to investigate whether there is a correlation between job satisfaction and work engagement of micro-entrepreneurs and to determine whether the relationship is mediated by coherence at work. The results provide evidence that coherence at work based on original concept of sense of coherence adequately explains work engagement. A relationship between meaningfulness of work and work engagement is stronger than a similar study based on general work-related sense of coherence (Grødal et

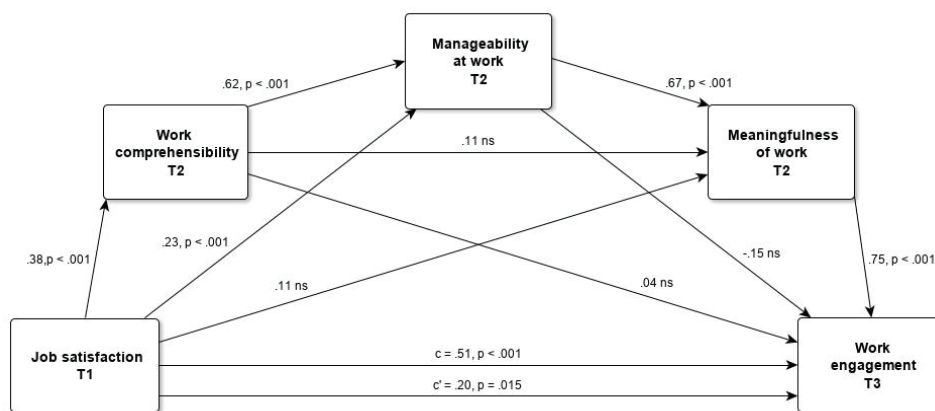


Figure 1. Triple mediation model shows the effect of job satisfaction on work engagement through components of coherence at work. Standardized coefficients are presented, ns = non-significant effects.

Note: Standardized total indirect effect = .31, $p < .001$, 95% CI (.14; .22) $R^2 = .60$, $p < .001$, $F(4, 75) = 29.11$, $p < .001$

al., 2019). The model of coherence at work presented in our study explained more percentage of the variance of work engagement than work-related SoC (cf. Van der Westhuizen, 2018).

The most important research result is that components of coherence at work mediate the job satisfaction relationship with work engagement. It is in line with the results of previous research findings (Derbis & Jasiński, 2018). However, in this study, triple mediation has been carried out, which gives rise to a conclusion that when monitoring work comprehensibility and manageability in the workplace, the meaningfulness of work alone is significantly correlated to work engagement. An indication of the role of meaningfulness of work in Polish employees is important because previous research suggested that Poles value pleasure and safety at work to a higher degree than they do its meaningfulness (Wojciszke & Baryła, 2000).

The results of this research are of a practical importance that brings up further evidence of the important motivational significance of meaningfulness of work (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). Increasing meaningfulness of work gives rise to higher engagement, which translates into benefits for both individuals and the organization (Chalofsky, 2003). The research results suggest that employees themselves demonstrate the initiative to seek out the meaningfulness of work, which constitutes a factor conducive to the introduction of optimization in

a company (Kompier, 2005).

A strong sense of coherence at work helps in strengthening a positive correlation between job satisfaction and work engagement. Neither work comprehensibility nor manageability at work mediates in the correlation between satisfaction and engagement.

The mediation effect can be described by three consecutive conditions:

1. Work must be personally comprehensible (cognitive aspect), this belief gives a sense of security related to professional role;
2. Employee has the resources necessary to cope with the professional role (instrumental-behavioral aspect), it is associated with a sense of professional effectiveness or resourcefulness at work;
3. The work seems to be a sensible effort that is worth investing in, which, owing to understanding the responsibilities and having resources to perform thereof, is perceived as an investment in acquiring new resources.

The research findings indicate that job satisfaction is a predictor of work comprehensibility, which is a predictor of manageability at work, which, in turn, has a strong positive correlation with the meaningfulness of work (whose high level is a very strong predictor of work engagement). The results call attention to the crucial role that meaningfulness of work plays in explaining the variation of work engagement when

monitoring job satisfaction, work comprehensibility, and manageability at work.

These conclusions are consistent with previous theoretical intuitions (Kahn, 1992), wherein it is difficult to imagine perceiving one's work as sensible without prior understanding of it and the feeling that one can do it. To summarize: if a micro-entrepreneur is happy with their work and, therefore, more engaged in the work, they are increasingly likely to 1) know what it is about (scope of duties), 2) have the tools needed to do it (scope of skills) and 3) see its sense (purpose range). Our findings suggest that researchers and entrepreneurs promote a labour environment conducive to work engagement.

Practical Implications

The results of this study supports the importance of resources in work engagement of micro-entrepreneurs where the work environment is highly specific. Our findings indicate that an adequate level of resources can result in higher work engagement in this group. Based on the theoretical contributions and previous literature, we can say that these findings can be applied to daily working life. Due to a close relationship between coherence at work and work engagement and its implications, social policy analysts should consider promoting the important economic role of micro-entrepreneurs. This promotion will likely have positive effects on the meaningfulness of work, which

is the important predictor of work engagement.

Promotion and flourishing of work engagement should be an important goal of researchers and managers because this variable is shown to be a valuable resource. Previous research has demonstrated that work engagement in turn predicts job performance (Tisu et al., 2020), creativity at work and innovativeness (Bakker et al., 2020; Sharma & Nambudiri, 2020). On the other hand, work engagement is negatively related with counterproductive work behaviors (Derbis & Filipkowski, 2018).

Limitations and Further Research

The sample size creates one limitation. The relatively small size is likely caused by the choice of methodology. Typically, collecting data through a three round method is associated with a considerable reduction in the sample size with successive measurements (Hofmann et al., 2012). It is possible that the final sample size was influenced by the large six month intervals between subsequent measurements. The relatively small sampling and use of the bootstrapping in the mediation analysis raises a potential concern with overfitting the regression model. At most, the findings may be cautiously referred to entrepreneurs from the micro sector (employing up to nine employees). Relatively little research has, to date, been devoted to this professional group,

which hinders regarding in a more general context.

We suggest that future research with a greater number of respondents be carried out using alternative statistical methods. Moreover, the lower accuracy of the presented results may be affected by the questionnaire which was used to measure coherence at work. In future research, it is worth making a Polish adaptation of the work-related sense of coherence scale (Bauer et al., 2015). The original version has nine items. In Norwegian validation, the questionnaire has eight items and very good psychometric properties (Grødal et al., 2018). This measure was effectively used outside of Europe (Van der Westhuizen & Ramasodi, 2016).

Future research should also examine not only owners of micro-enterprises, but their employees to. The perspective and scope of work engagement may differ from one another, depending on whether we are dealing with an employee-employer or employee-contractor.

Conclusion

The hypotheses regarding the correlation between job satisfaction and coherence at work with work engagement have been confirmed. Research results demonstrate the mediating role of coherence at work in the job satisfaction–work engagement relationship. It turns out that meaningfulness of work represents an essential predictor of work engagement where monitoring

job satisfaction, manageability at work and work comprehensibility explain 60% of the variability of the dependent variable. The relationships described herein can be seen as beneficial both to the individuals and organizations. They allow for the development of this sector of enterprises in Poland and Germany. The study has been conducted on a small sample; hence the scope of their generalization is limited. In the end, it is worth repeating this research to provide additional support for our findings and whether the level of work engagement depends only on the meaningfulness of work or on all components of the sense of coherence.

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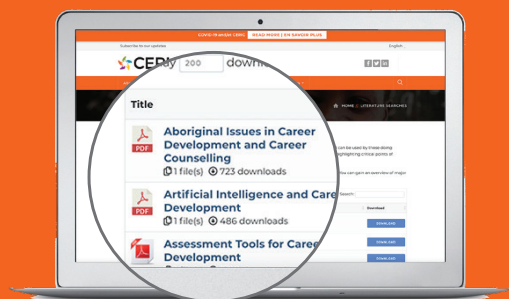
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An Exploration of Work-Life Wellness and Remote Work During and Beyond COVID-19

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Laura Hambley, *Work EvOHlution*
José Domene, *University of Calgary*

Abstract

Understanding work-life wellness contributes to improving the physical health, mental health, and productivity of remote workers. Due to physical distancing guidelines associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, many employees have been working from home, often without adequate training and resources. How has the work-life wellness of remote workers been impacted by this rapid transition to remote work, and how can work-life wellness be improved during and beyond these unprecedented times? Scholarly analyses about COVID-19 and remote work were reviewed, along with publications about remote work and work-life wellness. The literature indicates that the work-life wellness of remote workers could be influenced by lack of organizational supports during the transition to remote work, combined with COVID-19 related stress. Beyond the pandemic, organizations and employees will need support to find suitable remote work plans. Career development practitioners can assist clients by being aware of how the transition to remote work may be further complicated by home dynamics, COVID stress, overworking, and challenges collaborating. More research is needed

to better support the new remote workforce, including choosing the most relevant construct to describe the relationship between work and life, understanding how COVID stress influences work-life wellness in the long term, and testing related training programs.

Keywords: work-life wellness, work-life balance, COVID-19, coronavirus, remote work, new workplace, distributed work, flexible work, flexwork.

Between 2005 and 2015 the number of workers in the United States who worked remotely at least 50% of the time grew by 115% (Reynolds, 2017). Currently, around 56% of employees in the United States have a job which could be done from home at least part of the time due to it being information-based and involving a lack of physical work requirements (Global Workplace Analytics, 2020), while 37% of jobs in the United States can be done solely at home (Dingel & Neiman, 2020). Although there is less current information about the situation in Canada, in 2012, approximately 70% of Canadian employees worked from home at least some of the time (Jedras, 2013). In addition, 38% of Canadian jobs can be fully carried out at home, with most be-

ing in finance and insurance (Deng, Morissette, & Messacar, 2020).

Before COVID-19, teleworkers tended to be around 45 years old and held a bachelor's degree (Reynolds, 2017). Employers who offered formalized programs for employees to engage in remote work tended to do so to reduce land/building expenses, retain talent, recruit millennials, and bolster mental health (Anderson, Kaplan, & Vega, 2015; Vilhelmson & Thulin, 2016; Weikle, 2018). Employees appreciated these programs due to lower travel and clothing costs, flexibility of living location, increased autonomy, and a myriad of other benefits (Anderson, Kaplan, & Vega, 2015; Smith, Patmos, & Pitts, 2018). For some firms, the limited progression of remote work adaptation prior to COVID-19 may have been due to issues around trust, desire for in-person contact, and threat to traditional ways of working (Vilhelmson & Thulin, 2016).

When COVID-19 became an imminent threat, non-essential businesses that were able to do so moved to a remote workplace model (Dawson, 2020; Franklin, 2020). In contrast, industries unable to make this shift, such as manufacturing, hospitality, and tourism, had to lay off staff (Arora & Suri, 2020), and essential ser-

vices such as health services, food manufacturing, and grocery stores continued to operate, often at a heightened risk to employees. The focus of this review, however, is the experiences of workers who are working remotely from their homes.

According to a recent Conference Board of Canada survey, 55% of Canadian employers plan to keep their workforce remote until the risk of contracting COVID-19 significantly lowers. This is in line with the 60% of employees in the United States who want to keep working remotely as much as possible (Brenan, 2020). Working from home can mean more isolation and less collaboration (Siqueira, Dias, & Medeiros, 2019). Alternatively, working from home helps people avoid long commute times and lowers personal expenses such as parking and fuel (Weikle, 2018). Organizations implementing a remote workforce can also benefit from lower office space costs when leases expire, and less space is needed. In addition, 40% of Canadian businesses are reimbursing at least partial home office costs during this challenging time (Conference Board of Canada, 2020). Although the concrete costs and financial benefits of shifting to remote work are being identified, it is also important to understand how this change affects workers in terms of their wellness.

Work-life wellness, which we operationally define as the ability to be well in different aspects of life and feel well about the connection between work and non-work lives, is essentially con-

nected to mental health. According to Lunau, Bambra, Eikemo, Van der Wel, and Dragano (2014), poor work-life balance was associated with lower self-rated health and mental well-being in a sample of European workers from various professions. Haar, Russo, Suñe, and Ollier-Malaterre (2014) found work-life balance to be negatively related to depression/anxiety, for participants from seven different countries who worked full-time. Rudolph et al. (2020) identified work-family issues and telework as two of ten relevant areas of industrial/organizational psychology research to help support society during the pandemic.

There is a gap in the literature around location of work and its impacts on work-life wellness, including the impacts of organizational support and the collective trauma of COVID-19. Exploring the existing literature is an essential step for career development researchers and practitioners across settings to understand and increase the work-life wellness of remote workers during and beyond COVID-19. Next, we explore COVID-19, work-life wellness, and remote work on their own and in relation to each other. In addition to the nascent Canadian research in this area, we include findings from the international research community. We will then provide relevant implications for practice and ideas for future research.

COVID-19 and COVID Stress

COVID-19 is a virus that first broke out in Wuhan, China in December 2019, and causes serious respiratory issues in 20% of infected people (World Health Organization, 2020b). The emerging research indicates that the virus spreads primarily through moisture droplets expelled from the nose/mouth, which are inhaled by surrounding people or transferred onto objects that are later touched by others before they touch their face and contract the virus. Due to global travel, COVID-19 rapidly spread outside of China and has led to more than 61 million confirmed cases and 1.4 million global deaths by the end of November 2020 (World Health Organization, 2020a).

Considering the possibility of becoming sick, dying, losing a job, and being isolated or quarantined, people around the world are experiencing increased levels of anxiety and depression (World Health Organization, 2020b). In a study by Montano and Acebes (2020), COVID stress predicted depression, anxiety, and stress. The term “COVID stress” is part of what has been called COVID stress syndrome, which involves contamination and socioeconomic concerns, along with xenophobia, trauma symptoms, and compulsive checking (Montano & Acebes, 2020; Taylor et al., 2020). Given the reality of COVID stress for many, it is important for workers to find ways to avoid or manage this experience (Chong, Huang, & Chang, 2020). Therefore, achiev-

ing wellness across one's work and life, is more important now than ever.

Work-Life Wellness

The literature uses a variety of concepts to describe the intersection of being well in work and life, such as work-family conflict, work-life balance, and work-life integration. We describe and review these concepts prior to explaining why we have used the term “work-life wellness.” Since work-family conflict has been explored quite extensively in the literature (Duxbury & Higgins, 2012; Grandey, Cordeiro, & Crouter, 2005; Rudolph et al., 2020), we think it is more beneficial to society to focus on the positives. The following paragraphs outline some of the past research on work-family conflict, work-life balance, and work-life integration to justify our choice of work-life wellness as the construct for this paper.

Work-family conflict is a bidirectional construct containing family interference with work and work interference with family (Grandey, Cordeiro, & Crouter, 2005). Since we are addressing the interplay of work and home commitments for those who may not have a family at home (to be more inclusive), we decided against using this term as our main construct, despite its prevalence in past research. It is important to note that time, energy, strain, and cognitive conflict all play a role in an individual's life during the pandemic regardless of whether

they have a family (Rudolph et al., 2020).

Work-life balance is a common term used to describe finding balance between work and personal commitments. According to Soni and Bakrhu (2019), work-life balance is “not division of equal number of hours” to personal and work life, as the term suggests. Rather, it is a subjective application of time to work and personal life, as desired. We chose not to use this term because to suggest “balance” implies perfection, when the reality is work versus life focus and priorities are constantly in flux (Brower, 2014). The achievement of a theoretical state of balance appears to be an unachievable ideal (Carpenter, 2017; Ezzedeen & Zikic, 2017).

Work-life integration is defined as blending work and personal life (Brower, 2012). The notion of blending work and personal life can be problematic for some, since highly integrated lifestyles are often related to greater exhaustion (Wepfer, Allen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer, 2018). People who integrate their work with their personal life may have trouble setting boundaries and making time for what is important. However, Gadeyne, Verbruggen, Delanoeije, and De Cooman, (2018) found that for people who prefer work-life integration, bringing work home does not interfere with, and may even promote, work-home compatibility by facilitating flexibility to manage work and life. Since work-life integration seems to have both negative and positive impacts on the lives of workers,

we decided against using the term since we wanted to focus solely on positive life impacts (Ezzedeen & Zikic, 2017).

Although the term “work-life wellness” is used by some in industry, work-life wellness is a newer term in the research literature. Nonetheless, we believe this is a more suitable term for representing the desired outcome of being well in both work and life: the term focuses on how an individual can cultivate wellness through a variety of means, rather than only focusing on conflict factors or suggesting balance or integration as the ideal. It is also equally suitable for individuals with and without families. We have further defined it as the ability to be well in different aspects of life and feel well about the connection between work and non-work lives. People can reach their desired level of wellness using balance, integration, segmentation, or other approaches. Work-life wellness describes this phenomenon in a way that accurately depicts what is happening in employment settings, and in the widespread remote workplace COVID-19 has brought about.¹

COVID-19 and Research on Telework and Remote Work

Telework is typically defined in the literature as work-

1. When describing findings of studies, we will name the construct that the original researchers used instead of using “work-life wellness” (i.e. work-life balance, work-family conflict).

ing from home (Giovanis, 2018; Waters, Stoothoff, Gibraltar, & Thompson, 2016). Remote work is a broader term that includes any situation where an individual works away from the traditional office, such as working from client sites or coffee shops (Blount & Gloet, 2017). Several studies have been conducted on work-life balance and well-being of remote workers, which may be relevant to remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic.

A qualitative study by Grant, Wallace, and Spurgeon (2013) on 11 remote workers from the UK found remote workers struggled with overworking, which had a negative impact on their well-being. However, the same study found that remote workers enjoyed the flexibility of working whenever they wanted, especially when communicating with those from other time zones or making time for household chores. The remote workers also enjoyed being around family, even when they were engaging in work. However, during COVID-19, it must be recognized that being full-time with family, who are also likely to be home more than previously, may lead to a lack of personal time to recharge or an increase in caregiving responsibilities that would not have been present in the research of Grant et al. (2013).

Another study by Grant, Wallace, Spurgeon, Tramontano, and Charalampous, (2019) on 469 employees, most of whom were working full-time and having two years of remote working experience, found that work-life inter-

ference had a negative correlation with mental health and general health. The authors proposed that this could be due to the tendency of remote workers to overwork. Supporting this possibility, Fellestad and Henseke (2017) found that remote workers in the UK experienced work intensification, an inability to switch off, and greater work-home spillover than traditional employees. Nonetheless, the researchers also found that remote workers were more enthusiastic about their job, more loyal to their organization, and had greater job satisfaction. During the COVID-19 pandemic, many remote workers are still experiencing the inability to switch-off from work (Gambhir, 2020).

A 2016 dissertation by Martinez-Amador found that work-location enjoyment mediated productivity, especially for remote workers who worked more than three days per week remotely. Working from home was associated with greater work-life balance, possibly due to decreased commute time and more time to deal with personal life (Hill, Ferris, & Martinson, 2003). The same study showed that when controlling for hours worked, teleworkers were as productive as traditional workers. The possible mediating effect of work-location enjoyment may be particularly salient during COVID-19, where working from home has been mandated for many individuals, regardless of their preference or enjoyment.

A factor that may be particularly relevant to the sudden and unplanned shift to remote

work that has occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic is whether the worker has a dedicated room for working at home. Fedakova and Istonova's (2017) focus group study on 23 Slovakian teleworkers from IT companies revealed that the lack of a dedicated room when working from home decreased participants' work-family boundaries. Whether or not the participant had family at home during work hours also influenced work-family tension due to more frequent switching between family and work roles. At the same time, participants in this study enjoyed flexibility for family needs and tasks, and more autonomy when working from home; findings which may also generalize to remote work precipitated by COVID-19. However, parents may feel that children disrupt their work duties, which may increase family pressure and stress (Fedakova & Istonova, 2017). During COVID-19, when schools have been closed, trying to manage childcare and online education while working from home may be a major source of stress for parents.

According to Johri and Teo (2018), a qualitative study of 65 participants from technology companies who worked on multi-national teams suggests that employees enjoyed working at home due to comfort, location, and lack of interruption from colleagues. The firms in this study also experienced a lower turnover after implementing work from home options. Di Domenico, Daniel, and Nunan (2014) surveyed home-based businesses in a qual-

itative study of 23 entrepreneurs. The researchers discovered that the entrepreneurs in their sample often felt virtually connected while being physically disconnected. These entrepreneurs took advantage of third locations (such as coffee shops) for client meetings or for a change of pace from being at home. These third places have been less available during the pandemic; however, more are opening as restrictions lessen in places with fewer COVID-19 cases. Nonetheless, issues related to commuting, family responsibilities, sense of connection, and the ability to go to “third places,” may all be relevant influences on the experience of remote work during COVID-19.

Overall, before COVID-19, lack of commuting and increased flexibility were clear benefits for remote workers. Compared to traditional workers, remote workers tended to have slightly higher job satisfaction and lower role stress (Rudolph et al., 2020). However, work-life wellness for remote workers tends to depend on several factors, such as overworking and work interference with personal life. A dedicated working space in the home helped with boundary setting, particularly one with a closed door to reduce disruption. Remote workers are likely to have fewer disruptions from coworkers than they would experience in the office. However, depending on the remote worker's family responsibilities, childcare availability, and whether schools have been disrupted by COVID-19 outbreaks, office-based disruptions may be replaced by disruptions

from children/family members. As the pandemic continues, mandated remote work will continue as a method to decrease the risk of spreading COVID-19. It is essential to manage the challenges of remote working during this time, such as overworking, spillover, and family stress. How can we cultivate work-life wellness while working from home in an anxiety riddled time?

Implications and Recommendations for Practice

Research from the United States has identified numerous workplace-related problems following the need to engage in remote work due to COVID-19, including inadequate technology, lack of equipment, and increased distractions (CPA Practice Adviser, 2020). Companies without digital infrastructure in place were slower to transition to a work from home model (Arora & Suri, 2020). Managers who prioritize office presence over results especially struggled with the move to remote work (Rudolph et al., 2020). This evidence also suggests a need for employers and career development practitioners to focus on wellness and mental health: COVID-19-related work-life wellness and stress started stabilizing in June 2020 but continues to be above pre-pandemic levels (CPA Practice Adviser, 2020). There is also no guarantee that this stability will maintain itself in the long-term, especially as severe additional waves of the disease are occurring.

Recommendations for the workplace. To mitigate the difficulties with transitioning to remote work in a COVID-19 context, some companies have appointed dedicated human resources professionals that check-in regularly with employees to ask about their mental health, which has led to higher motivation and productivity (Arora & Suri, 2020). The practice of checking-in with team members and making necessary adjustments can help employees to feel included and more in control of their work (Cuthbertson & Ashton, 2020). Leading with empathy (i.e., a people-first approach emphasizing compassion) is also recommended, as employees may be experiencing more role spillover during COVID-19 (Cuthbertson & Ashton, 2020). Focusing on outcomes rather than inputs may help leaders to manage more effectively and make room for employee flexibility (Cuthbertson & Ashton, 2020).

Changing expectations also have an impact on employees, with the sudden wide availability of free webinar content, employees feel the pressure to build skills while also working from home and possibly caring for a family (Arora & Suri, 2020). To counteract this pressure, it may be beneficial to encourage employees to focus their skill-development efforts on ways to promote their mental health and improve their self-care practices. Prior to COVID-19, training to promote wellness was found to have significant positive impacts on self-reported work-life balance (Cave, 2019). In addition,

providing training about remote work and managing remotely could be particularly beneficial for those with little to no remote work experience before they were mandated to work from home due to COVID-19. It is likely that these individuals experienced greater challenges shifting their work location and style due to the transition (Yang et al., 2020). Those with collaborative roles may also benefit substantially from remote work training, to develop their virtual teamwork and collaboration skills (Yang et al., 2020). Finally, supervisor support and flexibility, of the kind found in family-friendly organizations, can mitigate employee stress around juggling work, family, and learning (Rudolph et al., 2020).

Recommendations for Career Development Practitioners.

Career development practitioners are likely to encounter workers who are struggling with an abrupt, potentially unwanted transition to remote work due to COVID-19. For these clients, it may be important to assess and differentiate between anxiety, depression, and other symptoms related to COVID-19 itself (Montano & Acebes, 2020; Taylor et al., 2020) and the distress resulting from the sudden changes in their work environment and job demands created by the abrupt move to remote work. Frameworks, such as Redekopp and Huston's (2020) recommendations for promoting mental health through career development or the action-based

integration of career development and counselling (Young, Domene, & Valach, 2015), may be beneficial for working with clients experiencing symptoms related to general COVID stress, as well as for promoting work-life wellness more generally. However, if the severity of a client's symptoms places them outside of the career practitioner's ethical scope of practice, referral to mental health treatment may be required (Canadian Standards and Guidelines for Career Development Practitioners, 2004).

For presenting problems that are specific to clients' transition to remote work, career development practitioners could advocate for or otherwise support their clients to pursue with their employers some of the suggestions in the "recommendations for the workplace" section. In addition, there are several topics that practitioners could raise with their clients to identify contributors and solutions to their distress. Exploring and addressing whether and how the transition to remote work has blurred the boundaries between work and home life may be important (Ezzedeen & Zikic, 2017; Fedakova & Istonova, 2017; Wepfer, Allen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer., 2018). Discussing practical issues related to equipment, space, and technology (CPA Practice Adviser, 2020), including the potential ergonomic and physical consequences of prolonged use of space and furniture not designed for office work, may identify specific issues that need to be addressed. Practical ways to maintain phys-

ical health in any office setting may be applicable in this situation, along with identifying ways to share space and resources with other members of the household or identifying third places, where the client could work at least some of the time (Di Domenico, Daniel, & Nunan, 2014).

When providing career counselling for COVID-19 related transitions to remote work, there may also be some family issues to address (Arora & Suri, 2020; Fedakova & Istonova, 2017). Some clients may benefit from problem-solving related to childcare responsibilities while working at home; this may need to include developing contingency plans in case of sudden school cancellations due to COVID-19, or the client's children themselves becoming ill. In addition, there is growing evidence that domestic violence rates have increased globally during the COVID-19 pandemic (Campbell, 2020; Usher, Bhullar, Durkin, Gyamfi, & Jackson, 2020). Although a client's stated problem may be from difficulties with working from home, career development practitioners should remain aware of the possibility that an underlying contributor to these difficulties may include threatened or actual conflict with other household members. Even without considering the COVID-19 pandemic, it may be beneficial for career development practitioners to become familiar with local supports for domestic violence and to engage in professional development on how to support clients who disclose experiencing violence.

Future Research

Fedakova and Istonova (2017) have called for more quantitative research on remote working since there is a lack of agreement in the literature on whether remote work leads to higher work-life wellness. To better understand work-life wellness of remote workers, further research using a variety of methodologies is required to explore the phenomenon in relation to gender, parenting/caregiver status, and relationship status. The potential influence of colleague support, opportunities for social interactions, and other environmental factors could also be investigated (Overla, 2017). Unique considerations for remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic should also be studied, such as the phenomenon of being mandated to work from home as opposed to choosing remote work, and the effect of COVID stress on work-life wellness. For example, longitudinal studies of remote workers and their work-life wellness through the pandemic could shine some light on how trauma impacts work-life wellness and how work-life wellness changes through the pandemic.

Remote work is likely going to continue to exist to a greater degree than it did before, due to fears around social interaction, the newfound benefits of remote work, and the creation of infrastructure and policies to support longer-term remote work. Video conferencing may replace in-person client visits for reasons related to cost and because being around others may

be viewed as an unnecessary risk (Kelly, 2020). How will work-life wellness shift after COVID-19? Again, longitudinal research could help us to better understand the longer-term mental and economic impact of the pandemic on employees.

Work-life wellness is a term used in industry that could be adopted by researchers to describe positive work-life interaction without implying balance or integration as the ideal. Asking employees whether the term work-life wellness best describes the interaction between their home and work lives may help researchers determine what construct should be used (i.e. work-life balance, work-life wellness, work-family conflict). Ideally, the term used in the research should be an accurate reflection of the reality employees experience. This term may change over the years as more knowledge is developed and the workplace morphs.

Regardless of term used, it is important to continue expanding understanding of remote workers' wellness and broader intersections of their career development and mental health (Redekop & Huston, 2020), both during and after COVID-19. More research is also needed to explore best practices for creating a team atmosphere and facilitating communication and trust between co-workers working remotely during the pandemic, when people are less able to encounter each other at the office (Saghafian & O'Neill, 2018; Yang et al., 2020).

Conclusion

Due to physical distancing guidelines associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, workers in many fields of employment have moved to working from home, often without adequate training and resources. This review of the literature about COVID-19, remote work, and work-life wellness reveals that organizations and employees will need continued support to find the best suited remote work scenarios during and beyond the COVID-19 pandemic. Career development practitioners can contribute to this support by becoming informed about the nature and consequences of remote work, including the intersections between remote work and COVID stress and distractions from children, and other problematic home dynamics. Career development practitioners may also want to pay attention to the implications of remote work on work collaborations and amount of time spent working. As more research emerges on this phenomenon, it is likely to uncover additional strategies for supporting the career development and mental health of Canadians continuing to work from home during and after the pandemic.

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Engaging Youth in Their Careers

Hoda Kilani. *Right Career Fit*

Abstract

This paper describes the steps in designing a career literacy project where students are active agents in their career planning. It aims to inculcate career management as a staying power strategy and to foster a commitment to vocational awareness and proactive career management for life. The project is intended for implementation in an inner-city high school that is characterized by its openness to increase awareness among young adults of the need to plan a career path and instil an overall habit of career and life management. An array of linked learning tasks following principles of career literacy learning unfold and include creating career visions, generating career goals, and designing education-career portfolios. By drawing on young adults' interests and values, their investment in their career development, and research-informed approaches to career coaching and counselling, *Iterative Project – Question, Reflect, Reassess* (IP-QR²) sets the stage for a deeper exploration into how young adults can make career and or educational choices that support the successful transition to life after high school.

Engaging young people in their careers begins with self and

career understanding. Opportunities to reflect on everyday thoughts, personal traits, and career options and to explore vocational and occupational experiences anchor students' understanding of career development. Options that resonate with the young career explorers by being relevant to their traits make connecting to career choice easier and hold the potential for increasing vocation discovery and commitment to chosen path and goals. Mediated by an environment of *caring adults* – including teachers and school career counselors with support from parents and external mentors when possible - trait and career exploration, instruction, experiential learning, and task design must reflect the educational intent and culminate in a product that demonstrates growth as well as self and career awareness development. For *Iterative Project - Question, Reflect, Reassess* (IP-QR²) this production is an education-career portfolio (Trusty, Niles, & Carney, 2005) that the student is supported to organize by the caring adults.

Project Design

The choice of *Iterative Project – Question, Reflect, Reassess* (IP-QR²) fulfills and over-achieves the educational goal. The word *iterative* is intentional as it correlates with a necessary and

continuous willingness to undergo career development and embrace adaptability (Peila-Shuster, Carlson, & Huff, 2019); upgrade skills; learn new technology; or review educational/career vision based on personal, professional, or environmental variables. The arrows in Figure 1 highlight this iterative nature. The need for continuity is reflected by the word *project* implying a learning outcome that is bigger than one task. The three stages of *question, reflect, and reassess* signify the importance of each step and will be detailed next.

Question

The first stage facilitates the designing of students' BEAVI (Beliefs, experiences, abilities, values, interests), an acronym chosen to facilitate reflection on values. Caring adults support students in this stage to discover what motivates them to act. IP-QR² provides a simple self-assessment chart - *Discover your BEAVI*, that facilitates finding each students' BEAVI. BEAVI is an acronym for:

- B - Beliefs
- E - Experiences
- A - Abilities/Skills
- V - Values
- I – Interests

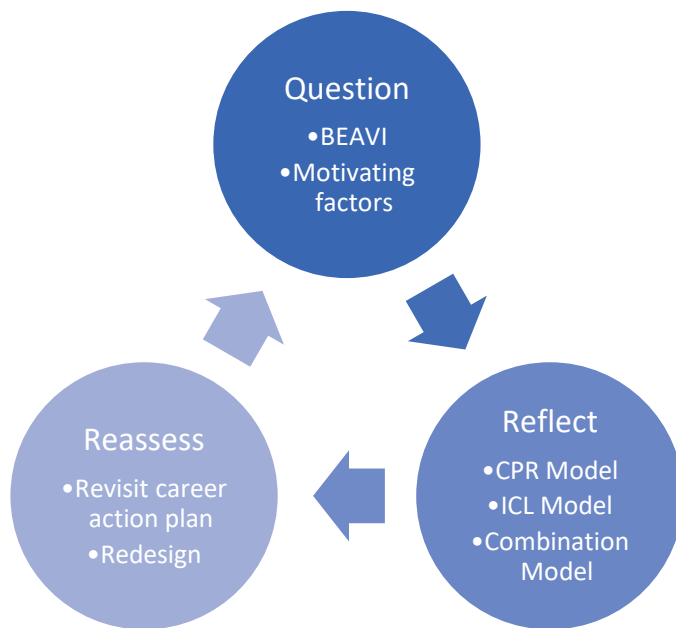


Figure 1: The Iterative Nature of IP-QR²

Students proceed to unravel the value of these five factors through powerful questioning that raises awareness, stimulates reflection, and provides in-depth insight into students' values. A *Discover your BEAVI* result underscores each student's unique values. It also provides caring adults the opportunity to discern which of the three models to utilize based on students' preferences and personalities (e.g. structured or not structured tasks) when completing *Discover your BEAVI*: CPR, ICL, or CM.

Reflect

This stage involves reflection to generate (initial reflection) and to maintain (iterative reflection) a multipurpose education-ca-

reer portfolio. Future use of the portfolio will vary depending on students' career aspirations. A portfolio should include a resume, BEAVI results, reflection on experiences as well as daily, weekly, monthly, and or annual accomplishments, awards, or recognitions. Information in the portfolio will facilitate academic/career decisions, goal setting, and resume creation. It will also expedite preparation for interviews, performance reviews, and reference requests.

Each student's characteristics are unique and every student comes with distinctive backgrounds and life experiences. IP-QR² approach proposes two models for the caring adults who take on this project to utilize based on their understanding of their

students' characteristics and experiences. They are: (a) CPR Model - Create, Process, Reflect and (b) ICL Model - Informed Career Literacy. It is important to note that flexibility to use both models can be a third option and is detailed as (c) CM - Combination Model. CM is to be utilized at the discretion of the caring adults mediating the project and is dependent on individual students' needs. Whichever model is chosen, the involvement of parents and external mentors is important in building on what is happening in school.

CPR Model (Create, Process, Reflect)

Emphasis is on open student-initiated exploration using the three steps of the CPR Model. It is the preferred model for individual sessions and is intended to address the distinctive needs of each student. The focus is on scaffolding students to use the newfound knowledge of BEAVI along with prior educational and career experiences to create their education-career portfolio and launch their experiential learning. The responsibility is put in the hands of the students while providing them with the support, questions, skills, and basics on how to create and maintain a successful career journey. CPR Model focuses on skills and practices that enable lifelong career story creation, experience processing, BEAVI evaluation, and iterative reflection.

CPR acknowledges students' voice as central to the creation of the education-career

portfolio. While the inputs of caring adults are crucial, students are encouraged to take charge of their portfolio. They decide what they will include in it, how they will create it, and how they will utilize it in the future.

Create. The caring adult's role is to ensure that students are supported to reach the career goals they set for themselves, remain accountable, explore vocations, and understand what it takes to be successful in a particular field. Questions to ask should provide value and a basis to create a career plan. They can include:

- What is your dream?
- How will you know that you have reached your dream?
- What will you see when you accomplish your dream?
- How will you feel once you have accomplished your dream?
- What will you hear?

Process. Tasks are student-centred and aim to develop and enrich career management with the creation of a resume and an education-career portfolio. Example tasks are:

- Think of three stories of personal relevant experiences - Write them down
- Process what is special about these experiences – Detail their value to you
- Connect these experiences to your BEAVI
- Create a resume
- Collect your findings in a

portfolio (online or hard copy) ensuring that you include your resume, BEAVI results, your dream-based career plan, your valuable experiences and or any other student added findings (awards, certificates...)

Reflect. Once the resume and portfolio are ready, it is time to start the reflection stage. This stage includes:

- Create a future resume based on the information in the portfolio
- Reflect on possible experiential learning opportunities or career scenarios
- Add BEAVI or experiences necessary to work towards chosen paths
- Change or delete any BEAVI or experiences that lost their appeal
- Create an action plan - experiential learning or employment opportunities

ICL Model (Informed Career Literacy Model)

The ICL Model features an alternative caring adult-facilitated, yet student-centred and structured model. ICL is a six-step model that is task-based. This model is consistent with the CPR Model. However, its step by step format is meant for students who may need guidance to initiate reflection and build on the knowledge discovered in stage 1. Due to its structured approach, it is also the preferred model for group sessions particularly in settings with 10 or more

students where providing individual support is not feasible.

1. Career Self-Assessment – Develop your BEAVI

- Recognise value of self-reflection for career success
- Identify ways to self-assess
- Develop approaches to regularly review personal characteristics

2. Career Vision Statement

- Design dream jobs, ideal lifestyles, and aspired futures
- Reflect on experiential learning or occupational opportunities that fit with vision
- Build awareness that while a career vision may not seem possible, the purpose is to reach for the moon and that the vision will change with more knowledge

3. Career SMART Goal Planner

- Clarify regular habits that support goal achievement whether to finish a school project or move toward a dream career
- Use career S.M.A.R.T. (specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, timely) criteria as a launch for goal setting
- Understand value of short, mid, and long-term goals

4. Career Goals

- Identify three time-sensitive career goals
- Pinpoint strategies for creating

- career-focused goals
- Clarify the meaning and value of career goal management

5. Career Objectives

- Clarify the difference between goals and objectives: the steps or actions that bring goals to fruition
- Learn value of detailing steps/actions to determining objectives
- Practice objectives design and management

6. Education-Career Portfolio

- Determine what to include in an education-career portfolio
- Create a career action plan - experiential learning or employment opportunities
- Have the knowledge and tools to regularly update education-career portfolio

Combination Model (CM). The combination model is to be used at the discretion of the caring adults mediating the project. If the student starts with CPR and the adult feels there is lack of focus or direction, then the ICM Model can be used to continue the journey of career action plan creation. Conversely, a switch to a more student directed exploration should always be an option. It is key to remember that every student is unique and their needs will change depending on what is going on in their lives: personal, academic, professional, financial, and or physical. The caring adult is guided by students' actions to

determine which model to use. The focus is on developing an education-career portfolio that leads to creating a viable career action plan, one that the student is comfortable to follow. The goal is to provide students with the skills needed to reassess and maintain career management for life.

It is important to note that all three models aim to teach students to take responsibility for their own personal, academic, and professional growth.

Reassess

This stage is about reassessing discovered values to redesign and revisit the career action plan. This is the iterative reflection stage. Once the action plan is created, stage 3 is the checking-in stage. The caring adults' role is to guide students to clue in on their thoughts, emotions, and goals. This is a stage of reflection that reawakens and reinforces awareness of the career action plan and ensures continued commitment to goals and to career management. The need to revisit or change the plan may result from:

- Lack of commitment to plan (short term goals not followed or were hard to follow)
- Modified BEAVI
- New experiences taking centre stage
- Life changes (personal, academic, professional, financial, physical)
- Other

Caring adults may need to help students to reassess and revisit what needs to be changed and how the change affects the career action plan. However, the adults may count on the student to already know what needs to be reassessed, and their role becomes that of mentors who listen, confirm, and boost commitment to the revisited plan. This third stage is what career management is all about.

Learning Tasks: Some Illustrative Samples

In this section, samples of the learning tasks are shared to give a sense of how the stages of IP-QR² flow. The intention is to underscore the flexibility within the tasks where even though they may seem structured in nature, they can be modified to be student-directed. Tasks are meant to engage students in building critical career literacy awareness by fulfilling the final goal of this project - a personal education-career portfolio.

One of the first tasks in any career management lesson involves exploring BEAVI traits. Reflecting on their beliefs, experiences, abilities/skills, values, and interests initiates the students' path to self-realization. Prior discussions along with opportunities to ask questions provide scaffolding for this task. The flexibility in the *Discover your BEAVI* task emphasizes its value in the reflection stage. The instructions are deliberately left open-ended and allow students to choose between filling

a chart or creating their own BEA-VI version in any format or media they choose.

What happens in CPR will be mostly student-initiated with the caring adult's role becoming that of a facilitator guiding towards experiential learning opportunities for further self-realization, growth experiences, goal direction, and collecting data for the final education-career portfolio project. Recall the availability of CM as a model to call on should the caring adults sense a need for guidance. As mentioned earlier, ICL's tasks are structured and encourage reflection through tasks.

Additionally, ICL invites students to draw on their dreams, lifestyle ambitions, or future visions to complete the *Individual Career Vision Statement*. The open-endedness of what appears to be a structured task is emphasized and provides students with questions to ponder when needed. The purpose is reflection that launches a path towards selecting intentional growth exploratory experiences created and set in the *Career SMART Goal Planner* task. This task encourages creation of goals that are SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, timely).

A more detailed *Career Goals* task that requires the creation of three time-sensitive goals further builds on the vision statement. It also familiarises students with the various steps in setting SMART goals. Discussion of the importance of goal planning precedes completing this task and should include: value of three-goal creation, significance of short,

mid, and long-term goals, and finally, flexibility of these chosen goals. Involving parents in their children's goals needs to be underscored since they are the main influencers in academic and career choices (Graham, 2020).

The *Career Goals* task leads to the *Career Objectives* task. The purpose of the *Career Objectives* task is to prompt students to define the actual actions that they need to take to fulfill their chosen goals. A role model's experience should be provided as a scaffold and a point for instructional discussion along with incidental embedding of necessary information gathering, skill development, knowledge building, and persistent actions that make career goals a reality. Students are then invited to use these discussions to identify the links between their career goals and objectives.

Here again, instructions in *Career Objectives* are open-ended since every student is different. Questions are provided as prompts to identify steps or actions needed for students to fulfill one of their goals. Questions can include:

- Which skills do you need to develop to reach your goal?
- Reflect on the knowledge you need, what do you need to know to accomplish your goal?
- What is the one thing that you can do on a daily basis to help you fulfill your goal?

The literature on career literacy highlights the role of increased awareness of education-career planning in enhancing

the rate of future success. Questions in the *Career Objectives* task build on this literature by initiating objectives' planning that leads to exploration of possible growth educational and vocational experiences.

The ultimate goal of the tasks is the creation of the education-career portfolio. Initial discussions revolve around the value of creating and maintaining a portfolio. Working collaboratively, caring adults and students reflect on what to include in the portfolio. Parents involvement is also crucial at this stage. From resume to personal accolades, the purpose is to help students see value in the life they have lived and gather enough information to identify purposeful and meaningful experiential learning and vocational opportunities.

Caring adults are the facilitators of this journey. Their role is to scaffold the transition from inspiring self-realization, encouraging growth experiences, to identifying goals-direction. As mentioned earlier, involving parents is important since they are key influencers in students' choices. Parents' input in this journey is vital and needs to be encouraged by the caring adults. Effective collaboration between parents and caring adults increases students' awareness of possible growth experiences and career opportunities.

Finally, caring adults have the flexibility to use freely available resources that they feel may aid students in this journey. For example, a caring adult can suggest the use of additional self-assessment tools, such as the VIA

Survey (VIA Institute on Character, n.d.) to support students who feel using only one test may not be enough. Other resources may include websites that focus on career education and exploration such as, O*Net Online (National Center for O*NET Development, 2020) and Alis (Government of Alberta, n.d.), that may be useful for information gathering. Recall the significance of students' IP-QR² journey and the use of these resources is to facilitate students' self-realization, growth experiences, and education or career goal direction.

It is important to note that students need to embrace these tasks and make them their own. Throughout their reflection on the three domains of self-realization, growth experiences and goal direction, the aim is to assemble an education-career portfolio as a final project. The purpose of this project is to create a reference framework for students that facilitates education-career management.

Conclusion

Engaging students in career planning involves making personal connections to career goals that are determined by the educational and non-educational exploratory experiences. This can be achieved by identifying and reflecting on key experiences that are personally and occupationally relevant. The growth experiences within and outside of IP-QR² aim to enhance students' ability to take responsibility for their personal, academic, and professional

development for life. Through the structured design of IP-QR², an education-career portfolio of experiences is collected and organized.

IP-QR² provides the basic design for a school career project; moreover, it aims to inculcate career management as a lifetime technique and to foster a commitment to career awareness and career management for life. The project is intended for implementation in an inner-city junior high or high school that is characterized by its openness to increase awareness among young adults of the need to plan a career path, to utilize experiential learning opportunities, and to develop a habit of education and career management. A preparation for such project takes time to locate and develop a community of caring adults - teachers, school career counselors, school administrators, parents, and external mentors - that supports the undertaking of this project.

With the support and unified vision of caring adults, career projects can keep students and their learning needs at the centre and achieve the goal of inculcating career management. To the extent we can involve students in the education-career plan and engage them in purposeful and experiential work, they will take charge of their plans and remain invested in their future.

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