Bilingualism in the Canadian Federal Public Service: The Value of the Bilingualism Bonus

by

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate if the bilingualism bonus is a motivating factor for usage or acquisition of a second official language in the Canadian federal public service and also to investigate whether the bilingualism bonus plays a role in increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service or not. This was an action research based study in which mixed methods were utilised to collect data, including a survey of public servants. The study found that the bilingualism bonus does not perform the intended role of the bonus, which is to motivate employees to use or acquire their second official language. The study also shows that the bilingualism bonus does not play a role in increasing bilingualism in the public service as a whole.

In applying the expectancy theory model, it was found that the reason the bonus does not motivate employees to learn and/or use their second official language is because some of the values in the expectancy equation are nil, therefore motivation is nil.
Acknowledgments

I wish to thank my daughter, Mackenzie, for the years of support that led up to the completion of this thesis. As she was going to sleep every night I was opening my books to study; as she was coloring pictures I was highlighting research; as she was learning to write cursive I was learning to write a thesis. Her pure, innocent, and honest words of encouragement made the difference between giving up and forging on. The thirst she has developed for discovery and learning through her first years of elementary school while I was completing my last years of graduate school, confirm that the sacrifices I have made in this journey have all been worth it. If I have achieved nothing else than to pass on to her the desire to never stop wanting to know, to never stop wanting to understand and to always question the status quo, then I will have succeeded.

“Be the change you wish to see in the world (Ghandi)”. 
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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Canada’s two official languages: A history of linguistic duality

Having two official languages (English and French) is a key identifier of the Canadian identity. The dual linguistic profile of the country goes back to 1867, the year of the Confederation, when it was established that both languages could be used during debates of the federal Parliament in addition to any court of Canada established under the Constitution Act. Almost a hundred years later, in 1969, the first Official Languages Act was enacted. The Act provided for the equal status of English and French throughout the federal government. The main goal of the Act was to ensure the public could get access to services in the official language of their choice when dealing with the federal public service, in designated bilingual regions. The Act is a federal one and applies only to federal institutions. Canadian provincial and territorial governments concerned with the protection of official languages have created their own language legislation (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015c).

While the Act was initially concerned with the respect of the official languages for services to the public, it was eventually expanded to include requirements related to the language of work within federal institutions while also promoting linguistic duality and developing official language minority communities (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015d).

Due to the importance of English and French in the Canadian identity, language rights were included in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (Government of Canada, 1982) which is part of the Constitution Act of 1982 (Government of Canada, 1982). Regulations and policies have been created through the years to clarify the circumstances in which governmental offices have to provide services in both official languages. The Act was revised a few times since its creation to expand its scope to better reflect the value Canada puts on linguistic duality. The most recent revision took place in 2005.

It is important to note that the Official Languages Act (Government of Canada, 2015) aims to ensure that the Canadian federal government provides services to both English and French members of the public in the official language of their choice, but does not force Canadians to learn both languages. Public servants have to provide services to the public in the official language of the client’s choice without delay, and the services offered have to be of identical
quality regardless of the official language requested by the client (in regions designated as bilingual) (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015c).

Canada has a policy of linguistic duality, which means there are two linguistic majorities which cohabit in the country, with linguistic minorities across the country. The census of 2011 shows that 75% of Canadians identify English as their first official language, leaving 25% identifying French as their first official language (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2014b).

There are nearly 200 languages spoken in Canada and the census of 2011 demonstrated that 98% of its 33 million Canadian citizens can speak one of the two official languages (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015a).

While the above explanation is very political and legal, the linguistic duality and cultural diversity of the country are fundamental values of the Canadian identity. Tolerance of others and a sense of accommodation are deep-rooted Canadian values largely due to the linguistic duality, which has taught Canadians to respect one another for many years (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015a).

1.2 At work in the public service
The federal public service (comprised of core departments/agencies and other institutions) is comprised of more than 257,000 employees across the country (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015b). As of March 31, 2015, Anglophones (English-speaking persons) represented 71.1% of employees in federal institutions subject to the Act and Francophones (French-speaking persons) represented 28.9% of employees (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015b). Comparing the public service workforce data with the 2011 census data, it appears that both official language communities are well represented across the government departments that are subject to the Act as per figure 1 (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2014b).
In order to fulfil some of the bilingual requirements legislated in the Act, such as ensuring the “respect for English and French and ensure equality of status and equal rights and privileges as to their use in federal institutions” (Government of Canada, 1985), a number of public service positions are designated as having a bilingual profile based on various criteria including level of service to the public and level of supervisory responsibilities, in various designated regions of the country.

In 1978, in the core public service, 25% of positions were designated as bilingual and in 2013 that number had risen to 43% (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2014a). The Treasury Board Secretariat of Canada (TBS) started offering a bilingualism bonus to qualifying employees in bilingual positions decades ago as an incentive for employees to assist the government in reaching and maintaining the proper representation of the linguistic duality of the country, in its public service. Other efforts such as offering training and job exchanges were made in earlier days to reach the proper levels of bilingualism. While several tactics have evolved over the years such as the type of training and tools offered, the bilingualism bonus remains in its current state for decades.

1.3 The bilingualism bonus – its history

At the end of the 19th century, the Canadian federal government gave an initial annual monetary supplement to those employees who could communicate in writing in both English and in French. In 1967 TBS created a differential of 7% for employees in secretarial,
stenographic and typing positions who required the use of both official languages in their
duties. This was replaced in 1976 with a bilingualism bonus of $800 paid out annually to
eligible employees in positions designated as bilingual throughout the core public service
(Treasury Board Secretariat, 2012b). The bilingualism bonus, when introduced, was intended
as a temporary measure designed to encourage employees to learn their second official
language. Since its inception several political figures and the Commissioner of Official
Languages have questioned the relevance and effectiveness of it.

The Commissioner of Official Languages, an agent of Parliament, was instated in 1969 as a
requirement of the *Official Languages Act* in order to ensure the protection and respect of
language rights in Canada as well as to promote the Canadian linguistic duality (Office of the
Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015b).

Commissioner Yalden stated in his 1977 Annual Report, only a year after the inauguration of
the $800 bonus, that it would not only become enormously costly, it would also cause harm to
employee morale and he indicated the bonus was out of line with the government’s very own
language policy (Commissioner of Official Languages, 1978, p.16). At that time, cost
estimates of the bonus were $30M per year. That same year the bonus was proposed for
removal during debates in the House of Commons, but stayed due to union opposition
(Parliament of Canada, 1978). Two years later, Commissioner Yalden spoke of the bonus as
being impossible to administer fairly, in addition to being costly and futile (Commissioner of
Official Languages, 1980, p.17). In 1983, Commissioner Yalden further argued in his Annual
Report that there was no discernible relationship between the then $40 million that was paid
out annually and any kind of improvements that were occurring in English and French
(Commisioner of Official Languages, 1984, p.15). Records of further debates in the House
of Commons related to the existence of the bonus can be found in 1994. During those
debates, the discussion appeared strictly economic. With a cost of $51M that year, one of the
political parties asked that the bonus stop being disbursed, along with proposing a number of
other ways to change the official languages (OL) program, to save money. It was viewed as a
waste of money (Parliament of Canada, 1994a). Further discussions in Parliament that same
year, from an opposition party, indicated that removing the bonus would mean taking money
away mainly from Francophones and would be a negative step towards the promotion of the
Francophonie (Parliament of Canada, 1994b). Again, the bonus remained.
By 2003-2004, the bonus was still in place and was costing over $63 million a year (Rodriguez, P., 2005). In a report of the Standing Committee on Official languages, it was then reported that APEX (the national association for federal public service executives) believed the bonus should be removed and investment put towards the younger generations to learn their second official language before entering the workforce in order to have a wider pool of bilingual candidates to recruit new public servants (Rodriguez, 2005).

In the same report, it was stated that unions for public servants believed the bonus should not only stay, but be recognized as salary for pension purposes as well as indicating that if the bonus were increased, it would motivate public servants to learn their second official language more. Everything being said, the Standing Committee on Official languages of 2005, like previous committees, was not convinced there was a correlation between the bilingualism bonus and an increase in the level of bilingualism in the public service (Rodriguez, 2005).

Fast forward to 2015 and current Commissioner of Official Languages since 2006, Mr. Graham Fraser, has stated publicly several times during his mandate that the bonus does not serve a purpose whatsoever. Despite the fact that Yalden and other Commissioners that succeeded him, as well as several reports and debates in Parliament repeatedly questioning the efficiency of the bilingualism bonus in supporting or promoting the OL program, it is still in place. Although the bonus is a negotiated benefit deemed to be part of applicable collective agreements, the amount of the bonus and its conditions for payment have remained status quo since its creation ($800 annually), yet the cost of it has increased significantly over the years, as indicated in figure 2.
1.4 The need for research and study implications

The Canadian public has questioned this governmental expense and Commissioners of Official Languages have argued against it, but these are public and political opinions not supported by any research into the working level. Public servants have not been asked prior to this research if the bilingualism bonus serves as an incentive for them and by extension if it is of value to the official languages program.

The researcher is a bilingual public servant for almost fifteen years, over six of those years as a manager. She has questioned the bonus and its impact on the official languages program over the years. She has wondered about the reasons she should get the bilingualism bonus even though she has been bilingual ‘from birth’ while at the same time people who barely ever use their second official language are also paid a bilingualism bonus. The questioning surrounding the validity of a bonus not paid out based on usage or performance was entwined with wondering if employees actually use their second language more because they receive a bonus. As a manager, she has also been questioned about the bonus by her employees, as to its purpose, its value, its applicability, and so forth. As a result of the personal questioning and the employee interest in the bilingualism bonus, this thesis explores if the bilingualism bonus supports or increases the level of bilingualism in the Canadian public service. This research was designed to obtain data that could be analysed to conclude if the bilingualism bonus motivates employees to learn/acquire or use their second official language and if there is any value in having it in place. The goal of this research was to open up the discussion.
with employees and find out their position, their opinion on the current situation and on how it could be changed. As a manager in the public service, the researcher has witnessed severe financial cuts over the past recent years within government affecting programs and employees, including language training. The economic aspect of the bonus (approximate cost of $82M/year) should be considered if it is found that the bonus does not play a role in the support or increase of bilingualism in the public service.

The issues surrounding bilingualism in Canada have been firmly entrenched for decades. With over 250,000 employees in the federal public service alone, the topic is of interest to senior and middle managers, employees, as well as members of Parliament. Discussions held prior to beginning this research, as well as during, with various hierarchical levels of employees including high-ranking officials have confirmed that the interest for this topic is present in Canadian government and worth researching. A key feature of the research was to determine and demonstrate to the Government if the bilingualism bonus that is given to employees as an incentive to obtain a second official language proficiency level actually translates into the use of the language by employees. Following rigorous analysis of data, the goal is to offer a way forward that is valid and based on research as opposed to relying on various political agendas, opinions or outdated policies.

As described further in the thesis, the topic of research is ideal for an action research study as it requires involvement from insiders in order to get a holistic view of the situation with probable solutions. The researcher is an insider herself, with a professional and personal interest in the research topic. The researcher was able to surmise that the topic of research was of interest to employees in her environment and therefore the opportunity was present for collaboration and learning as part of AR.

1.5 Objectives of the Study
The present study includes an overview of the circumstances related to the bilingualism bonus in the public service from when it was implemented, to today. This includes descriptive history gathered from various sources as well as statistics and legislation, but more importantly includes opinions held by public servants regarding this bonus and the state of bilingualism in the public service as it relates to language of work and impact the bonus has,
or not, on the official languages program. The study includes qualitative and quantitative data and analysis with the specific objectives of:

- Determining if the bilingualism bonus is a motivating factor for usage or acquisition of a second official language in the public service;
- Determining if the bilingualism bonus plays a role in increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service;
- Determining if the cost of the bilingualism bonus is a beneficial investment for the government;
- Offering recommendations for further action.
Chapter 2: Literature review and theoretical framework

“The role of theories is to explain how what happened was possible and took place, to lay out possible scenarios for the future, and to give good reasons for the ones that seem to be the probable next outcomes. This latter move, of course, relies precisely on analogizing outcomes from other cases and contexts in a coherent way” (Greenwood & Levin, 2007, p.69).

In establishing the scope of this research into the bilingualism bonus and whether it motivates employees to learn or use their second official language, a lot of literature and other documentation was reviewed, both from the practical and scholarly milieus.

From an academic perspective, theoretical frameworks were explored in two parts; motivational theories and compensation theories and frameworks. Motivational theories that could potentially explain if, or how, the bilingualism bonus is motivating people to learn or use their second language, were looked at, but also if any of the notions could be used to adapt or change the bonus framework if found to not be of value or motivational. The two main ones are Public Service Motivation Theory (PSM) and Expectancy Theory.

The topic being very practical and very specific to the researcher’s work environment in the Canadian federal public service, it limited the amount of academic literature directly related to the issue being researched. The larger portion of the documentation reviewed with a direct relationship to the topic of the bilingualism bonus in the public service is in the form of official government writings. The exploration of the current and historical context was found in governmental texts such as the annual reports of the Commissioner of Official Languages, various reports by the Treasury Board Secretariat, transcripts of House of Commons debates and so forth. There is consistency in policy documents as they are based on the same legislation. Annual reports from entities who report to Parliament are based on collected data and audit, but often include editorial opinions that do not appear to be supported by specific data. The lack of empirical data related to the value of the application of the bilingualism bonus supported the researcher’s desire to study this topic. The policies have not been updated in years, the collected data and reports to Parliament rarely link back to the bonus, and the opinions, while valid points-of-view, appear to be often political or partisan and not employee-based.
The literature related to various compensation systems was then reviewed to find out if the current bonus is applied consistently with theoretical concepts and/or if different systems would be more adequate. This literature review addresses both motivation and compensation theories and/or frameworks.

From a technical perspective, the literature review was performed as follows, using a wide-range of resources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources Researched</th>
<th>Method of Research</th>
<th>Sampling of Keywords Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic journals</td>
<td>✓ University of Liverpool online library (all journal databases)</td>
<td>- Bilingualism (public service, at workplace, government, employee) – also French version researched.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ University of Ottawa online (all journal databases) library</td>
<td>- Bonus (workplace, motivational, employee, employment, frameworks, systems, types, public service, government).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Google Scholar</td>
<td>- Compensation (frameworks, systems, methods, theories, best practices, public service, government, workplace, incentives, rewards).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>- Merit pay (frameworks, systems, methods, theories, best practices, public service, government, workplace, incentives, rewards).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Performance (management, pay, public service, expectations).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Official languages (public service, government, workplace, regulations, policies, theories) – also French version researched.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Second languages (public</td>
</tr>
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</table>
service, policies, government, learning, teaching, acquiring, motivation). – also French version researched.

- Motivation (theories, case studies, employees, workplace).

- Public service (motivation, theories, official languages, bilingualism, pay, rewards, recognition).

- Expectancy theory.

- Public Service motivation theory.

- Action research (thesis writing, varieties, methods, theories, process, practitioner, participatory, types).

NOTE:
Various combinations of all the above words were also done in several ways. The cross-combinations of the combinations are too numerous to list (i.e.: compensation and bilingualism; official languages and motivation; bonus and bilingualism; expectancy theory and bonus; performance and compensation; expectancy theory and bonus; etc.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Books</th>
<th>University of Liverpool online library</th>
<th>- Expectancy theory.</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Ottawa online library</td>
<td>- Public Service motivation theory.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Google Scholar</td>
<td>- Motivation (employees, workplace).</td>
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<td>Category</td>
<td>Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>Online book merchants such as Amazon</td>
<td>✅ Online book merchants such as Amazon and Indigo/ Chapters.</td>
<td>- Action research (thesis writing, varieties, methods, theories, process, practitioner, participatory, types).</td>
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<tr>
<td>and Indigo/ Chapters.</td>
<td></td>
<td>NOTE: While researching for journal articles, several books were found and therefore the research specific to books was shorter and more focused than for journal articles.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Action research (thesis writing,</td>
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<td>varieties, methods, theories, process,</td>
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<tr>
<td>practitioner, participatory, types)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Canadian Governmental publications</td>
<td>✅ House of Commons publications database (i.e.: Hansard)</td>
<td>- Official languages— also French version researched in some cases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Canada Gazette</td>
<td>- Bilingualism bonus – also French version researched in some cases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Government of Canada publications catalogue</td>
<td>- Performance (pay, evaluation, assessment, expectations, tracking).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Statistics Canada (statcan.gc.ca)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages (OCOL) physical</td>
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<td>library and librarian</td>
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<tr>
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<td>✅ Various governmental websites, now mostly all under Canada.ca.</td>
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<td>Canadian Governmental documentation/</td>
<td>✅ Access to Information and Privacy Act (ATIP) legislation requests.</td>
<td>- The ATIP requires that a specific request be sent for a specific</td>
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<tr>
<td>information (specific departments)</td>
<td></td>
<td>department/agency. The ATIP process was used to get internal</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>information concerning the removal of the bilingualism bonus in two</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>governmental departments. Information was found via open source news</td>
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<td></td>
<td>outlets and the ATIP was used to obtain official documentation and</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>official ‘story’. Used to make a request to the Canada Revenue Agency</td>
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<td>(CRA).</td>
</tr>
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</table>

17
| Business and general interest publications/data | Google | Bilingualism (public service, at workplace, government, employee).
- Bonus (workplace, motivational, employee, employment, frameworks, systems, types, public service, government).
- Compensation (frameworks, systems, methods, theories, best practices, public service, government, workplace, incentives, rewards).
- Merit pay (frameworks, systems, methods, theories, best practices, public service, government, workplace, incentives, rewards).
- Performance (management, pay, public service, expectations).
- Official languages (public service, government, workplace, regulations, policies, theories) – also French version researched.
- Second languages (public service, policies, government, learning, teaching, acquiring. Motivation) – also French version researched.
- Motivation (theories, case studies, employees, workplace) |
In addition to the keyword searches listed, it should be noted that specific/direct access to data or sources already known to the researcher were done without keyword queries. For example, knowing that the government of the United States has a program for compensating foreign languages, the researcher was able to go directly to the relevant sources. The same can be said for a portion of Canadian governmental publications and data (such as statistics).

Every piece of information found to be relevant was read, annotated, tracked, and saved for future reference.

2.1 Motivation
Motivation is generally discussed from two distinct perspectives in the literature. There is the cognitive viewpoint in which the word motivation is utilised in explaining individual’s
behaviors that are influenced by their thinking, attitudes, beliefs and the interpretation of events (Dörnyei, 2001). This means that people are motivated to act based on internal forces like beliefs and needs. This point of view links to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory. On the other hand, motivation is described by behaviourists as the anticipation of reinforcement. The behaviour is based on the environment and stimuli (Brown, 2001, p.73). This point of view links to Skinner, who believes reward is a strong motivating factor for action. He states that a person will pursue a goal due to a reward. The reward in this case reinforces the behaviour that led to the attainment of the reward and would be the basis for it to continue (Brown 2001).

Deci & Ryan (1985) argue that based on the cognitive aspect of motivation, students may learn a second language for the long-term based on their needs, beliefs on their own decisions. In contrast, school settings (where language is likely taught) focuses on grades and tests. The result of the school setting may push students towards the intrinsic interest and away from the intrinsic motivations which would enable them to excel at the immediate goal (pass the exam), but they are likely to lose their long-term motivation for retention of the second language after they leave this environment.

2.1.1 Public Service Motivation (PSM) Theory

There are several variations of the PSM theory definition in the literature, but it comes down to a need to respond to motives beyond self-interest. Vandernabeele (2007, p.547) defines PSM theory as “the beliefs, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate”. Heinrich (2007) further stated that with the PSM theory people act in order to contribute to what is good for the public to fulfil their own individual needs and goals, as opposed to acting in response to the incentives presented by their organisation for their level of performance.

Applying this theory in the context of the bilingualism bonus offered in the public service, it would appear that employees would learn or use their second language more if they felt it was for the greater good based on their interpretation of that, rather than if they were offered an incentive by their employer. If employees do not feel it is in the public’s best interest to have services in both official languages, then whether there is an incentive or not like the bonus, PSM theory would suggest that the employee will not care. And the opposite would also be
true. Those who see value in the second official language being utilised at work, would likely want to be part of that regardless of the incentives offered.

Perry & Wise (1990) suggest that incentives of a financial nature mean less for those employees that have a high level of public service motivation. Perry & Wise (1990) and Anderson et al. (2012) have found that the general expectation in literature is that people with a high level of PSM have lower preferences for bonuses than those with lower levels of PSM.

2.1.2 Expectancy Theory of Motivation
The expectancy theory is a process providing an explanation as to why people choose certain behaviour over others. The three components of expectancy theory are valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (Vroom, 1964). The premise of the theory is that people become motivated because they think their choice will lead to the outcome they desire (Redmond, 2009 in Redmond, 2015). Expectancy theory suggests that work motivation is reliant on the apparent association between performance and outcomes; and therefore people decide to adjust behaviour based on their calculation of expected outcomes attached to each plan of behaviour (Chen & Fang, 2008; Mathibe, 2008).

To link this theory to the workplace, Werner (2002 in Redmond, 2015) indicates that people will be motivated to wield an elevated effort if they believe there are good odds that their effort will direct them towards the realization of a goal set by their organization. This would in turn be influential in helping people accomplish their personal goals.

2.2 Pay-for-Performance Systems
There are conflicting opinions in literature as to the pertinence and effectiveness of all pay-for-performance (PFP) systems or programs, also coined as merit pay systems. Merit pay is used widely and stems from motivation literature going back to the 1960s. It is received with mixed opinions by researchers and according to this review, which is supported by Thomson (2012), there is no clear consensus on the effectiveness of merit pay systems between the various empirical studies. Herzberg (1987) believes that any monetary incentives do not motivate employees, they cause movement. Choi (2014) believes that signing bonuses are more about trust than motivation, and have a limited effect and varies depending on the labour market. Others, such as Lawler (1981) agree that performance pay systems are very difficult to administer fairly and consistently to achieve motivation, but that administered correctly, merit pay can motivate employees.
Schwab & Olson (1990) define merit pay systems based on textbooks on the topic. One of the identifying characteristics of merit pay systems is that performance is typically “operationalized through performance appraisal systems whereby employee behaviour is observed and then evaluated for its contribution to the organisation” (Schwab & Olson, 1990, p.238-S). Thomson’s (2012) definition of merit pay adds the practical aspect indicating that merit pay is an individual increase to the base rate of an employee’s pay based on a performance appraisal, which is consistent with the definition used to define performance-based pay (Thomson, 2012). What differentiates merit or performance pay systems from bonus and incentive systems is the fact that the latter is not designed to become a fixture in the salary structure (Zussman, 1982).

Kee (1986, p.545) defines incentives as being variable rewards that can be positive or negative and that are directly linked to specific outcomes within a conditional relationship. He opines that incentives are motivational because the relationship between the desired performance and the reward is defined clearly, in advance of the performance. Kee (1986, p.545) further states that bonuses are different from incentives in that the relationship between performance and reward is not clearly identified and the bonus is usually established after the fact, although Thomson (2012) posits that bonuses would also serve as motivation for employees because of the greater connection between the behaviour and the outcome than a merit pay system. In the same line of thought, Zussman (1982) states that bonus systems are typically created to reward exceptional or outstanding performance. Like Thomson (2012), Lopez (1981) indicates the purpose of incentive programs such as the performance bonus is to motivate employees to continue with their good performance, or improve it. The premise is that employees would have higher motivation to perform at higher levels when a strong link is present between pay and performance (Gerhart, Rynes & Fulmer, 2009) and that when this link is not present, the effectiveness would not be as strong (Park & Sturman, 2012).

### 2.2.1 Skill-based pay (SBP)

SBP is another type of compensation system. There is agreement in the literature on the definition of SBP as a compensation framework which rewards employees with income in return for an employee’s mastery of skills and/or knowledge and/or competencies, and can be certified. In an SBP, the employee would receive the extra pay after having demonstrated a specific skill or knowledge or competency (Ledford & Heneman, 2011). This type of pay
system pays for a skill, and not a job (Knouse, 1995; Giancola, 2011; Ledford & Heneman, 2011).

2.2.2 Bonuses
Zussman (1982) states that bonus systems are typically created to reward exceptional or outstanding performance, which would exceed the base pay. Bonuses are not designed to become a fixture in the salary structure; they are a one-time adjustment to pay and should be re-earned at every cycle of assessment (Zussman, 1982; Lowery & al., 2002). The purpose of incentive programs such as the performance bonus is to motivate employees to continue with their good performance, or improve it (Lopez, 1981). Others believe it is to reward them for the good performance.

It is believed in literature that bonuses are not only less expensive to the organisation than merit pay because they are not attached to future obligations, they would also serve as motivation for employees more so than merit pay because of the greater connection between the behavior and the outcome (Thomson, 2012; Lawler, 1990).

It is stated in literature that when everyone in an organisation gets the same bonus regardless of the level of performance, that the effectiveness of said bonus is compromised (Lawler, 1981). This is echoed by Gores (1999). He states that employee bonuses should be linked to performance otherwise they should be eliminated. If bonuses have not been earned, they become a sense of entitlement and not a source of motivation or recognition.

2.2.3 Signing and Retention Bonus
The signing bonus appears most of ten in white collar contracts and is usually viewed as the antithesis of pay for performance by academics (Van Wesep, 2010). The signing bonus is generally a way for a firm to signal the level of quality they perceive the employee to be and shows a level of trust for the employee since the company is putting themselves at risk of losing this upfront money if the relationship ends sooner than anticipated (Van Wesep, 2010; Choi, 2014). This is often seen in professional sports while other industries have also taken to using them as part of recruitment (Choi, 2014). It is also believed by Van Wesep (2010) that although the bonus is provided before any measurable performance takes place, it will serve as an incentive. By giving a signing bonus the firm is confirming to the employee that they will like working there and because they are so confident of this, they give them money, no strings attached, and they believe they will work harder because of it. That being said, Choi
(2014) has found that the initial effects of a signing bonus may not continue as time goes and Bowles (1998 in Choi, 2014) indicates that the level to which a signing bonus expresses trust can be dependent on the market environment in which the bonus is being given (level of supply and demand of labor).

In practical writings, it was found that some private companies offer retention bonuses to employees in situations when a company is in the process of shutting down or moving offices to other geographical locations. These bonuses are not linked to performance; they are strictly used to retain employees to clean up messes or keep afloat as Randall (2009) has stated.

2.2.4 Christmas/End-of-Year Bonus
There is very little literature concerning what is commonly referred to as the Christmas bonus (or year-end bonus) and its effects on employees and/or firms issuing them. The Christmas bonus is an amount of money given out by some private firms and/or family businesses around Christmas time or at the end of the company’s fiscal year. Both the Christmas bonus and the end-of-year bonus are not seen as a good tool for creating a performance culture at all as they are isolated from performance measures of the employee and while historically based on the performance of the firm, it often becomes an entitlement that employees expect every year, regardless of the performance of the firm, or themselves specifically (McGill, 2014; Randall, 2009).

Aspects that are common throughout the literature concerning any compensation or reward system is that employees have to have confidence in the system and that perception of fairness is taken into account in the design and application of the said system (Mikulic, Simunic & Nikolic, 2013; Jabes & Zussman, 1988). Also a common theme in literature is that any PFP has to be based on performance outcomes that are quantifiable and measurable (Kee, 1986; Hills et al., 1987; Park & Sturman, 2012).

2.3 Equity Theory
Equity is discussed in relation to merit and performance based pay schemes. As the merit pay gets added to a base pay, over time, an employee who is underperforming can make more money than one who is performing at level. Equity theory states that to determine equity, you look at a ratio of outcomes per input, and the end state you want is an equality in order for those who do more to actually get paid more (Adams, 1967). Furthermore, the theory
indicates that employees do compare their outcomes (compensation) with their inputs (effort they put in, differences in education, knowledge, etc.) (Thomson, 2012; Jabes & Zussman, 1988).

2.4 The Selected Theory
The initial intent in looking at the question of the bilingualism bonus was to find out if it actually motivates employees to use or learn their second official language. Theoretical aspects of motivation at work and motivation to perform were researched, but dismissed from this report. While there are many theories of motivation, all of them interesting and with pieces that could apply to this research, most of the data related to understanding why people are not motivated in their work, or not motivated to perform. The issue of this research is related to motivation, but specifically with the use, or acquisition, of a second language itself and not ‘work’.

Researchers have questioned the socio-psychological aspect of acquiring a second language and while the topic is too extensive to investigate at length for the purposes of this research, one piece is worth mentioning as it has linkages to the findings of this study. Gardner & Lalonde (1985) found that a socio-educational model of second language learning proposes that learning a second language involves two components: ability and motivational. It is the latter that links into this study. A host of emotional variables is important to learning a second language. These include the attitude towards the other culture/group, toward the learning situation/environment, the level of desire for learning the other language and the level of integrativeness. Integrativeness is described by Gardner & Lalonde (1985, p.6) as the reflection of an open and willing perspective as it relates to the other cultures generally, but also with the target second language. This can be translated into meaning that if employees feel positive about the second language culture, feel part of it, or have a desire to be part of it, that it may be easier to learn than if they regarded that other culture with negative emotions.

As part of action research, reflection on the various theories took place and a readjustment of the initial scope was made to focus on Vroom’s expectancy theory (Vroom, 1995) to explain the current situation and offer recommendations. The interesting aspect of Vroom’s expectancy theory briefly described earlier in this chapter is that it does not offer specific suggestions on what motivates employees. While there are some other noteworthy theories that do, like the PSM theory that was also reviewed, this research found that there is a variety
of motivating points for a variety of people, and therefore there is a risk in making blanket statements regarding motivation in the workplace. With various generations, personalities, cultures and backgrounds, managers would miss out if they only availed themselves of one motivational aspect. The expectancy theory provides for logical components that can apply to whatever source of motivation one has.

This section explains in more details what the expectancy theory of motivation is, how it has been applied in various studies related to motivation and to compensation frameworks and its linkages to this research.

The expectancy theory is as a process theory which provides an explanation as to why people choose certain behaviour over others. The academic literature reviewed in this research is consistent with the interpretation and explanation of the theory, while being applied in different settings. For example, Vroom (1995) and Hoffman-Miller (2013) have different equations to apply the theory to motivational situations, but both support the premise of the theory that people become motivated because they think their choice will lead to the outcome they desire (Redmond, 2009 in Redmond, 2015).

Vroom (1995) posits four assumptions of expectancy theory. One is that people join organizations with expectations about past experiences, motivations as well as needs. These expectations will guide how employees react to the organization they join. A second one is that a person’s behaviour is a consequence of a mindful choice. In other words, people are at liberty of choosing the behaviours their own expectancy calculations suggest. A third one is that individuals want diverse things from their organization such as benefits, advancement, etc. The fourth assumption is that individuals will select between alternatives in order to augment outcomes for them on a personal basis. Vroom’s expectancy therefore has three key elements based on the four assumptions: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. An individual is motivated to the point that he believes “that (a) effort will lead to acceptable performance (expectancy), (b) performance will be rewarded (instrumentality), and (c) the value of the rewards is highly positive (valence)” (Lunenburg, 2011).

Hoffman-Miller (2013) provide a formula often used to explain Vroom’s expectancy theory as MF (motivational forces) = V (valence) x I (instrumentality) x E (expectancy). The author explains the equation as meaning that the level of effort exercised by an employee is directly
influenced by the expectation (E) that by working hard, whatever undertaking can be performed with success. On the other hand, if the employee does not believe that trying hard will produce a successful performance (I), the level of effort applied by the employee will lower due to the absence of an expected reward (V).

In applying the equation, motivational forces (MF) are directly related to the internal and external variables that affect someone’s effort and level of performance. The premise is that employees steadily leverage the results of their efforts with the anticipation that hard work will result in a reward, either intrinsic or extrinsic. Afterwards, value has to be measured. Employees will ask themselves if the effort or hard work they are putting is worth the reward that is expected. This means that the expectancy (E) is directly linked to the intrinsic belief that a successful performance leads to a reward (Hoffman-Miller, 2013). Hoffman-Miller (2013) goes on to say that if an employee has the perception that a reward is not congruent with his performance, the value (V) of his effort will decrease because the perception is that what is gained due to hard work is not worth the effort he has expended.

Before Hoffman-Miller’s (2013) formula was published, Lunenburg (2011) had offered a similar interpretation of the expectancy theory equation, but added that the multiplier effect is significant in the fact that you obtain a higher level of motivation when the three elements (expectancy, instrumentality, valence) are all high, than you would when the elements are all low. By using the multiplier equation, if any one of the three elements is zero, the overall level of motivation then becomes zero. In practice, this would mean that even if a worker believes that his effort will lead to performance, which would then result in a reward, the level of motivation will be zero if the valence of the expected reward is zero (i.e. if the worker does not see any value for him in the reward).

2.4.1 Expectancy
Lunenburg (2011) defines expectancy as a person’s assessment of the likelihood that work-related output will result in a certain level of performance. If the person does not see a probability that effort can lead to the anticipated level of performance level, then the expectancy will be nil. Conversely, if the person is absolutely confident that the undertaking will be accomplished, the expectancy then has a maximum value. Commonly, employees estimate their level of expectancy someplace between the two extremes of nil and maximum.
In order for expectancy to be at its highest, employees have to believe that their performance will be assessed in an accurate manner. Aspects that are common throughout the literature concerning any compensation or reward system is that employees have to have confidence in the system and that perception of fairness is taken into account in the design and application of the said system (Mikulic, Simunic & Nikolic, 2013; Jabes & Zussman, 1988). Also a common theme in literature is that any PFP system has to be based on performance outcomes that are quantifiable and measurable and linkages between pay and performance must be clear to employees (Kee, 1986; Hills et al., 1987; Park & Sturman, 2012; Lowery et al., 2002; Condrey & Kellough, 1993). If employees don’t perceive linkages between their pay and their performance, they will not be motivated to increase their level of performance (Lowery at al., 2002). Hills et al. (1987) who have addressed the subject have posited that the “measure of performance is the critical component of any merit system”. This is echoed by Park & Sturman (2012) who state PFPs can become a failure when the pay plan is not actually linked to employee work performance.

One of the identifying characteristics of merit pay systems is that performance is typically “operationalized through performance appraisal systems whereby employee behaviour is observed and then evaluated for its contribution to the organisation” (Schwab & Olson, 1990, p.238-S), which links to the definition of expectancy above. Thomson’s (2012) definition of merit pay adds the practical aspect indicating that merit pay is an individual increase to the base rate of an employee’s pay based on a performance appraisal, which is consistent with the definition used to define performance-based pay (Milkovich & Wigdor, 1991).

### 2.4.2 Instrumentality

Instrumentality is a person’s assessment of the likelihood that a specified level of accomplished performance related to a task will result in various work outcomes. If an individual perceives that a positive performance ranking at work will consistently lead to a reward, such as a pay increase, then the instrumentality has a maximum value. If the individual does not perceive a connection between a positive performance ranking and a specific reward, then the instrumentality has a nil value (Lunenburg, 2011).

Based on the definition of instrumentality above, the perception an employee has towards a PFP compensation system would play a role in the level of instrumentally in the expectancy equation.
The instrumentality would be lower if employees believe everyone is receiving the same amount of compensation regardless of the individual performance. If bonuses have not been earned, they become a sense of entitlement and not a source of motivation or recognition and the instrumentality of the employee would lower (Gores, 1999).

One type of bonus that would not provide high expectancy or high instrumentality are bonuses that are offered before any performance has taken place, such as signing bonuses described earlier.

Lowery et al. (2002) did a study to assess the comparative influence of four critical factors that they believe are fundamental to the application of a merit bonus pay plan: reward contingency, feedback, employee participation and goal quality. They hypothesised that these factors increase the motivational strength of the merit pay plan by augmenting the employee’s expectancy of the proposed reward. The first factor does this by linking the reward more closely to the performance and the other factors by using principles of goal setting theory which really increases the instrumentality when looked at it from the expectancy theory lens. Lowery et al. (2002) discussed the hypothesis that involvement of employees in goal setting may increase their level of expectancy as if they are involved in setting goals they may be more relevant and more committed to reaching them but the results of their study confirmed did not confirm the latter. The study did confirm that reward contingency and the quality of the expectations had the highest relative effects on the outcome of the pay plan (Lowery et al., 2002). This links into the valence aspect of expectancy theory.

2.4.3 Valence
The third element of the expectancy theory is valence. Lunenburg (2011) explains valence as being the strength of a person’s penchant for a certain reward. For an employee, various forms of reward such as a salary increase, promotional opportunity, peer or superior recognition, or other can have more or less value to each employee. Dissimilar from the expectancy and instrumentality elements, valence can be either positive or negative. If a worker has a definite preference for reaching a reward, valence is positive. At the other end, valence is negative. If a worker is indifferent to a reward, valence then becomes 0.

2.5 Application of expectancy theory to bonus pay
Bartol & Durham (2000) have found that practically and theoretically, it is believed that affecting motivation is the method deemed the most effective to influence individual
performance. People become motivated when they have desires or needs needing fulfilment and when there are precise objectives to accomplish (Bartol & Locke, 2000).

Park & Sturman (2012) have looked at how expectancy theory speaks to the possible effects of pay-for-performance compensation systems have on employee performance. Based on the theory and their study of various PFP frameworks, they posit that if it can be approximated how well a certain pay framework would satisfy the employee’s expectation that increasing effort would lead to a certain outcome (expectancy), and the value of the outcome, then it should be possible to predict how effectively a given pay plan would motivate employees to reach higher performance. Park & Sturman (2012) found that the structure and the form of different PFP plans affect the level of performance. The link established between the pay and the actual performance under each plan and also the nature of the reward each plan provides played a key role in the level of performance observed. It was found that different employees react in a different way to various rewards based on the value they attach to the reward (valence).

Park & Sturman (2012) found that pay-for-performance plans can fail when the plan does not truly link to the employee’s work performance. Organisations need to consider the strength of the relationship they are creating between the pay/reward and the performance of employees when considering various compensation systems.

Ha & Sung (2011) conducted a study of teachers in South Korean schools to see to what extent the application of a performance-based bonus plan motivated the teachers to improve their work behaviour. The authors aligned the study and the results with expectancy theory. The expectancy perception states that teachers have to perceive a link between the levels of their efforts leading to a similar level of performance. The instrumentality perception in this case is stated by the teacher needing to believe that if the level of effort they put in leads to attainment of the goal (like high level of performance) that they will obtain something (like bonus pay). The teacher has to believe that the achievement of the goal will result in the promised reward. Finally, the valence is the level of importance of the reward for the teacher; it must be of a strong enough value to motivate to increase effort (Ha & Sung, 2011).

The study found that the teachers’ expectancy probabilities and instrumentality were low. The teachers were not confident that if they met a certain level of performance that they would obtain a bonus of the appropriate level (low or nil instrumentality). The teachers
generally also did not value the bonus itself as they felt that all teachers should be paid the same amount of money and it should be added to base pay (negative valence). It was also found that teachers generally had a negative perception of the program, especially as it pertained to the evaluation methods utilised to assess teachers. They did not believe that the evaluation criteria were reflective of good teaching and that those doing the assessment of the teachers were not experienced enough to conduct the evaluations. This links back to expectancy and the importance of employees believing and understanding the performance assessment processes in their organisation. The result was that teachers were not being motivated by the bonus program to increase their performance, not only due to the lack of instrumentality and negative or zero valence, but also the program as a whole (Ha & Sung, 2011).

2.6 Studies on performance assessments and expectancy theory

A study by Suciu, Motran & Lazar (2013) highlights the importance of having performance assessments from the work motivation perspective. They posit that performance assessments influence the expectancy element of expectancy theory. Their research was based on Romanian civil servants and showed that civil servants’ performance assessments influence civil servants’ expectancy which then influences their work motivation. They believe that no matter what type of organisation an employee is in, they have to be advised of the expected results of them and what behaviour is asked in order to obtain the expected results. Furthermore, the way in which performance is assessed could influence the level of effort an employee will put to reaching the performance in the future. If a public servant feels that he has reached a desired outcome equaling the level of performance expected, but that the assessment of his performance is done badly, he will put less effort into it the next time around because his merit has not been recognised. A public servant has to be confident that if he makes the effort that will lead to a positive performance as defined by the organisation, that his level of performance will be acknowledged through a reward he finds valuable to him (Suciu, Motran & Lazar, 2013).

A further study by Ducharme, Singh & Podolsky (2005) explored the linkages between performance appraisals and pay satisfaction by utilising expectancy theory. They opine that in a performance pay plan expectancy is set out in the goal-setting phase, when expectations are outlined. Instrumentality would then link into the expectation that the level of performance of the employee is actually related to the reward (pay). The authors indicate that
if the performance is evaluated in an accurate fashion, the employee will see the link between the expectations and the outcomes. Finally, valence would be the importance the employee puts on the reward to be received if the expectations are met. When a performance assessment is erroneous or simply not present, employees don’t have a point of reference by which to gage the reward as it links to their performance, which can then diminish pay satisfaction (Ducharme, Singh & Podolsky, 2005). Their findings showed that employees who obtained performance feedback that was not actually linked to pay showed a higher level of pay satisfaction than those employees who did not get performance assessments but actually received performance pay. This demonstrates that whether employees are getting performance pay or not, they are more likely to be satisfied with their pay if their work is properly assessed (Ducharme, Singh & Podolsky, 2005). While this study was not linked to motivation, it still demonstrates a clear need for performance assessments to be linked with performance pay.

As could be expected, due to the narrow topic of research, none of the literature reviewed related to expectancy theory touched upon the acquisition or utilisation of a second language in a PFP framework. Literature about studies that measured the expectancy theory in situations of pre-paid bonuses was not found through the literature review process. It should be noted that the literature that addresses direct linkages between expectancy theory and pay-for-performance systems proposes that expectancy theory is the most appropriate theoretical framework for understanding the motivational forces linked to various forms of performance pay (Park & Sturman, 2012; Lowery et al., 2002) and have therefore informed the objectives of this research to determine if the bilingualism bonus is a motivating factor for usage or acquisition of a second official language in the public service. The studies by Ha & Sung (2011) and Suciu, Motran & Lazar (2013) were of particular interest as they are from similar environments/scenarios and are further explored in the discussion.

2.7 Language Policy
The body of literature on language policy discusses, reviews and critiques the purpose, applications or efficacy of language policy from a social perspective in many nations at many levels, as well as intersecting with language planning. It also offers numerous theories, frameworks and research methodologies. Various definitions of language policy are provided in literature. For example, Kapland & Baldauf (1997) see language policy as a grouping of rules/legislation passed by an authoritative body such as a government as part of their
language plan. Schiffman (1996) sees language policy more as a social construct, which can include various elements other than rules and legislation such as linguistic culture. Burnaby (2015) states that “language policy is concerned with official efforts to affect the relative status and use of one or more languages”. Burnaby (2015) further indicates that language policy in Canada has been intended to affect the relative usage of the different languages in whatever means are presently judged to assist the general interest.

Language policy in literature is more concerned with the historical, societal (culture, education, politics) and planning contexts of languages from a practical perspective like Wright (2016) writes, rather than making links between language policy and workplace language requirements and bilingualism bonus attached to the latter. From the theoretical perspective, language policy literature touches various theories, research methodologies and frameworks. Example of texts which explore theories, concepts and methods are Ricento (2006) and Johnson (2013).

While there are countless articles and books on language policy specific to certain countries/nations like Phillipson (2003), there are also numerous ones more global like Spolsky (2004) which addresses language policy from a practical perspective in several different nations. Spolsky (2012) rolls up many different facets of practical and theoretical aspects of language policy into one, as does Shohamy (2006) in a more personal approach. The literature also discusses differences and commonalities between language policy and language planning.

The current research project is interested in literature related to the value and usefulness of giving a bonus for second language skills, motivations attached to various compensation systems, and directives or policies related to official languages in the workplace, as these topics are the focal points of this thesis. While they have language in common, the body of literature on language policy does not address or inform these topics. The second official language bonus is a stand-alone policy or guideline/directive issue made by certain governmental bodies and not part of the larger topic of language policy studied academically.

This literature review has described various motivational theories and compensation frameworks and theories. It was determined that the expectancy theory of motivation is the most appropriate theoretical stance for this research. Several examples of its application in various studies were reviewed before coming to this conclusion. The theory and the literature
related to compensation frameworks assists the present research which aims to determine if the bilingualism bonus is a motivating factor for usage or acquisition of a second official language in the public service, and whether the bilingualism bonus plays a role in increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service or not.
Chapter 3: Methodology

Brannick & Coghlan (2007) argue for the necessity and validity of insider action research against many researchers who do not support it. They indicate that because academic research is mainly focused on the development of theory, it perhaps is less worried about actions or practice. The fact that insider researcher are close to their topic of research is seen as a negative based on concerns about not getting the distance and objective deemed necessary for research to be valid, is actually seen as a benefit by Brannick & Coghlan (2007). Insider researchers are innate to the research setting and therefore come with acumens from their experience that an outsider would not have.

Researchers vary in their ontology and epistemology perspectives. Ontology can be defined as “the science or study of being” (Blaikie, 2010). It is about the nature of reality. There are two common aspects of ontology; objectivism (or positivism) and subjectivism. Epistemology on the other hand is a branch of philosophy which looks at where knowledge comes from (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). Epistemology has several streams that include essentialism, idealism, progressivism, rationalism, empiricism, constructivism and others. As described in this chapter, this study is based on action research, which finds common elements to the constructivism view. As per Bryman (2012), constructionism is an ontological position that believes that social occurrences and their significances are constantly being achieved by social actors. Constructionism recognises that reality is a creation which takes place when human intelligence interacts with experience in the real world. There is not one main ontological position that reflects the full intent and process of action research as described further.

3.1 Action Research

The work of Coghlan & Brannick (2010) was used to support the framework of this insider action research project, while the work of Greenwood & Levin (2007) was used as a secondary reference for understanding all aspects of action research, whether insider-driven or not. Both works provide a wealth of knowledge to inform the action research project and cycles and support various aspects of it.

Action research (AR) was chosen for this thesis based on the requirements of the doctoral program it is attached to, but also because it is suitable for this topic. The topic selected is the
subject within the researcher’s work environment that had the most potential to foster change on a grand scale in the Canadian federal public service while still being relevant to many levels of management and employees and therefore offer the possibility of change at various levels. As a public servant, the researcher is continually struggling with having to work within policies or procedures that were put in place decades ago and often no longer make sense. This research was an opportunity to propose changes to one of those policies with the assistance of other public servants as a joint learning venture.

AR at its core rests on a collaborative knowledge development and action that involve local stakeholders fully as part of a mutual learning process. Coghlan & Brannick (2010) emphasize that one of the dimensions of action research is that it is collaborative, the participants are active in a cyclical process, as opposed to being the object of a study as it would in traditional research.

The cyclical process of action research described by Coghlan & Brannick (2010) is a cycle of consciously and deliberately planning, taking action and assessing the action taking, which then lead back to more planning and so forth. They state that action research is appropriate “when the research topic is an unfolding series of actions over time in a given group, community or organization, and the members wish to study their own action in order to change or improve the workings of some aspect of the system, and study the process in order to learn from it” (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010, p.x).

The policies related to bilingualism in the public service are governed at a very high level in the Canadian federal government, and consequently it is impossible for me in my current position to enact an overall change to them, observe it in action, and readjust in the timeframe of this study. That being said, in order to forge ahead with action components, I took a threefold approach to AR cycles. First, the cycles as described by Coghlan & Brannick (2010), including the pre-step (context of the study and the purpose), and then the four basic steps of constructing, planning action, taking the planned action and assessing the action taken. The cycles of AR that took place are discussed throughout the thesis, but provided here is a brief listing of the main ones.
The researcher planned a topic and a research approach as part of the research proposal, and after consulting with key academic advisors as well as public servants, the topic evolved into the current research questions. The purpose of the research was firm but still had room for evolution as data pointed in other directions of inquiry.

A cycle also took place as part of the survey creation. Questions were planned and constructed, then put into action (survey distributed and answers collected) and after evaluating the responses collected, more planning took place for a second round of questions to be sent out (action and evaluation of those as well).

As per the example in figure 3, the AR cycle took place again when the researcher decided to implement (action) some recommendations from the thesis in her own organisation (later described in the thesis). The action taken did not have the outcome expected, and therefore the researcher had to adapt and take a modified action after assessing the situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example of Action Research Cycle, based on Coghlan &amp; Brannick’s (2010) cycles</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Context of the issue:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingualism impacts a large portion of public servants, many struggle with bilingualism, the bilingualism bonus that exists for bilingual positions has been stagnant for more than 30 years and therefore the impact of it is unknown. It is important as bilingualism is a cornerstone of Canadian culture, is essential in the public service and is of personal importance to the researcher as a bilingual public servant herself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Construction of the issue:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was decided that the bilingualism bonus needed an intervention because it has been the same amount for as long as it has existed it is current form, and because the researcher questioned the value of it as in her experience it did not appear to motivate anyone. In constructing the issue, discussions were held with senior managers and colleagues to ensure others agreed with the proposed intervention to the issue (the study itself).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Action planned:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Described in further details later in the thesis: have employees retested for expired language results when they expire, even if in the same position. Link it to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
performance management cycle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome of implemented action:</th>
<th>Described in further details later in the thesis: The action was partly successful. The outcome of the action was that certain employees refused to be tested and others agreed and proceeded.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Review of the outcome:        | The negative outcome (employees refusing to be tested) was reviewed to see what could be done differently for the intended outcome to be fully successful. Support was sought by a section of the organisation, but this failed as well.  
The positive outcome was that employees were educated regarding the bilingualism bonus policies and best practices, and were then able to share this knowledge further with colleagues. |
| Construction of the issue:    | After assessing and reflecting on the cycle and the negative outcome, the action was adjusted to offer volunteer retesting to those with expired results, and to provide knowledge to all employees explaining why it is a best practice to test once expired. |
| Meta learning:                | This example showed that the researcher had not consulted with everyone required before actioning this one recommendation. Her own organisation did not support her recommendations, and therefore made it difficult for her to force it into action. |

The act of writing the thesis itself was an AR project cycling on its own as described by Zuber-Skerritt & Perry, 2002). The cycles of drafting, reviewing, pursuing comments by thesis supervisors, then reflecting on the comment, adjusting the writing and the conclusions as needed based on the understanding of the whole project. And then the cycle begins again with each subsequent draft and review.

Overall, the research project will remain in an AR cycle for the foreseeable future, even though it has been academically completed at the time of writing this. Because this study is taking place in the federal Canadian public service, major actions are impossible to enact in a short amount of time. Policies are governed at high levels in a political hierarchy and

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therefore take time. The intention is to keep working on the recommendations of the thesis after completion and aim at actioning as many as them as possible by finding the right people and time to support and move them forward. Greenwood & Levin (2007, p.63) posit that one of the core characteristics of AR is that “the meanings constructed in the inquiry process lead to social action, or these reflections on action lead to the construction of new meanings”. This is being done by keeping the project alive in the practical side of this study.

It should be noted that while it is difficult to achieve both replicability and responsiveness in an AR project, in traditional research responsiveness is often disregarded for the achievement of replicability. AR puts more emphasis on responsiveness than on replicability in order to achieve action within the study. While the topic and findings of the research may not be generalizable as other topics, it is still relevant locally and worthy of research in an AR flavor. The intention of the study is to produce change in the Canadian public service and it was of the utmost importance that participants be from within and committed to the topic to accompany the researcher who is also an insider.

Greenwood & Levin (2007) address trans-contextual credibility in regards to action research. Their opinion is that every situation contains more possibilities than the ones that are acted upon. The precise outcome of a situation is realised through the joining of environmental circumstances, a grouping of individuals, and a multitude of past events, which includes the actions of the contributors. By looking at it with this lens, all accounts of a current situation are really explanations of past events and specific causes acting on specific organisations in particular contexts. In this approach, theory does not forecast the result of a specific situation. The role of theory then is to provide an explanation as to how what took place was possible and actually did take place, and it is also to propose probable scenarios yet to come.

3.2 A mix of qualitative and quantitative
AR lends itself very well to qualitative methods due to the participatory aspect of it and the requirement for self-reflection and evolution and cycles of action/change and evaluations. That being said, quantitative methods complemented the data with statistics to complete the story. Mixed methods research refers to a mix of both quantitative and qualitative data integrated within one study to answer a certain question or set of questions (Hanson et al., 2005, p. 224). This is done by utilising a combination of methods within one study, such as using in-depth interviews and a quantitative survey (Hesse-Biber, 2014).
“Quantitative information delivered in a ‘hard data’ format is amenable to statistical analyses and standardized tests of reliability and validity. Qualitative data add an in-depth understanding of research results and allow the researcher to explore anomalies or subgroups within the data. Working with both methods gives many researchers a cross-check on their research results. Qualitative data illuminate the meaning of statistical results by adding a narrative understanding (Hesse-Biber, 2014)

While some literature discourages researchers from utilising mixed methods in research because it is felt that each of the two traditional paradigms (qualitative/constructivists and quantitative/positivists) are vastly different and cannot be combined (Guba, 1990), others believe mixed methods should be considered as a third paradigm (Burke Johnson & Onwuegbuzine, 2004). The goal of combining both methods is to complement each other and maximise on the strengths of each method and minimise the weaknesses of both (Burke Johnson & Onwuegbuzine, 2004). Some researchers stress that each method is not exclusive (Van Maanen, 1979; Jick, 1979; Shah & Corley, 2006). In the present study if only either quantitative or qualitative methods were used, then a piece of the story, the human/social side, would have been missing. Those that support mixed methods argue that the utilisation of various methods within the same research project increases the validity and the generalizability of the results (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012, p.61). Hesse-Biber (2014) gives an example of medical researchers using a qualitative approach by including listening attentively to patients’ symptoms and doing an analysis of their accounts and seeing the emergence of clear patterns of early-warning signs of a certain cancer. Combining the qualitative data with quantitative data such as statistics from blood test results provided a wholesome view of the issue and researchers then were able to identify new early sign detection. While the present research is nothing near the life-saving discoveries this example resulted in, it serves as an image of what is to be accomplished through this study. In the public service there are extensive statistical data related to demographics and even opinions via the Public Service Employment Survey (PSES), but there aren’t any stories behind the numbers. Bilingualism is such a cultural and social topic in Canada that this research needed to be one that was full of imagery and not only cold numbers. Utilising mixed methods provides the perfect opportunity to combine data because “words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21)”.
There are several different mixed methods research designs. The one utilised in this research is known as the Concurrent Nested Design. In Concurrent Nested Design, the qualitative and quantitative data are collected during the same phase and one of the methods, qualitative in this research, dominates the research design over the other one (Hanson et al., 2005). The quantitative data become nested and generally given less priority. Hanson et al. (2005) state that concurrent nested designs are beneficial for getting a broader viewpoint on the topic being studied and possibly studying various groups/levels within one study. This approach was chosen because it fits the data collection methods of this research the best and provided for the focus to be on one method while still including the other. It was important to get a broad viewpoint on the topic being researched as there are various players in the public service it concerns and has an impact on. While there is a vast amount of quantitative data in this study, the qualitative aspect provides the colouring to the numbers to ensure it is a complete story.

3.3 Methods
In order to gather the background and historical information on the topic of this thesis, an exploratory approach and the conduct of some interviews with senior leaders in key government departments was undertaken. Print and electronic records were researched for the background, historical and statistical data required understanding the origins of the bilingualism bonus, the intent of it and its application. The Access to Information (ATI) legislation was used in order to obtain documents that were not available publicly. A sample of public servants was polled to obtain data regarding the usage of their second official language and opinions related to the language program and the bilingualism bonus. In typical action research methods, after analysing the data collected from the respondents, a return to a portion of participants who identified an interest for follow up questioning was done for a smaller second round of questions and some discussions.

While the survey was initially intended as a quantitative tool, it was decided to allow for the collection of qualitative commentary should the participants wish to provide some. Since the topic of this research is very human, qualitative data would enrich the findings of the quantitative responses. The decision to use a web based survey was made for a number of different reasons. First, since the DBA program has been set up on a technological platform and virtually all interactions during the modules and the thesis have been via the Internet, it
was fitting to continue with this platform since it was also suitable for the target population: federal public servants. Public servants work with computers on a daily basis, all of them have access to the Internet and a large portion of communication is now done via electronic mail or other online platforms like Wikis, forums and so forth. The PSES that is done every three years is now web based and all public servants are requested to complete it. All this confirmed that there would not be any concerns with the sample being at ease with computers and having access to the Internet. That being said, there are concerns found in literature regarding the disadvantages of online surveys such as potential for bias related to Internet, lack of online experience, spam perception and so forth (Stewart, 2003; Roos, 2002; Evans & Mathur, 2005). These disadvantages are not a concern for the present research due to the daily use of the internet and computers by the target population. The perception of spam is mitigated by the fact that the initial sample who received the invite via email are all known by the researcher and therefore the incoming address would not have been perceived as spam. The further sample via snowballing would have also not been perceived as spam as people would have sent it to people they know and so forth. It should be noted that a large portion of the sample was reached via social media and therefore not via email (no spam perception).

There are several advantages for researchers to use web surveys that far outweigh the possible disadvantages (mitigated in this study) such as the low cost of creation and distribution of the survey, quick return, ability to customise, increased pool of respondents, ease of access of hard-to-reach populations (Hunter, 2012; Olsen, 2009; Baltar & Brunet, 2012). Other advantages of web surveys over paper ones that should be noted are related to the lack of risk of transcription errors, lack of issues with handwriting and instant access to data (Stewart, 2003; Olsen, 2009; Baltar & Brunet, 2012). There are also advantages for respondents to answering an online survey as opposed to a paper and pencil one. Some of these include the low level of effort and time to click on a computer screen instead of handwriting, increased anonymity, and easier access to researchers (Hunter, 2012). Finally, the online survey tools available to researchers allow for easy analysis of the data by providing various analytic tools for the data collected.

3.4 Interview Design

As indicated earlier, the conduct of interviews with senior leaders in key government departments was undertaken to obtain additional contextual information for the research. Semi-structured interviews took place with four senior level leaders. The interviews were
anonymous as the individuals did not want to have their names included in a study due to the conflict-of-interest clauses in the public service, and their various authorities in their departments. The interviews included some set questions regarding the history of the policies about bilingualism in the public service and the rest was more of a discussion, depending on the roles and knowledge of the interviewees. For example, one of the interviewees worked in the Treasury Board Secretariat (TBS) Office of the Chief Human Resources Officer (OCHRO). The interviewee was able to provide contextual information regarding the government’s level of prioritization of the bilingualism bonus. The interviewees directed me to sources of data where I could find additional historical information.

As part of action research, the interviewees were able to contribute to the next steps of the research by helping to develop some of the questions used in the survey, and/or questions to be used in the final interview with the Commissioner of Official Languages. For example, it was suggested that employees be asked what they would consider an incentive to learn or use their second official language more. It was felt by the interviewee that we never ask the employees what motivates them.

Finally, in support of the action research cycle, an additional interview (with the Commissioner of Official Languages) was conducted after the data collection and analysis were completed. The goal of this interview taking place at this late stage of the research was to discuss the findings and initial recommendations, to share knowledge with him and get feedback. It was thought that the Commissioner was in a good place to offer support for, or rebuke, the proposed recommendations for the government of Canada.

### 3.5 Survey Design

The questionnaire consisted of 49 questions for unilingual participants and 57 for bilingual participants (see appendix A for the list of questions). The first 7 questions related to providing consent for research to support ethical requirements. It was designed so as to not take more than twenty minutes for respondents to complete the questionnaire. The questions were piloted with a few people to ensure the length of time was respected. The questionnaire and all information related to consent and research ethics were provided to participants in both French and English. The questionnaire was created with the use of the online tool Survey Monkey.
3.6 Data collection and sample characteristics

Due to the limitations imposed by the conflict of interest clauses of my organisation, creating a random sampling of the target population of public servants (over 250,000 across the country) posed extensive difficulties. Snowball sampling methodology was chosen to counter those barriers. Snowball sampling is one of the most utilised sampling methods in qualitative research in social sciences (Noy, 2008). This type of sampling is often used to access hard-to-reach or hidden populations (by choice or stigma) (Noy, 2008; Heckathorn, 1997). Sampling the federal public service would have required a list of all public servants and their contact information be obtained, which would have been very difficult without the researcher using her influence as a public servant. A government directory that is available to the public could have been utilised, but this directory is not all inclusive and is not systematically kept up to date. Furthermore, it is a research directory as opposed to a listing of employees. Sudman & Kalton (1986) indicate snowball sampling is useful in cases where the target group may be difficult to penetrate by outsiders. While the researcher is actually an insider, she was not able to utilise her insider status to gain access advantages. It is believed that if the target population finds the study to be of value to them and their peers, the respondents are more likely to answer (Stewart, 2003) but also that it could increase the snowball effect as the initial target finds value in the questionnaire he will forward to others within the population who would have the same interest (Stover-Wright, 2013).

The researcher began with a convenience sample to leverage her existing contacts. Convenience sampling is sometimes seen as a researcher just taking whatever respondent is convenient and therefore not obtaining a proper representation of the population, which could be a reason to question the research’s validity (Stover-Wright, 2013). In the case of the present study, the convenience sample was made up of people in the target population (all Canadian federal public servants), but based on personal acquaintance as opposed to randomly due to the limitations imposed by the researcher’s organisation. The typical concerns with convenience sampling are minimised in the context of this study since the initial sample was made up of the target population and they were used as an initial seed to gather more people part of the target population.

The convenience sample consisted of 32 public servants known to the researcher who work in various federal government departments, to which invitations to the questionnaire were emailed during the period of June 9, 2015 to July 11, 2015. In order to minimise the level of
perceived conflict of interest that soliciting employees directly would have caused, the researcher used a personal email account to contact the convenience sample as opposed to her government email account. Waters (2015) posits that if the researcher is part of the group that is being researched, it will have a great benefit. The more in common the researcher has with the target population, the more interested people will be to participate and the more trust may develop if they feel they are part of the same world. In the invitation that was sent to the convenience sample, it was requested they share with other members of the target population (public servants). The researcher identified herself as a public servant.

Snowball sampling is perfect for the use of social media/networks. Social networks are by default utilised to share information with others within one’s social network. Facebook is one example of a social network which offers tools to recruit a large and diverse sampling (Kosinski et al., 2015). Baltar & Brunet (2012) found that snowball sampling with Facebook yields higher response rates because people have a higher level of confidence in the research because the researcher is showing personal information on their own Facebook page as well as being members of the same groups of interest. The researcher chose to test this theory out knowing that much of the convenience sample was active on social networks. The researcher therefore created accounts on social media (Facebook and LinkedIn) and ‘friended’ public servants known to her. The link to the research survey was posted on Facebook and LinkedIn on June 10, 2015, asking people to share with other federal public servants. A follow up post was done on June 28, 2015. By asking people to share and directing them to the survey link, the researcher was not aware of who participated in the survey (unless respondents voluntarily provided their information in the survey).

While research has identified possible sample bias as it relates to Internet sampling due to the varied demographic characteristics of the total population (Coomber, 1997; Stanton, 1998), other researchers point out that while in traditional snowball sampling the sampling can be seen as biased because it is not random, the composition of the snowball is influenced by the selection of the initial seeds (Magnani et al., 2005). The latter could mean that sample bias may be more towards cooperative people or ones holding larger networks, but utilising virtual networks also affords for a random element in that each member will share with other contacts (Baltar & Brunet, 2012). Baltar & Brunet (2012) posit that the potential access of offline contacts by online ones can reduce problems associated with selection bias and representation.
The survey itself was completed on the SurveyMonkey.com website and the option to remove all tracking of IP addresses for surveys completed was chosen to ensure that responses were kept anonymous. The only information the researcher was aware of was who shared the post to others via Facebook, but not with whom it was shared.

3.7 Participant observation

Participant observation took place throughout the study when opportunities presented themselves, when the researcher was in the presence of some known participants. Participant observation has been defined as a process that provides researchers with a learning opportunity concerning the activities of the research participants in their natural work setting. This is done by observing, but also participating in the said work activities (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002).

It was expected that participant observation would be minimal in the research due to the anonymity of the participants and the conflict of interest concerns related to the researcher being an insider. Nonetheless, any observable actions, interactions and discussions were noted and used as research data when applicable. There was difficulty with drawing a line between manager observations of employee behaviour/discussions versus research observations of participants who provided consent.

3.8 Method biases

Research related to organizational behaviour that utilise self-report surveys is regularly challenged by common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). By clarifying the purposes of the study to research participants and ensuring anonymity in the administration of the questionnaire some common method biases were attenuated (Podsakoff et al, 2003).

Data collection was offered as anonymous. A number of people provided contact information to be contacted for further questions and/or to receive copy of the findings. The invitation to respond to the survey was accompanied by a participant information sheet that explained the goals of the research, research ethics and anonymity was laid out. It was explained to participants that they could choose or refuse to answer any of the questions. Also, the role of the researcher was clearly explained to ensure any of the researcher’s employees or colleagues that wished to self-identify knew for certain that their participation and their responses would have no impact on any pre-existing professional relationships.
The many barriers put in place by the values and ethics reviews of the researcher’s organisation ensured that the above were respected.

### 3.9 Challenges to Action Research in the Public Service –Researcher Testimony

My position as a manager in the Canadian federal public service created challenges and imposed limits to the extent I could apply action research to my research project. As a public servant, I am bound by a solemn affirmation which includes affirming that I will not, without due authority, disclose or make known any matter that comes to my knowledge by reason of my employment (Government of Canada, 2003b). I am also bound by the Values and Ethics Code for the Public Sector which specifically states that I cannot “knowingly take advantage of, or benefit from, information that is obtained in the course of my duties that is not available to the public (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2014e)”.

The application of these constraints to my thesis research meant that I had to ensure everything I knew about my topic or the public service was publicly available. My way of doing this was to use the Access to Information (ATI) legislation to request certain unpublished documents from government departments. The ATI act allows Canadian citizens the right to access records by governmental departments (subject to some exceptions).

Another aspect of the Values and Ethics Code for the Public Sector concerns conflicts of interest (perceived or real). Any outside activities of public servants with a potential to cause a perceived or real conflict of interest have to be disclosed to the values and ethics officer of the employee’s department for analysis. In my case, one of the obstacles to my data collection from my department’s values and ethics officer’s report was that I could not outright ask employees to participate in my study as they could feel pressured into doing so because of my role as an authority figure (management). Coghlan & Brannick (2010) and Brannick & Coghlan (2007) discuss the role of the researcher in the insider action research as being one requiring balance between the organisational role and the researcher one. As they mention, I had to be aware of how my roles could influence the environment and make choices related to when to step into a role or another and balance them, with the additional boundaries of the values and ethics restrictions of my organisation. Brannick & Coghlan (2007) discuss the dynamics of insider research. Part of their discussion is about the insider researcher doing their study in an overt, covert or semi covert fashion, and the impact this will have on data gathering. My insider research had to be overt at all times.
In the selection of the topic for my research I consulted with research stakeholders. Since this was before participant data collection began, I felt I was able to discuss freely without concerns of creating a conflict of interest. While I already had the topic in mind and was really keen on it, I wanted to ensure it was relevant to others who would also benefit from it being researched and offer a learning opportunity for the future research participants. I discussed with employees at various levels and senior management in a few key departments through refinement of my proposal. We reflected on the concerns related to official languages and other possible topics of research. My stakeholders reflected, then discussed with me. I, in turn, reflected, refined, and finalised my research topic.

In order to invite public servants to participate in my study within the confines imposed by the conflict of interest situation, I decided to do a web-based survey and to utilise social networking sites to reach out to potential participants (further details in the methodology chapter). By doing it this way, I was able to do it from outside my work persona and public servants were able to answer anonymously. This removed the issue of participants feeling pressured to participate. At the same time, from an AR perspective, I offered the opportunity for participants to leave contact information if they wished to be contacted for further involvement in the research. While this approach removed the various conflicts of interest concerns, it limited my options in regards to sampling and joint learning as per AR. Not being able to reach out within my workplace or be able to reach out on various work platforms (government email addresses, governmental wikis and forums, etc.) created limits to the potential pool of participants I could tap into, as well as limit the participant-observation opportunities. Not being able to initiate discussions about this in my workplace made it challenging to get the full effect of joint learning, but I was still able to make that connection with some of the employees who did not request anonymity and offered to participate further, as well as with ad hoc employees or public servant acquaintances. As it became well known that I was working on this topic of research, employees felt more comfortable having discussions with me and embarking on a joint learning process knowing I was collecting and analysing the data and discussing with them. This allowed me to observe participants in interactions with colleagues in meetings or other settings, and learn from their actions related to the bilingualism bonus. Being an insider in an action research project was definitely a demanding, yet invigorating, feat as described by Brannick & Coughlan (2007)
and Coughlan & Brannick (2010), but it did contribute to learning about myself, the politics of the organisations and how to navigate between the various layers of insider and researcher.

3.10 Bias – Researcher Testimony
The ability to balance the active involvement of the researcher with integrity and critical reflection is a fundamental requirement of the AR process (Greenwood & Levin, 2007, p.65). This also links to what Brannick & Coughlan (2007) refer to as the pre understanding aspect of being an insider researcher. They posit that some disadvantages of being so close to the research data include the possibility for assumptions during interviews. Because the insider researcher has such a rich knowledge of internal practices, they make assumptions and do less probing than if they were an outsider without the pre acquired knowledge. The insider research may assume they know the answer and not expose their current thinking to alternative reframing. These risks can be mitigated by ensuring rigorous introspection, integration, and reflection on the experiences to depict fundamental assumptions and action that was not reflected upon (Argyris et al., 1985, in Brannick & Coughlan, 2007).

Given the conflict of interest issues related to my public servant status, as well as my situation with pre understanding, I was on constant mental integrity and bias check. I was invited to panels and meetings about OL as a public servant and I had to ensure anything said in those arenas did not make it in the thesis unless I could corroborate it from a publicly available source or obtain approval. I also ensured my pre-research opinions did not move my research in a specific direction and that I was aware of any assumptions I may be inclined to make during the data collection. It was essential that I let the research set the direction and the findings. While my hypothesis was confirmed, the whole point of the research project was to collect the data to confirm or deny my assumptions. It was more stressful and difficult to ensure I respected the ethical parameters imposed by my employer than ensuring the insider researcher maintained integrity. Journaling (or journal keeping) and self-reflection helped me adjust as necessary throughout the whole process.

Journal keeping is said to be a meaningful method for developing reflective skills (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010, p.27). Throughout the study process, starting at the proposal stage, I kept a journal to note observations, experiences, thoughts, as a way of tracking them and being able to go back to them and reflect and assess. Some reflections were very useful in later stages of the process while others ended up being dismissed. Writing them down ensured that dates
and places were recorded appropriately and avoided duplication of ideas sometimes. It takes
discipline to keep journaling consistently, but it is worth the time and effort. It allowed me
the space to think and to adjust and to check any assumptions that I may have had throughout
the project. It also allowed me a safe space to note any potential conflict of interest situations
and political ones, and allow me the time to reflect on them and act as appropriate.

As a manager, I am used to having a level of control and decision making power. I had to let
go of this as an insider researcher and I had to become a regular citizen so to speak. Having
an understanding of the culture was definitely an advantage, as was knowing the various
players and stakeholders in the public service. Knowing the insides of the public service
saved me time over an outsider since I did not have to learn about the functioning of the
public service to start off with. The disadvantage is that I felt the expectations were much
greater for me as an insider for the outcome of this research than if I were an outsider. An
outsider would come and go and leave a report behind. In my case, I was here before my
research began and I will be here after. While I was restricted in keeping certain aspects of
my research at arm’s length from my role as a public servant, it was inevitable that everyone
who participated would be aware of who I was. Employees and senior leaders were aware of
my research and supported it and therefore if I failed to provide a valuable product from a
practical perspective, it could reflect on me negatively in my work role even though the
research was done under my academic persona.

Finally, there were no concerns with my possible influence on responses in the surveys as
they were done anonymously and the questions were written in such a way that no answer
was preferable over another one. During the interviews, the information gathering from the
interviewees was very much one-sided and I therefore felt the risk of my influencing anyone’s
response was very low, but I always reflected before the interview would take place, and
afterwards, to ensure that I did not make any assumptions related to answers as warned by
Brannick & Coghlan (2007). My reflections post-interviews made me confident that the
responses I gathered were not influenced by myself, nor were any assumptions made. The
interview with the Commissioner, he being in his role for over 10 years, I had confidence
going into it that his words would be very much his and not influenced by myself as the
researcher. His role is one of ensuring integrity and independence.
3.11 Validity

Validity of research is a measure of how rigorous research is. Validity generally applies to the design and to the methods of a given research and validity in data collection conveys that findings genuinely denote the phenomenon the research is attempting to measure. The definition of validity in research appears to vary from insider research to outsider research and Herr & Anderson (2015) make a case for differing validity criteria for insider action research from traditional pure qualitative or quantitative research.

Herr & Anderson (2015, p.67) list five validity criteria for action research linked to the goals of action research. Figure 4 outlines the goals and criteria as well as ways to test for validity in action research as proposed by Herr & Anderson (2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals of action research</th>
<th>Quality/validity criteria</th>
<th>Test of validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Generation of new knowledge</td>
<td>Dialogic and process validity</td>
<td>Is the research peer or colleague reviewed or critiqued?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Achievement of action-oriented outcomes</td>
<td>Outcome validity</td>
<td>Have actions occurred and lead to resolution of problem?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Education of both researcher and participants</td>
<td>Catalytic validity</td>
<td>Is there openness to re-orienting view of reality and roles?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Results relevant to the local setting</td>
<td>Democratic validity</td>
<td>Has the research been done in collaboration with all parties who have a stake in the issue being studied?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sound and appropriate research methodology</td>
<td>Process validity</td>
<td>To what extent are the problems identified in this research framed and solved in a way that allows continuous learning for individuals?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Herr & Anderson (2015) state that this validity criterion for action research is still in flux and tentative and interpreted differently by different authors. One way to look at it is from a traditional peer review perspective. There are various opinions as to how to promote dialogic validity but some indicate that ensuring the research is collaborative is part of it, and others
indicate that the researchers have to take part in critical and reflective dialogue with other action researchers. This research was discussed at length with various people in the researcher’s work environment who are aware of the topic, but also with other researchers from her academic circle from the action research perspective.

2. As per the action research cycle, actions have occurred within this study, although on a limited basis due to the difficulties in enabling policy changes in the public service. Actions were taken by the participants that were successful in their immediate work environments, and somewhat larger action items were undertaken as outlined in a further chapter. Herr & Anderson (2015) state that outcome validity is more than simply solving a problem but rather that rigorous action research allows the researcher to reframe the problem and may lead to new sets of questions.

3. Herr & Anderson (2015, p.69) indicate that participants and the researcher-practitioner have to be open to a reorientation of their interpretation of reality and their roles. All those that are part of the study should expand their understanding of the social reality that is being studied and be moved to some action to alter it or reassert their support for it. To date the researcher has witnessed a change in some known participants’ understanding of the issues and their willingness for the most part to alter some behaviours where it can enable positive change.

4. This study has been a collaboration with all involved parties since the research proposal stage of the study. The researcher collaborated with employees, management, and executives from various affected departments. In addition, senior leaders that have a stake in the official languages/bonus file were sought out and an attempt to involve as many people as possible was made in order to make the content relevant to all affected stakeholders and to obtain data in an ethical and just manner.

5. This study has permitted participants to benefit from ongoing learning as they were exposed to new information throughout the research process (for the participants that chose to be active). The problem was framed in a way that permits the researcher as a practitioner to benefit from ongoing learning. As ongoing discussions are happening with more people in various senior positions, it is clear learning is continuous for all involved as policies and guidelines are slowly changing.
The research methods outlined in this chapter provided for the appropriate data collection to meet the objectives of the research while ensuring the findings would be valid as described. Tying the quantitative data collected such as statistics with the qualitative data such as rich commentary enabled the building of a full human story to the topic. The snowball sampling method tied in with the social media usage provided for a good response rate from the target population and allowed for a quick and efficient data collection.
Chapter 4: Results and Findings

4.1 Survey Responses

A total of 123 responses received were usable for the analysis of the data. There were 41 additional responses that were not usable, 40 of which were incomplete and 1 response that was disqualified as the respondent was not in the target population. The incomplete responses are responses when a person started responding to the survey, but left the survey before reaching the research specific questions. This could be the result of someone leaving the questionnaire with the intent of returning to it, but closed the page (because the anonymous IP option was selected, participants could not save their progress and return at a later time to complete). Additionally, it was found that some government departments’ networks blocked access to certain portions of the survey or caused errors. This was verified with Survey Monkey when one participant identified the issue to the researcher. Issues with cookies or network firewalls could have caused failures in the questionnaire. It is not possible to identify a response rate since the distribution of questionnaires was done via snowball sampling. Figure 5 displays the demographic description of the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>Term</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Trainee</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age ranges (in years)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Years of service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Less than one</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and +</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>More than 20</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
<td></td>
<td>First Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University certificate/ diploma</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Occupation category</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>Non-managerial</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate/PhD</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Location</td>
<td></td>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Capital Region (NCR)</td>
<td>91.1</td>
<td>Professional designation</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontario (excluding NCR)</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quebec (excluding NCR)</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nova Scotia</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5
• 32.5% of research respondents are male and 67.5% are female, while in the public service as a whole 45% of employees are male and 55% are female employees (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015b).

• 51% of participants identified English as their first official language and 49% as French. In the public service as a whole, 71% of employees identify English as their first official language and 29% declare French to be their first (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015b).

Respondents are from 28 different government departments or agencies. Figure 6 indicates the percentage of respondents in each department/agency listed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada Border Services Agency</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada Economic Development for Quebec Regions</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada Revenue Agency</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada School of Public Service</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian Heritage</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian Institutes of Health Research</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship and Immigration Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Service Canada</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courts Administration Service</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment and Social Development Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justice Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library and Archives Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Commissioner of Lobbying of Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Correctional Investigator</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Health Agency of Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Safety Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Commission of Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Works and Government Services Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared Services Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport Canada</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasury Board Secretariat of Canada</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in figure 6, 49% of respondents are from the Canada Border Services Agency (CBSA), which is explained by the fact that the researcher works in this organisation and therefore knows more people in this department compared to the other 27 departments’
respondents come from. The snowball effect was stronger in the CBSA because of this. Since there was this unplanned higher number of respondents in the CBSA, it was decided to take advantage of this data and do a comparison analysis between the CBSA participants’ responses and other departments’ participants’ responses. Several of the responses were consistent across departments, but a few differences are noted in the findings as they are quite significant.

The fact that 91% of the responses came from the National Capital Region (NCR) is explainable by the fact that the NCR is the location where the public service is most predominant in a single geographic area in the country with 41.7% of all public servants. The 58.3% other percent is spread out amongst the provinces, territories and abroad (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015b). The NCR is also the researcher’s work location and it was anticipated that the sample would be predominant in this geographical region due to this fact, and the high concentration of public servants within this area. It should be noted that the NCR also qualifies as a bilingual region as per the Official Languages Act.

4.2 Follow-up questions
One of the questions listed in the initial survey was for respondents to identify if they wished to be contacted for follow-up questions or discussions. 48 participants of the initial survey indicated they would like to be contacted for additional questions. A few follow-up questions (see appendix B for the list of questions) were sent to those participants in October 2015. The additional questions were done the same way as the initial ones; they were in SurveyMonkey.com and had the same research ethical and consent questions and same layout. Only the 48 participants that had indicated wanting to participate in future questions were invited to participate. 36 responses were received completed and usable, which means a response rate of 75%. Figure 7 displays the demographic description of the 36 respondents.
### Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Years of service</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>Less than one</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age ranges (in years)</td>
<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>More than 20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and +</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation category</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-managerial</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Professional designation</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents to the follow-up questionnaire are from 12 different government departments or agencies as indicated in figure 8.

### Figure 8

#### 4.3 Findings from questionnaire

**4.3.1 Bilingualism bonus**

When asked if the bilingualism bonus promotes the use of both official languages in the workplace, 74% of respondents indicated that it rarely or never promotes it and 18% felt it only sometimes does. A small 8% believe the bilingualism bonus promotes the use of both languages most of the time or often.
As for the bilingualism bonus increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service, again, 74% believe it is rarely or never effective and 16% believe it only sometimes is. Commissioner Yelden stated in his 1983 annual report that the question regarding the actual contribution the bonus makes to the OL program was lost from view. Over thirty years later public servants themselves confirm that the bonus does not in fact contribute to the OL program. Since it is still in place, it can be assumed that what Yelden stated still holds: its contribution is simply removed from the debate. During an interview with an executive in the Office of the Chief Human Resources Officer at TBS, the researcher was told that the bonus is reassessed periodically, but that the government (the one at the time of the interview, since changed) had other priorities than fighting this fight with the unions. In the interview with the Commissioner of Official Languages, Graham Fraser, he stated the following:

“I believe the bonus has stayed in place regardless of the recommendations to remove it because it has become easier to pay the bonus than to have the fight to remove it and convince the various parties to repurpose the money into other areas of official languages. It is a political price to pay to keep the peace”.

When survey participants were asked to list the reasons of the issuance of the bilingualism bonus, responses were varied. See figure 9 for the list of most frequent reasons given, and the percentage of respondents who gave each as a reason (respondents were asked to select/list all reasons that applied).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To reward employees for having the required linguistic levels of position</td>
<td>61.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To act as an incentive for the employee to use their second official language</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To act as an incentive for others to learn their second official language</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To compensate for the extra work/effort</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To compensate for providing better service</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no valid reason for the provision of the bonus</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of understanding of issuance of bonus</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

70% of bilingual respondents who receive the bilingualism bonus indicate they would not use their second official language less if they did not receive the bonus (13% would use it less and 17% are uncertain). This position was predicted by Commissioner Yelden in his 1979 Annual report. He stated that the disappearance of the bonus would not make a difference to the
actual amount of work that is done bilingually in the public service (Commissioner of Official Languages, 1980, p.18). The results of the survey confirm that prediction to be true.

47% of respondents believe employees in bilingual positions should often or almost always receive a bonus. 30% feel they should rarely or never receive it, 10% sometimes and 13% had other ideas. One proposition was that if bilingual employees are recruited from outside the public service, then the bonus could disappear as the requirement for bilingualism would no longer equate to an effort or an extra skill to learn or gain once employed as a public servant. Others believe that the amount of the bonus should vary by linguistic level or effort. This is a practice found in some governmental departments in the United States, which is outlined in a later chapter.

It is to be noted that the responses vary by primary language of identification as indicated in figure 10.

![Figure 10](image)

On the other hand, only 32% believe bilingual employees should receive a bonus regardless of the requirements of the position and 49% believe bilingual employees should rarely or never get a bonus if they are not in a position designated as bilingual. It is to be noted that the responses again vary by primary language of identification, as indicated in figure 11.
The responses to the above show a good portion of respondents attribute the bonus with the requirements of the position and not with the linguistic qualifications of an employee, especially Anglophones.

4.3.2 Assessment of language skills

The designation of the language of a position is management’s responsibility, based on the guidelines provided by the OL program. A position in the federal public service can be deemed unilingual (identified as either English essential, French essential or, English or French essential) which means only the use of one language is required. Positions deemed bilingual require the use of both English and French. For the positions designated as bilingual, the manager has to identify the level of proficiency required in the second official language. The levels have to be related to the obligations and responsibilities of the position as it pertains to the delivery of services to, and communication with, the public as well as the requirements of the act regarding language of work.

There are three levels of second official language proficiency from which a manager has to choose when designating a position as bilingual. The appropriate level has to be chosen for written comprehension, written expression and oral proficiency. The three levels consist of:

- A (lowest level of proficiency)
- B
- C (highest level of proficiency)
Employees wishing to work in a bilingual position have to be tested to ensure they meet the required profile. As a result of the test employees will get a grade of one of the above for each qualification assessed. It is also possible for someone to obtain an X which means the person assessed does not meet the minimum level of A. It is also possible for someone to obtain an E (exempt) which means they never have to be tested again in their career in the criteria the E was obtained. The E is awarded to individuals who demonstrate during the evaluation that they can be expected to maintain the proficiency of the second language at the C level indefinitely (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2014d).

It should be noted that X and E are not proficiency levels and are therefore not used in designating the linguistic profile of bilingual positions. They are simply used as results.

Once an individual has been tested, their second-language evaluation results expire after five years, but if an employee remains in the same position beyond the five years, there is not an obligation for them to be retested. While some departments promote retesting at the time of expiry and it is recommended by the OCOL, this is not a requirement of the official language policies and therefore this practice appears voluntary by each department. For example, an audit of the CBSA delivery of bilingual services to the travelling public found that some front line employees had not been tested in over a decade (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015a). The repercussions of this are that some employees are in bilingual positions, being paid a bonus, without necessarily having the skills associated with the position. In the case of the CBSA audit, many of these cases are for positions that are remote and the employees may not get to practice their second official language frequently, which increases the risks of them not maintaining their proficiencies.

The survey revealed that 38% of respondents believe that the linguistic profile of an employee is one of the criteria considered by management when determining the linguistic profile of a position. The actual criteria to designate positions as bilingual relate to need of the position to communicate with and offer services to the public and the language of work (supervisory, etc.). The designation is to be based on the needs of the position, not the candidate being considered for employment. The results of the survey show the criteria for designating positions as bilingual is not well understood.
Assessment of second language skills
As indicated in the previous paragraphs, the current assessment process for second language proficiency consists of employees in bilingual positions being tested every five years if they change positions, otherwise they are not obliged to be retested once they obtain the position’s required levels.

Figure 12 shows the various opinions the respondents provided as to the frequency of assessment they believe is required.

One respondent believes that bilingualism in real-life work situations should be included in the performance assessment. This could ensure that evaluations of the quality of the language are based on actual practice as opposed to standardised tests outside the work environment.

Another participant suggested that those who attend full time employer paid language training should be tested yearly for at least five years to ensure they maintain what they have learned. This would be an approach to protect the investment made by the employer and supplemental training could be provided as soon as possible if/when the language level declines, as opposed to risking having to re-do full training from the beginning.
39% of bilingual respondents feel that if the usage of the second official language were part of the yearly performance assessment, it would be an incentive for them to use their second official language more. In 1981, a policy was introduced that required those who received the bonus to have their second-language abilities be confirmed every year. This was to be done either by a qualified supervisor or through a language test. This policy was in place for two years and a number of people (1 500 out of about 50 000) lost their bonus, but the economy gained from the removal of the annual bonus to non-qualified employees was replaced by the cost of doing the annual certification/confirmation and so the program was suspended. Furthermore, this temporary process to confirm the use of both languages did not further demonstrate a relationship between the costs of the bonus and any improvements to the use of both languages in the public service (Commissioner of Official Languages, 1984, p.15).

The report on Revitalizing Official Language in the Workplace done in 2003 recommended that evaluation instruments include performance indicators that focus on the language of work such as communication, job aids, supervision of employees, OL training, meetings, etc. (Boisvert & Leblanc, 2003, p.25).

The most recent Policy on Official Languages, which came into effect in 2012, states that deputy heads of institutions falling under the Treasury Board (the majority of agencies and departments) must ‘ensure compliance with the policy and associated directives and standards are included in annual performance appraisal ratings’ (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2012a). Fast-forward to 2015, and 74% of bilingual respondents’ performance related to the use of their second official language has never been assessed, and 7% rarely assessed, by their superior. 60% of executives who responded have never been assessed by their superiors in relation to the quality of their second official language. Similarly, 81% have never been assessed regarding the frequency of usage of their second official language, and 8% rarely. Looking at the most recent performance assessment framework established for government, language assessment (the quality of use of it and the frequency of it) are not required as part of the public service yearly assessments. The qualitative aspect of this research has indicated that the components related to official languages in yearly assessments vary by department, and by level. Comments from research participants indicates that some executives in the CBSA for example, have as a performance objective that they must ensure bilingual capacity, they must ensure the active offer of service is made in both languages in regions designated as bilingual, etc. Nothing related to the monitoring of the quality or frequency of their
employee’s use of their second official language, and nothing related to their own. Then you have executives in Human Resources and Social Development Canada (HRSDC) whose only OL requirement is to allow everyone to express themselves in the language of their choice. Treasury Board documentation indicates that executives are expected to uphold integrity and respect; and at the assistant deputy and the deputy minister level as it pertains to OL, they have to “build and promote a bilingual, inclusive, healthy organisation […]” (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015a, n.p.). Those executives at the director and the director general level have to “create opportunities that encourage bilingualism and diversity” (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2015a, n.p.). This confirms a statement made by OCOL, that monitoring of the OL program and its requirements is superficial and not standardised across all departments (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2003). The OCOL sociolinguistic study actually called for the development of indicators for assessment based on the actual use of both official languages for supervisors and report on these on an annual basis (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2003). Furthermore, senior management should be accountable for the acceptance, respect and reality of the value of linguistic duality in their organisation and that this is monitored via their annual performance evaluation, and used as a criterion for promotion. Representatives of TBS confirmed that they do not provide any specific guidance or performance criteria to the departments with respect to official languages. There is clearly a missed opportunity to standardise the OL requirements for executives across government.

To make a link back to expectancy theory, in a study of Romanian civil servants, it is suggested that the way performance is assessed could influence the effort an employee would put on a task in the future in wanting to reach the same level of performance as when it was first assessed for level of performance. This means that if a public servant believes he has reached an outcome that equals good performance for him, but the actual assessment of the performance is poorly done, he will choose to not put as much effort in the performance or behavior in the future because the merit of the work done is not recognised (Suciu, Mortan & Lazar, 2013, p.186). If the assessment of the language skills or efforts is not appropriate (or existent), then this could lessen the motivation level of employees to use or learn their second official language. The Canadian Centre for Management Development indicated in the Revitalizing Official Languages in the Workplace report that the bilingualism bonus is granted to those employees who meet the language requirements of their bilingual positions.
regardless of the use of the second official language in the work environment (Boisvert & Leblanc, 2003, p.13).

One research participant’s personal experience echoes the above as it pertains to the relevance and the efficiency of the assessment of second language skills. He stated that:

“In terms of practicality and the likelihood of my use of second language skills in the workplace, a level B rating is not terribly functional (hence why management and executive positions require Cs) yet the majority of bilingual positions require only Bs (and receive bonuses). French language testing is an incomplete gauge of ability: Candidates are training to pass the tests rather than training to learn the language. Developing an evaluation framework about how second language skills are used in the workplace is key to promoting second language use in the workplace (i.e. performance management). In terms of adjusting how language skills are valued and promoted, I would rather have had the government invest the entire amount of 30 or more years of language bonus in an up-front language skills education plan and then include language use in my performance management agreements. I would still give up the remaining 12 years of bilingual bonus in order to receive focused training to bring me up to full Cs. Paying me $800/year without any conditions simply enables me to continue to speak French poorly and rarely and probably works to defeat the objective of developing a truly bilingual workplace”.

4.3.3 Value of bilingualism

Figure 13 demonstrates the value respondents put on providing bilingual services to the public.
66% of Anglophones believe there is often or most of the time value in allowing employees to work in the language of their choice compared to 90% of Francophones. 14% of respondents in management positions have indicated they rarely or never see the value in allowing employees to work in the official language of their choice. Managers are the ones in a position to promote linguistic duality and ensure that everyone’s rights related to official languages are respected. That 14% of managers do not see the value in allowing employees their rights related to OL is startling.

4.3.4 Increasing bilingualism in the public service

The below figure 14 shows the popularity of the various options put to respondents in regards to methods to increase bilingualism in the public service.

This question sparked discussions with 15% of respondents providing additional commentary. Some of the comments from participants include suggestions that if the government believes bilingualism is such an important issue in Canada, it should start at the grassroots and provide second language training throughout elementary and secondary education.

Several government reports and officials have mentioned through the years that the importance of bilingualism needs to be pushed lower in the educational chain so that everyone has access to learning both languages and enter the workforce bilingual. In the 2003 Action
Plan for Official Languages (Government of Canada, 2003a), the government stated that one of the three ways to increase the public service’s bilingual capacity is to hire more candidates who are already bilingual (the other two being: providing more access to training early in an employee’s career, and putting effort into the retention of language skills). 38.6 million dollars was to be invested over five years on these three efforts at the time the action plan was developed.

The Canadian Centre for Management Development echoed this sentiment in their report on Revitalizing Official Languages in the Workplace (Boisvert & Leblanc, 2003). It was believed by the authors that the Action Plan for Official Languages would double the number of bilingual citizens aged 15 to 19 by 2013. This would increase the pool from which the public service could pick from to fill bilingual positions, without having to provide language training. Fast forward to 2015, and the Council of the Network of Official Languages Champions recommended in their submissions to Blueprint 2020 that the public service be branded as being a bilingual institution, with the hopes that recruitment of bilingual candidates would be easier. It is proposed that post-secondary institutions be targeted to start this branding (Government of Canada, 2015). In the interview with Commissioner Fraser, he reiterated that one of the best ways to increase bilingualism in the public service is for the government to stress to deputy ministers that their departments need to have the discussion with universities regarding the need to teach students to be bilingual in order to help them get jobs in the public service. In turn, universities need to have the discussions with high schools to stress the importance in teaching/training students to be bilingual so they can continue their bilingual education in university, and so forth. It appears the recommendation is consistent through the years, but progress has been slow.

A change of culture has been widely promoted over the years and consequently it is interesting to see that 62% of respondents of this research agree with this approach. The OCOL sociolinguistic analysis performed in 2003 found that the culture needs to change, that the value of bilingualism had not been fully integrated into the public service, that it is an “artificial add-on to the function of government” (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2004). The study further states that the culture is predominantly English in the NCR, and that French does not hold equal status to English. While this supports a change of culture or mind-set as recommended by 62% of participants of the present study, many of the comments received indicate that Anglophones trying to learn French often feel inferior to
their French counterparts. Some Anglophones have shared that they feel they are losing out on opportunities, even discriminated against, because they are not able to communicate in French. Since many of the positions at the management level and above are bilingual positions, it is a fact that there are fewer opportunities for unilingual employees hoping to join management or executive ranks in certain regions. In the interview with Commissioner Fraser he agreed that unilingual employees are in fact limited by not being able to communicate in their second official language, but he also believes that being unilingual limits one’s knowledge of the country and the Canadian culture, which is an important part of serving the public and should be a motivating factor for public servants to learn both official languages.

Participants were asked what they believe should be the ratio of bilingual positions in bilingual regions. The split between Francophone and Anglophone opinion as demonstrated in figure 15 is interesting to note on this question. It appears to imply that Francophones believe more positions should be designated as bilingual than Anglophones do.

![Figure 15](image_url)

According to the employees polled, 93% of Anglophones receive central services (such as pay & benefits, IT support, etc.) often or most of the time in the official language of their choice compared to 65% for Francophones. In bilingual regions it is a requirement of the Official
Languages Act that personal and central services are available in both languages. It should be noted that all respondents who are executives get central services in the official language of their choice most of the time or always.

Figure 16 outlines the frequency in which employees feel they can communicate with their superior in the official language of their choice.

![Communication with superior in official language of choice](image)

**Figure 16**

A disturbing 23% of Francophones (and 3% of Anglophones) feel they can rarely or never communicate with their superiors in the official language of their choice. In support of part V of the Official Languages Act, the Policy on Official languages states that in bilingual regions supervisors have to be able to “communicate effectively in both official languages with employees in order to create and maintain a workplace conducive to the effective use of both official languages” (Treasury Board Secretariat, 2012a, n.p.).

### 4.3.5 Learning the second official language

Training has surfaced in several documents, discussions and questions related to increasing or maintaining bilingualism levels.

60% of respondents indicate second language training is offered often or most of the time in their department, 24% indicate it is only sometimes offered and 16% indicate it is rarely or never offered. It should be noted that when doing a comparison of the data for each category, five departments appear in the never/rarely as well as the often/always answer choices. An
assumption can be made that training offerings may not be department-wide in those departments since some employees’ responses are at polar opposites from others regarding language training offerings. Overall, respondents from 9 departments indicate second language training is rarely or never offered in their own department. An encouraging 19 departments are represented in the statement that official language training is offered always or most of the time. That being said, since there are 5 departments who appear in both categories, the responses appear biased towards individual employee experience and not based on overall department training policy/offerings.

In the interview with Commissioner Fraser, he indicated that it is difficult for employees to get their managers to invest in language training for them because while managers may support this for their employees, language training becomes an investment for the future that the current manager may never see a return on. He believes it is asking a lot of management during a time of fiscal restraint in the government. Commissioner Fraser believes managers will first support operational training that will have a return for them in their employees’ current positions rather than training that will benefit the employees’ long term career plans, which likely do not include their current position.

Figure 17 displays who the respondents believe should be responsible for providing second official language training.

![Figure 17](image)

To note of interest is 43% believe it is the responsibility of educational institutions to teach people their second official language before entering the workforce. As indicated previously,
this has been echoed for years by many organisations and the Commissioner of Official Languages.

It should be noted that 36% of the bilingual respondents learned their second official language at school or college/university. Only 16% learned at work in the public service. Of those that learned in the public service, the majority are over the age of 40 and in management or executive positions. The under 40s primarily learned their second official language at home growing up or at school. An assumption could be made that second language education is more prevalent in schools in the recent generations as opposed to the older generations or that bilingualism has been pushed as an asset in more recent years.

Further analysis reveals that bilingual Anglophones and Francophones learned their second official language in different settings. Figure 18 outlines the differences.

Several participants commented that the training provided by their employer is focused on passing the test, and not dedicated to proper communication within the workplace. It is felt that the tests used by the Public Service Commission are not reflective of reality as they are not done in a work environment. Bourhis (1979; 1984) has found through his research that learning a second language does not guarantee use of it in cross-cultural encounter. He states that it is important to scrutinise under which conditions bilingual individuals are more likely to utilise their second language (Bourhis, 1985).
In the interview with Commissioner Fraser, he indicated the following as it pertains to the language training offered in the public service:

“It is often focused towards making sure students can pass the test and not necessarily communicate properly at work and the tests are not always reflective of reality. There are several people who can communicate properly in their second official language in their work environment, yet not pass the test. The opposite is also true that some people can pass the test, but not communicate properly.”

In the spirit of the Official Languages Act and its several policies and directives, employees should be encouraged to use the official language of their choice in the workplace in bilingual regions. 53% of survey respondents state that employees are encouraged to use the language of their choice often or most of the time in their workplace while 22% state encouragement to do so rarely or never takes place. While the present research did not measure this, Bourhis (1994) found that Francophone bilingual supervisors promote the usage of French by their subordinates and colleagues in the workplace more so than Anglophone bilingual supervisors do.

Figure 19 summarizes the responses from unilingual respondents as to whether they believe there is value in learning their second official language.
One research participant stated the following:

“Learning a second language is an amazing, but difficult thing to do. It has great value in our personal lives, but value in the workplace is not added until the senior levels of management. It costs a great deal of money to train a manager when they only use it 10% of the time, or not at all. Access to training is required if the employer is going to use it as a screening tool”.

Another participant believes that the complete official languages program is flawed, not just the bilingualism bonus portion. This particular participant was attending full time language training to learn French when he responded to the survey and believes that once he is done and goes back to the work place, people will talk to him in English because ‘it is the language of work’ and because it is easier for Francophones to speak English than to struggle through listening to him through broken French. This was echoed by a couple other participants whose first language is English, in that they feel they do not get a fair chance to practice at work because people judge their second official language skills or prefer to revert to English.

While the participants feel the people they talk to are reverting to English because it is less painful, social psychological studies have found that speakers will often adapt or accommodate their discourse to that of their interlocutors (Giles, H., Bourhis, R.Y. & Taylor, D.M., 1977 in Bourhis, 1994, p.223). This is referred to as speech convergence. Multiple studies were done in the province of Quebec (where French is the sole official language and English a minority language) and they found that Francophones more often accommodated English speaking executives than the reverse (Taylor, D.M., Simard, L. & Papineau, D., 1978). Bourhis (1991) posits that in the bilingual setting that is the federal public service, it is possible that a Francophone converges to English not only for effectiveness of communication, but also to foster impressions and enhance cross-cultural encounters. Based on comments from participants in the present research, the Anglophones who try to practice their French and promote interpersonal liking do not feel like their Francophone counterparts are participating in the cultural harmony. Another study done in Quebec (Giles, Taylor & Bourhis, 1973) showed that bilingual Francophones that had converged to English were perceived to making more effort to reduce cultural barriers between the two communities compared to the bilingual Francophones who had not converged. The study further demonstrated that Anglophones were more inclined to address a bilingual Francophone in French if the latter had conversed in English previously in the discussion as opposed to just French.
After the discovery of the above discussed studies on convergence through the review of literature, a question was added relating to this in the follow-up questionnaire.

44% of respondents (all bilingual) indicated they always or most of the time converge to the language of the person they are communicating with when different than their own, and 14% rarely or never converge.

Respondents were asked why they converge, or why they do not. 29% of bilingual respondents indicate they converge to the language of the person they are communicating with out of respect or politeness and another 29% do so in order to communicate more effectively or quickly. Others indicate they converge due to client or managerial responsibilities. 45% of non-bilingual respondents indicated they try to converge if the other person is having difficulty with their second official language out of respect.

In the interview with Commissioner Fraser, the topic of convergence was brought up and he opined that relationships are built in a particular language and so when someone goes on language training to learn a second language, when this person returns to his social environment, the roots of the relationships he had before the training have not changed. He explained that the idea is that if someone has always communicated in English with a certain person even through it is their second language; they will not have the instinct to change to their first language just because their counterpart can now communicate in their second language. The studies on language convergence researched for this present study did not separate out populations based on the level or existence of pre-established relationships. From personal experience, the researcher supports Commissioner Fraser’s arguments as valid. While the researcher is perfectly bilingual in French and English, she has relationships created in one of the two languages for whatever reason, and those that have learned a new language have not changed the language of communication in that relationship. If a request is made for the researcher to communicate in her counterpart’s second language due to training, then she will accommodate, but otherwise her instinct is to revert to the language the relationship was initially built in.

4.3.6 Motivation

When asked to list what motivates them to use their second official language at work, bilingual respondents answered as follows in figure 20.
It is interesting to note that the 8% of respondents who indicated not being motivated at all to use their second official language consists entirely of respondents between the ages of 35 and 44.

When bilingual respondents were asked what would likely serve as an incentive to increase the frequency of use of their second official language, several different responses were obtained. The most popular reply was the addition of utilisation of second official language as criteria to be assessed as part of their annual performance review, followed by having access to language learning tools.

Unions have previously indicated they believe that increasing the amount of the bilingualism bonus would be an incentive for public servants to learn their second official language (House of Commons, 2005). In the present study, only 27% of bilingual respondents indicated an increase in the bonus amount would be an incentive for them to increase the frequency of usage of their second official language, and a mere 3% of unilingual respondents indicated an increase in the amount of the bonus would be an incentive for them to learn their second official language. The main incentive for unilingual employees to learn their second official language is employer-paid full time language training with 94%. Part-time employer paid training follows with 22%. Again, the bilingualism bonus falls short of motivating anyone to learn their second official language.
When unilingual respondents were asked what currently motivates them to learn their second official language, the responses were as follows in figure 21.

Further analysis from a language profile perspective has shown that the most popular motivating factor for unilingual Anglophones to learn their second official language is promotional opportunities followed by a desire to interact with colleagues. For unilingual Francophones, it is the reverse order.

4.3.7 Frequency of use of second official language

In the OCOL sociolinguistic study of 2003, it was found that meeting a linguistic profile did not mean the second language would be used. Overall in the present study, 16% of Anglophone bilingual respondents and 4% of Francophone bilingual respondents rarely or never use their second official language in their work functions. Of these people that rarely or never use their second official language in work functions, almost half are in management or executive positions.

43% of bilingual Anglophones use their second official language often or most of the time in their work functions compared with 88% of bilingual Francophones. 40% of bilingual Anglophones use their second official language often or most of the time in social situations compared with 69% of bilingual Francophones.

4.3.8 Other findings
Of the bilingual respondents who currently receive the bilingualism bonus, only 14% state they use their second official language more because they receive the bonus (more Anglophones than Francophones).

27% of bilingual respondents would be motivated to increase usage of their second official language if the bonus amount increased.

18% of unilingual respondents are currently occupying positions designated as bilingual.

76% of bilingual Francophone respondents seek out bilingual positions when looking for a new position most of the time or often, compared with 33% of bilingual Anglophones.

Discussions about unfairness have taken place throughout the research. Two bilingual employees do the same job, one is in a position designated as bilingual, and the other is not. Both use their first and second official languages at work, as the situations present themselves, but one earns $800 more a year than the other one due to the bilingualism bonus. This situation can be explained by the criteria managers are dictated to use to assess whether a position should be designated as bilingual or not. This issue was brought up in the early days of the bonus by the Commissioner of Official Languages. In his 1977 Annual Report, Commissioner Yalden stated that the bonus had a potential to have a damaging effect on morale and gave the above example as an illustration (Commissioner of Official Languages, 1978, p.16). Almost 40 years later, this prediction holds true.

When the follow-up questionnaire was done with the group that wished to provide additional feedback in the present research, participants were asked what they would recommend if they were asked to create a new incentive program for people to learn and/or use their second official language (to replace current bonus program). The responses provided were varied, but a certain few were repeated several times. Creating a program that is linked to performance and/or usage of the second official language was mentioned by 29% of respondents. Another 29% indicated the bonus program should be eliminated and the funding should be repurposed in the OL program in various ways (i.e.: increase elementary and secondary bilingual education, offer more language training at work, etc.). Other responses included creating a robust talent management or advancement program in which language would form part and as such incite people to learn on their own in order to achieve higher
levels of advancement (12%). Only 9% of responders indicated that an increase in the
amount of money of the bonus should be considered in a new program.

4.4 Comparing CBSA respondents to the others
There was not an initial intention to compare data from respondents from different
departments in the survey since there are so many different ones, but once the analysis of the
responses from the survey started, it was clear that almost half of the sample of respondents
came from one department, the CBSA. It was decided that it could prove beneficial to the
study to compare the results of the CBSA with those of the grouping of other departments.
The comparison analysis did demonstrate some interesting differences between CBSA
respondents and other governmental departments (OGD) as outlined in figure 22 and bulleted
highlights. The responses rates from each of the other departments were too low to provide
any valid variations between departments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>OGD %</th>
<th>CBSA %</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>OGD %</th>
<th>CBSA %</th>
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<td>Professional designation</td>
<td>8.2</td>
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Figure 22
• 64% of CBSA respondents are bilingual, 82% of other departments combined are bilingual.

• 30% of CBSA respondents indicate employees are rarely or never encouraged to use the second official language of their choice, compared to 15% in other departments combined. (Often or most of the time at 52% for CBSA and 54% for other departments, and 17% are sometimes encouraged in the CBSA and 31% in other departments).

• 26% of CBSA bilingual respondents use their second official language more because they receive the bilingualism bonus, compared to a mere 5% in other departments combined.

• 30% of CBSA bilingual respondents rarely or never use their second official language compared to 12% in other departments combined.

• 43% of CBSA bilingual respondents seek out bilingual positions often or most of the time compared to 68% of respondents from other departments combined.

• In order to increase the level of bilingualism in the public service, CBSA respondents selected workplace language training as an option 61% of the time, while other departments combined selected it 44% of the time. Changing the culture and mind-set was selected 54% of the time by CBSA respondents compared to 72% for all other departments combined. The recruitment of only bilingual candidates from outside the public service was chosen 22% of the time by CBSA respondents compared to 33% for other departments. Other options were equally selected by each.

• CBSA unilingual employees are not motivated to learn their second official language in 24% of the cases, compared to 9% in other departments.

• 18% of CBSA bilingualism bonus recipients would use their second official language less if stopped receiving it, compared to 9% in other departments.

• 27% of CBSA bilingual respondents would be motivated to increase usage of their second official language if it were included in the yearly performance assessment, compared to 51% in other departments combined.

• 18% of CBSA unilingual respondents believe there is rarely or never value in learning your second official language. Nobody from the other departments feels this way (they all believe there is value sometimes, often, or most of the time).

It is difficult to ascertain without doubt why the differences between the CBSA respondents and the OGD respondents vary so widely in certain areas since a comparison was not in the initial scope of this study. That being said, the one factor that sets the CBSA apart from the
OGDs that responded to the survey is that it is a law enforcement organisation and a large portion of the Agency is operational in nature.

The CBSA is responsible for the protection of all of Canada's ports of entry while managing the flow of people and goods entering and exiting the country through those ports in order to prevent high-risk goods and people from entering Canada while at the same time facilitating the legitimate trade of goods and travel of people. The CBSA is the second largest law enforcement organization in Canada (the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) being the first) (Canada Border Services Agency, 2015). The CBSA meets its mandate by being active in the country as well as in several foreign countries. Some of the precise responsibilities of the CBSA include the following:

- “administering legislation that governs the admissibility of people and goods into and out of Canada;
- identifying, detaining, and removing people who are inadmissible to Canada;
- interdicting illegal goods at Canada's border;
- protecting food safety, plant and animal health, and Canada's resource base;
- administering trade legislation and agreements, including the enforcement of trade remedies that protect Canadian industry;
- administering a fair and impartial redress mechanism; and
- collecting duties and taxes on imported goods” (Canada Border Services Agency, 2015, n.p.)”.

4.5 Participant observation

As indicated earlier, participant observation was minimal due to the anonymous nature of the responses to the survey. While there are a number of respondents that provided contact information and requests to participate further in the research, the researcher was only able to observe participants in her organisation, when in the presence of the participants. Participant observation did not amount to a large amount of data, but nonetheless the little observation that took place was worth noting.

Participants engaged in discussions related to the bilingualism bonus with colleagues (who were not ‘known’ participants) and the researcher was able to learn from observing these exchanges. For example, one participant explained to an employee how the bonus is actually
attached to a position, and not a person. This employee was very argumentative, but the participant showed her the policies and also explained the best-practices that had been found via the study. This demonstrated the varied level of knowledge regarding the bonus amongst employees, as shown via survey results. It is also an example of participatory action as part of the action research cycle. The participant, in his regular day-to-day work, chose to educate his colleague as a result of participating in this research, as opposed to ignoring it and getting back to work.

As most of the observations were of the researcher’s employees, there is a risk that her mere presence influenced the participant behaviour. As a manager and a researcher, it is difficult to know if her presence influenced the behaviour, and if so, from a management perspective or research one. Regardless if the behaviour was motivated by the insider research presence or not, the behaviour observed was positive for the research topic.

Due to the anonymity of the survey, it is possible that the researcher observed more participants in action than those that are known; this is not quantifiable.
Chapter 5: Discussion

This study aims to investigate if the bilingualism bonus is a motivating factor for usage or acquisition of a second official language in the Canadian public service and also to investigate whether the bilingualism bonus plays a role in increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service.

Through the study it was found that the bilingualism bonus does not perform the intended role of a bonus, which is to motivate employees to reach a certain level of performance or goal; in this case to use, or acquire, their second official language. It was also found that the bilingualism bonus does not play a role in increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service.

5.1 The chosen theory: Expectancy Theory

The following section will show that if the expectancy theory model discussed earlier of Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence = Motivation is applied to the findings of this present study, the reason the bonus does not motivate employees to learn and/or use their second official language is because some of the values in the expectancy equation are nil, making the level of motivation as nil.

Lunenburg (2011) believes that leaders have to make the effort to elevate the belief that decent performance will result in rewards that are of value to the employees. This can be done by measuring performance accurately; describing with clarity the rewards that would result from a specific level of performance; describing to the employees how their rewards were actually based on historical performance; and be able to offer examples of other employees that have obtained higher rewards due to their better performance. In the case of the bilingualism bonus, none of Lunenburg’s (2011) recommendations are in place and therefore employees do not perceive a link between their reward (the bilingualism bonus) and their performance related to second language communication.

The equation to measure the level of motivation related to the bilingualism bonus becomes:

\[
\text{nil to medium (expectancy)} \times \text{nil (instrumentality)} \times \text{zero (valence)} = \text{zero (motivation)}
\]

5.1.1 Expectancy
As per Lunenburg (2011), expectancy is when a person believes that the effort he puts in will lead to an acceptable level of performance. Expectancy would vary in this situation since the utilisation of the second official language is not monitored, measured or assessed, except for the initial proficiency testing; therefore, people have to be the judge of their own output. As discussed previously, expectancy can be defined as an individual’s assessment of the probability that work-related output will lead to a certain level of performance (Lunenburg, 2011). The respondents of the survey do not see a real likelihood that their efforts will result in the anticipated level of performance level since there are no expectations of performance stated. There are specific criteria that have to be met (language levels) in order to initially obtain the bilingualism bonus, but there is no measure of performance after the level is reached. This means the expectancy value would be a nil.

5.1.2 Instrumentality

Instrumentality is the belief that a certain level of performance will be rewarded (Lunenburg, 2011). In the situation of the bilingualism bonus, the instrumentality assessed varies depending on what the employee believes the reward is if they perform adequately. This study has shown that the bilingualism bonus is paid out whether employees in bilingual positions utilise their second official language in their work functions or not, and whether it is used properly or not (quality). The level of instrumentality linked to the bilingualism bonus is zero since employees are aware they will still receive the bonus whether their performance is good or not. Language skills are not assessed as part of performance assessments.

The level of instrumentality rises for employees that are learning or utilising their second official language for intrinsic reasons such as being able to communicate with coworkers in the language of their choice, but from a compensation perspective, it is nil.

5.1.3 Valence

Finally, in the scenario in which the bilingualism bonus is the reward for utilising and/or learning a second official language, the valence is generally zero. Only 10% of survey respondents indicate that the bonus is an incentive for them to utilise their second official language. For the remaining respondents, the bilingualism bonus does not have any value for them; they are generally indifferent to the reward. Valence can be a strong motivating factor when it is possible to achieve the desired reward. If an employee obtains the reward whether
they perform the required tasks or display the expected effort or not, there will be little reason for them to display effort. As the findings of the survey have demonstrated, not only is the reward already granted to employees, but the current reward ($800 bonus) itself does not play the role of motivator.

5.2 Linkages to Expectancy Theory and Performance

The results of this present study have some similarities with the results of Ha & Sung’s (2011) study of South Korea teachers and their level of motivation related to a performance-based bonus plan. The study demonstrated that because the teachers were not confident that their performance would be properly assessed and that their performance would lead to them obtaining the bonus, their level of instrumentality were low or non-existent. Secondly, the teachers generally did not put any value in the bonus itself, believing instead that all teachers should be compensated equally regardless of their performance, therefore valence was nil. The Ha & Sung (2011) study also demonstrated that teachers commonly found many aspects of the bonus program to be problematic or negative and that teachers were not in favor of the program. Since valence and instrumentality were both not present or low, the motivation was not present. The results of the present study are similar in the fact that instrumentality is non-existent since employees know their performance will not be assessed, and the valence is generally low or non-existent since the value of the bonus is not present. Additionally, employees find several flaws with the larger official languages program in the public service similar to the teachers finding several flaws in the teaching program and the performance program in place.

In order to close the loop related to performance assessment, the study has confirmed the findings from the literature review, that employees are more motivated to make an effort when performance expectations are clearly stated prior to the behavior taking place. In the current scenario, once an employee has achieved the proficiency levels required of their position, they are not advised of expectations related to the usage or quality of usage of the second official language.

The initial assumption related to expectancy theory that motivation to use the second official language within a work environment would be increased by a bonus or award linked to performance is partly supported by the research findings. 39% of respondents indicated that if the use of their second official language was incorporated within their annual performance
assessment, it would motivate them to increase their usage of the second official language. The aspect of the initial assumption that is not validated is that only 27% of bilingual respondents indicated an increase in the monetary amount of the bilingualism bonus would be an incentive for them to increase their usage of their second official language. Furthermore, only 3% of unilingual respondents indicated an increase in the monetary amount of the bilingualism bonus would be an incentive for them to learn their second official language.

Ducharme, Singh & Podolsky (2005) revealed in their study that employees who obtain performance feedback not linked to pay increase showed a higher level of pay satisfaction than the employees who failed to receive performance feedback but still received performance pay. From the results of the Ducharme, Singh & Podolsky (2005) study and the present study, it can be inferred that if usage of the second official language was assessed like the rest of work-related expectations in the public service, employees would feel a greater sense of satisfaction or accomplishment related to their use of their second official language, whether there is a monetary incentive attached to their performance or not.

5.3 How others are doing it
As part of the discussion, a review was done on how Canada’s public service is fairing with dual language issues and the issuance of a bilingualism bonus compared with other nations. According to the Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages (2011), “looking at language practices in other countries revealed the lack of concrete models for creating multilingual workplaces in the public administration. Canada is breaking new ground in this area, and must develop its own models and establish best practices to help meet its objectives”. From the bilingualism bonus aspect, the data is even more difficult to discover for other countries and to correlate to the Canadian model. Below are highlights of the bonus frameworks that were found.

5.3.1 Canada’s Neighbour: United States of America (USA)
In search of finding best practices, or simply what else is being done to reward work related language skills, a review of Canada’s closest ally was done. The USA has several governmental departments that not only have requirements for foreign languages, but that provide some types of rewards or incentives to their employees. These are not related to
official languages and therefore the only aspect relevant to this research is the actual award given out.

The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) in the USA has a strong requirement for foreign language capabilities. While their requirements are not related to official languages of their country, it relates to their mandate and achieving it successfully. In 2009 they announced how they would go about focusing on building a true multilingual workforce (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013a).

The CIA has three language incentive programs. One is for new hires and one for current employees. The language hiring bonus program rewards employees with superior foreign language skills upon being hired. Employees can qualify for the hiring bonus for more than one language, to a maximum amount of $35,000 (in 2009), paid in a one-time lump sum. The amount of the bonus is established based on tested proficiency, level of difficulty of learning the language, and the criticality of the language for the CIA. The second incentive program is meant to reward current CIA employees who have test results in one or several of the almost 100 languages that the CIA requires to fill its mandate. Payments vary by language, level of proficiency and usage (CIA, 2014). The CIA’s third incentive program is the Foreign Language Excellence Award, which is awarded annually since 2008. The goal of this award is to recognize the exceptional use of various languages by CIA officers. Previous awards have varied between lump sum payments of $5,000 to $10,000 (Central Intelligence Agency, 2011).

The U.S. Department of State Foreign Affairs also offers monetary incentives to employees for being proficient in certain languages (those designated as being hard and extremely hard). An interesting aspect of their incentive program is that incentive pay will not be offered to an employee who is proficient in a language for which the proficiency was an initial condition of employment. The language-proficiency payment varies by position and scores. The payment schemes vary from 5% to 15% of salary and are adjusted annually. There are also end-of-tour bonuses for those returning from posts meeting a qualifying language testing score for the first time. The bonuses vary based on specific criteria, from obtaining higher language pay level in future in-service posts, or receiving a $5,000 lump sum bonus (U.S. Department of State Foreign Affairs, 2014).
The United States Department of Defence has military foreign language skill proficiency bonuses. There is the foreign language skill proficiency bonus and the senior reserve officers’ training corps foreign language skill bonus. Certification in a foreign language is generally only valid for one year and members must be retested yearly in order to continue receiving their bonus. For the first bonus program, the rates of pay of the bonus vary by skill level and category of language. Payments vary from $100 to $500 per month per language, but cannot exceed $1,000 for two or more languages. The bonus payments cannot exceed $12,000 for each one-year certified period. For the senior reserve officers’ training corps, there is a maximum of $3,000 paid out annually (Department of Defence, 2013).

5.3.2 At home – provinces and territories of Canada

The Official Languages Act discussed throughout this thesis is not applicable to provincial or municipal governments in Canada. Some provincial and territorial governments have created their own legislation and/or policies to protect languages where they feel are applicable.

For example, the North West Territories (NWT) and Nunavut’s Official Languages Acts recognise more than French and English as official languages. In NWT, there are eleven official languages (Chipewyan, Cree, English, French, Gwich’in, Inuinnaqtun, Inuktitut, Inuvialuktun, North Slavey, South Slavey and Tlicho) and in Nunavut there are three (Inuit language, English and French).

The NWT territories provide a bilingual bonus of $1,200 per year to employees in positions that are required to use two or more of NWT official languages. This excludes employees in translation and interpretation positions (Northwest Territories Human Resources, n.d.). The government of Nunavut provides a bilingual bonus of $1,500 per year to employees in positions that are required to use two or more of Nunavut’s official languages. This excludes employees in translation and interpretation positions. To qualify an employee has to demonstrate proficiency in the required languages.

Other provincial legislation related to official languages in Canada exists, such as in New Brunswick, Ontario, and Nova Scotia), but there does not appear to be bonuses related to second official languages in those provinces.

5.3.3 Globally
As stated earlier, there are several countries globally that recognise more than one official language. Finland, Belgium, Switzerland, South Africa, India and Cameroon are the countries that are most discussed on the Web related to multiple official languages. Due to language barriers and lack of published information on internal public service employment policies, information related to any bilingualism bonuses in those countries was not found, spare for Belgium. According to websites that discuss Belgium legislation, the government provides a bonus to certain classes of public servants, in certain regions, based on passing an exam or having educational proof of proficiency in the second language. The amount is based on the level of the position of the employee, the level of proficiency of the language and the requirement of the level of knowledge of the second language (Anon, 2003). According to Belgium government websites, the amount of the bonus ranges from 20 EUR to 110 EUR monthly depending on the requirements of the position and the certificate (Selor, n.d.).

The approach to official languages in Spain is interesting in that their constitution states that all citizens of Spain must know the official language. While in other countries the knowledge of the official language is usually just done by sheer necessity (in order to obtain services, etc.), in Spain it is mandatory in the constitution. While citizens can communicate in other local official languages, they must also be able to communicate in the first national official language.

This review of how other governments deal with bilingualism related bonuses or monetary incentives served to highlight the variances in frameworks. This does not highlight whether the employees are more or less motivated to learn or use their second language, but it could be an interesting idea for further research with the goal of assessing level of motivation from those receiving thousands of dollars to those receiving less or nothing.

5.4 Contributions
Since this was the first time this survey was distributed and as it was done with snowball sampling, the data cannot be compared exactly to the previous findings, but there are still comparisons to prior findings as outlined throughout this report. Enough historical data were found through reports and parliamentary debates to support the majority of the outcomes of this research. The one aspect that had never been sought and documented before is what employees thought of the bonus and if it played a motivating factor in their acquisition or usage of the second official language.
The present study had the objective of analysing qualitative and quantitative data to determine if the bilingualism bonus is a motivating factor for usage or acquisition of a second official language in the public service. The findings of the study demonstrate that the bonus in place does not generally play a motivating role for employees to use or acquire their second official language. From a management perspective, this has demonstrated the importance of assessing not only work expectations to contribute to employee motivation, satisfaction and performance, but also of any other imposed skill set such as a second language. The study has also demonstrated the importance of ensuring that any reward offered to employees as part of compensation systems are to be linked to performance to be useful, but also have to be of value to the employees. The bilingualism bonus is not linked to performance nor is it of value to most employees polled via this study.

The present study also had the objective of determining if the bilingualism bonus plays a role in increasing the level of bilingualism in the public service. Based on the fact that the bonus does not motivate public servants to use or acquire their second official language, it does not increase the level of bilingualism in the public service. Furthermore, it could be inferred that the money that is being spent on the bonus is money that is not directed to other means of increasing the level of bilingualism and therefore may actually be a nuisance to the degree of bilingualism as opposed to a support to.

Finally, the study was also seeking to determine if the cost of the bilingualism bonus is a beneficial investment for the government. The findings are clear that the current funding spent on paying out bilingualism bonuses is not a beneficial investment as there is no apparent return on the investment. There are very few people that utilise their second language because of the bonus and very few that would use it less without it. At an approximate cost of $82M a year, it does not provide an apparent benefit to the government, and to the Canadian society the government is serving.

From a theoretical perspective, this study confirms the expectancy theory equation of motivation which demonstrates that without the proper levels of expectancy, instrumentality and valence, the level of motivation is low or nil. Very few studies have looked at the relationship between bonuses that are awarded without performance assessment and their
motivational impact on employees. This study has begun to fill this gap and has opened the door to further research related to non-performance related bonuses and motivation.

From an insider researcher perspective, this research has sparked discussions related to second language policies in the researcher’s organisations. As discussed in the findings, actions taken by the researcher regarding testing employees with expired language results have created a dialogue amongst employees and managers. People are being educated about the current language policies and assumptions and misconceptions are being cleared up. These are small actions, but as they are multiplied, they grow. Argyris et al. (1985) discussed the concept of action research as defined by Lewin (one of the founders of action research) as being multi-faceted. One portion of Lewin’s concept is that the change that is intended in an AR project includes re-education. In order to have effective re-education, there has to be involvement of clients (participants in this case) in the diagnosis of the problem as well as a volunteer choice to get involved in new action. This research process has included re-education on a small scale as described by Argyris et al. (1985).

Current policy is being looked at in the organisation based on the insider-researcher project and the researcher’s experience of trying to establish best practices. For example, there is a domino effect of others actually taking a look at language level expiry dates and offering retesting to those employees as others find out about it. This is an important step as it shows dedication to making the language levels more accurate and consistent in the organisation, but more importantly, it shows to employees that management is looking at the best interest of their careers. Employees often do not realise that if their language levels are expired, they will not be able to move to another position that requires specific language levels without being retested. Part of the action taking place is educating employees. The more aware or knowledgeable of the program the people are, the more opportunities for having them get involved in making chances to the program and/or policy supporting it; this is part of re-educating them.

5.5 Recommendations

There have been numerous recommendations made over the years by various governmental groups or committees or persons of authority in the public service, in regards to bilingualism in the public service, including as it pertains to the bilingualism bonus; but non-implemented. The recommendations were sometimes based on political opinion, sometimes based on
research, sometimes on observations, etc. Several of these recommendations reflect directly
the recommendations stemming from the new data collected via the survey and interviews of
the present research and are therefore being incorporated with the recommendations from the
findings.

5.5.1 Recommendation 1 – motivation

Survey respondents suggest that including performance related to second official language in
performance agreements for employees occupying bilingual positions to ensure it is
measured, and employees held accountable, would help in heightening the motivation of
employees in relation to their usage of their second official language. Commissioner Fraser
also suggested this as a possible source of action in the interview with him. He believes that
the instant something is put in a performance agreement the behavior can change quickly. As
long as there are no consequences to not maintaining and using the second official language
attached to a bilingual position, many people will not make the effort. In this scenario, the
motivational factor becomes the desire to have a positive performance review as opposed to
the desire to obtain the value-less bonus.

A recommendation made by the Council of the Network of Official Languages is to leverage
performance management in relation to second language. It is suggested that employee
performance assessments include an assessment of the use of the second official language,
especially if the employee has received training. The performance assessment discussions
should also include how employees in bilingual positions are using their second official
language. Management should also be assessed, much like executives are, on how they
promote and utilise both official languages in their work environment (Government of
Canada, 2014).

The council put forth a progress report in January 2015. In this report, they repeat that there
should be an opportunity to repurpose the bilingualism bonus and it is requested that updates
to the Public Service Performance management system (PSPM) be made to make mandatory
fields related to OL. New standardized indicators of behaviour to be able to assess if
management is promoting bilingualism and also supporting the duality in their workplace
should be introduced simultaneously (Government of Canada, 2015). While the fields have
been added in PSPM, they are not linked to performance. It comes across as more of an
administrative exercise as the fields are in the same section as other administrative date. The
second language fields do force managers to review the language level proficiency of the positions and employees and their expiry dates. It is a positive step, but there needs to be more, there needs to be a link to performance more so than just the validity of the results.

5.5.2 Recommendation 2 – motivation

Several of the research participants discussed the possibility of making bilingualism a condition of employment or a bona fide occupational requirement. In this case the level of linguistic proficiency becomes part of the job description and classification of the position and therefore a mandatory requirement of the position, which then negates the need for a bonus. In this scenario the bonus disappears and remuneration of the position would be negotiated as part of collective agreement bargaining as it is done for all other positions. Commissioner Yalden suggested a version of this recommendation in his 1979 and 1983 annual reports. His opinion was that because it is so difficult to draw a line as to which positions truly need the second official language and which of the employees actively use it, the positions deemed to be bilingual should not have a premium attached to them unless bilingual performance is unmistakable in certain positions.

It has been said through various forums that people should not be paid more to be bilingual. It should be a bona fide requirement of the position and the employee gets the salary attached to the position. In a discussion by members of the Standing Committee on Official Languages, a member made the comment that when you hire a secretary to do the job of secretary, the person does not get paid extra money for having good typing or computer skills, because it is part of the requirements of the position (Standing Committee on Official Languages, 2005). It is recommended that serious thought be put into listing bilingualism as a skill required in doing certain jobs that are deemed to require knowledge of both official languages and to remove the financial aspect. To make it simple, if someone is unable to type a certain number of words per minute on a computer, they should not obtain a position that requires this. The same would apply for a position that requires communication in both official languages. If a person cannot communicate in French and English, they should not obtain a bilingual position.

In this scenario, employees are aware in advance that certain positions require bilingual skills and therefore the motivating factor would be obtaining the sought-after position, and not the meek reward of the bonus.
The 2001-2002 OCOL Annual report (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2002) offered proposals to the government to make official languages an integral part of the public service’s human resources management. One of the proposals was to enhance the value of bilingualism as a basic skill. It was suggested that this be done by considering the two official languages as basic skills like other skills that may be required for various positions; that imperative staffing be increased (this has been achieved); and to eliminate the bilingualism bonus in favour of treating bilingualism like any other required skill in classified positions.

Several recommendations were made regarding bilingualism in the public service in a report of the Standing Committee on Official Languages to the House of Commons. Many topics related to OL were addressed in their recommendations. The one that relates specifically to this study is the recommendation by the Committee that TBS abolish the bilingualism bonus and that the knowledge of both official languages be considered a professional skill and proper remuneration for the skill be incorporated within base salaries (House of Commons, 2005).

5.5.3 Recommendation 3 – motivation

Commissioner Fraser provided a suggestion for a course of action linked to the celebrations of Canada’s 150th birthday in 2017. He stated that the government could focus on creating exchange opportunities at every stage of the work force in the various departments to underscore the importance of bilingualism and of sharing the cultures of the two communities (Francophones and Anglophones). The idea would be for employees from various regions to exchange jobs for a certain period of time to learn their second official language and be immersed in the culture of the other language. This is done currently as indicated in this research, but on a very small scale and therefore does not have an impact on the public service as a whole.

5.5.4 Recommendation 4 – increasing bilingualism

A large proportion of participants and Commissioner Fraser recommended the removal of the bilingualism bonus in its entirety. The savings from removing the bonus should be used to re-assess the OL program and invest the funding where it can actually have a positive impact on bilingualism in the public service. It was suggested that the money should be invested in training, in technology-enabled translations, in job exchanges, and so forth.
One of the most recent initiatives to look at improving the OL program in the public service was done by the Council of the Network of Official Languages Champions in their submission to Blueprint 2020 entitled Leveraging Bilingualism in the Public Service of the Future. Blueprint 2020 is a government initiative to modernise the public service by engaging and consulting with public servants to ameliorate various processes and programs. One of the recommendations the Council has made in their Blueprint 2020 submission is to repurpose the bilingualism bonus to invest in innovative low-cost technologies that can enable learning of, and maintenance of, second language in the workplace. While the Council recognises this is a complex issue as it involves discussions with unions, they firmly believe it is required as a larger strategic view of the future of language training, recruitment and retention of language skills (Government of Canada, 2014).

5.5.5 Other recommendations outside of this research

A recommendation that was made in 2012 by a representative from the University of Ottawa to Parliament’s committee on official languages is to make online language training available to all Canadians, free of charge. Along with the online training, a help-line could also be established for learners to have access to language tutors for support. This could be done in collaboration with local universities or colleges across the country (Clément, 2012).

While the recommendation to ensure people are taught both official languages before entering the public service has been repeated several times in different forums, it appears difficult to achieve. The House of Commons’ Standing committee on official languages looked at this recommendation in 2009 and the report shows that difficulties lie in several aspects. The government cannot force universities to do anything, they have academic independence. They cannot be forced to offer the training, or alter their admission criteria to favour second language acquisition and so forth. The government can also not force parents to choose to send their children to immersion schools. It should also be noted that education is a provincial responsibility in Canada. While the federal government has agreements with provinces based on some budget transfers, they are not responsible for delivery of the educational programs. What it can do, is send a strong message of its need for filling approximately 5 000 bilingual positions a year (House of Commons, 2009) and hope to work together towards the achievement of this goal.
It should be noted that no recommendations made by the various public service unions have been listed. It has been challenging to obtain current union positions on the topic of this study due to the researcher’s position as an excluded manager in the public service and the fact that the unions were in negotiations with the Employer (TBS) for a few years prior to this research, and during, for several expired collective agreements. Detailed contents of current negotiations are not discussed publicly to ensure the negotiation processes are respected. The points that are up for discussion are not linked to bilingualism. There are higher priorities like sick leave, etc.

5.6 What the researcher has learned and further recommendations

It is recommended that this study be replicated on a larger scale to confirm to the wider public service, management and unions that the bonus is not serving its purpose and that employees have ideas related to the OL program and what would motivate them in acquiring, maintaining or using their second official language. This could be done via a standalone survey, or by adding questions to the PSES’ section of OL for one iteration of it. The PSES already exists, its reach would provide results that could not be denied due to the grandeur of the sample (in the last PSES, the response rate was 71.4% of target population of 255 245 individuals). The results would provide data for the government and unions to work together to remove the bonus from collective bargaining and move the savings into different aspects of OL.

There have been some surveys/polling of employees over the last decade regarding bilingualism and its use in the public service, but none was found to be questioning the actual bilingualism bonus. There was a sociolinguistic analysis conducted by the OCOL in 2003, in the National capital region, in which 1 221 public servants in bilingual positions responded to a questionnaire to help better understand the range of factors that influence official language use in the workplace (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2004). One study done by the TBS in 2002 on the attitude towards the utilisation of both official languages consulted 5 000 public servants. While a section of six questions about official languages in the workplace was added to the PSES in 2002 and have remained, they do not address the bilingualism bonus or motivating factors related to second language.

Based on the expectancy theory, it is essential that the reward be motivating to employees and therefore employees need to be engaged in order for leaders to know what can act as a
motivating factor. The follow-up questionnaire responses showed that only a small portion of people want more money as an incentive to use or learn their second official language. Most people identified non-financial rewards as a means to a new bonus program.

To piggy-back on the recommendation discussed in Clément (2012), in which a representative from the University of Ottawa mentioned to Parliament’s committee on official languages that we should make online language training available to all Canadians for free, it could be done at a fairly low cost by working with the Canada School of Public Service. The School already has online language training available for public servants (both official languages), so it could be replicated or adapted for the public at a low cost. Access could be open to all, or with a log-in ID, coordinated with universities or colleges, employment centers, and so forth. This would allow more opportunities for language training for members of the public, before they attempt to join the public service ranks.

5.7 Limitations, gaps and further research

This study was limited as to the extent of the sample, especially from a geographical variable. If the same questionnaire were to be provided to public servants in the rest of the country, the answers could possibly vary. That being said, an analysis would have to be done based on the geographic variable since the majority of bilingual positions are in the NCR. The sample used for this present research was satisfactory for purposes of this research, but it would strengthen the validity of the findings to have a wider sample base.

One other limitation as discussed previously is the inability for the researcher to action the recommendations and assess if the solution is effective. Greenwood & Levin (2007) explain that a first credibility challenge in AR relates to the found solution of the problem examined locally. They indicate that the workability test is central to whether the solution is appropriate. While it was not possible for the researcher to action the recommendations made, they were validated with the most senior official in the OL program, the Commissioner of Official Languages, and a commitment from him to look at my report once completed was made.

As indicated in the findings, this study has shown there is an opportunity for future research to clarify why the OL program is seen in a different light by CBSA respondents than by respondents from other departments. Further research could be done in order to determine if
the opinions related to the OL program and the bilingualism bonus vary the same in other law enforcement organisation such as the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) and the Canadian Security Intelligence Service (CSIS). It is possible that disparity would be noted between CBSA respondents and other non-TBS law enforcement organisation such as the RCMP and CSIS since they are not governed by the same TBS policies as the CBSA is, but the opinions of employees would still be relevant. While one may assume that the operational nature of the CBSA may play a role in employees’ perception of the value of the OL program, by being more focused on law enforcement priorities rather than language requirements, this assumption would likely not explain why the CBSA respondents attach more importance to the bonus than the OGD respondents. Employees are less motivated in the CBSA to learn their second official language, yet they indicate utilising their second official language more because of the bonus than those in the OGDs. There is definitely an opportunity for further research to clarify why the OL program is seen in a different light at the CBSA.

Finally, an opportunity for further research is also possible in relation to seeing how those departments without bonuses are faring in regards to the OL component in their organisation and the employees’ motivational levels related to OL. As indicated previously, not all federal governmental agencies or departments are subjected to the bilingualism bonus directive. The departments or agencies for which the Treasury Board Secretariat is not the employer, such as Crown Corporations, are not obliged to abide by all policies or directives. Through the present research it was found that the CSIS is one employer in the Canadian public service that at one time offered the bilingualism bonus to certain categories of employees and later decided to rescind the bonus altogether. According to documents obtained via the ATI, the CSIS chose to stop issuing the bonus to non-unionised employees during a government-wide cost savings exercise which took place in 2012. The director of CSIS indicated that the bonus had always been a contentious issue. He stated that it was difficult to administer fairly because not all bilingual employees received it, only those who occupied a bilingual position. The bonus implied that bilingualism is actually an exceptional skill, which he did not believe it was; finally, he felt that the amount of the bonus was not reflective of the importance of bilingualism (CSIS, 2012a). In communications to their staff about the cancellation of the bilingualism bonus, the CSIS senior management indicated that creating a workplace environment that utilises and respects both official languages is the true way to promoting bilingualism (CSIS, 2012b).
In further internal communications obtained through the ATI legislation, officials at CSIS indicate that while the cutting of the bonus at CSIS was due to the deficit reduction action plan in the government, the removal of the bonus was also because they believed it was not actually an incentive to working bilingually at CSIS or to learning the language like it may have been when introduced in 1977.

The above case of CSIS demonstrates that some departments not governed by the TBS legislation and policy have decided from an economical perspective to remove the bonus, and focus on creating a workplace that is respectful of both official languages. Further research to determine what the impact has been (if any) on the level of motivation of employees to use or acquire their second language and/or of the state of OL would be interesting. The data, if supportive of the removal of the bonus, could be used on a grander scale in the public service.

Once this research thesis is completed and approved from an academic perspective, then I will be able to share it with various levels of management in the relevant governmental departments in order to seek changes to the official languages program as it pertains to the bonus. The recommendations made in this paper will be worked on at my level and pushed forward as relevant once approved. As indicated previously, major changes take time in the public service, but I am confident that as an insider researcher, I can keep the momentum to ensure my recommendations are not lost in the political climate and various priorities.
Chapter 6: Actionable Knowledge and Conclusion

6.1 Actions – Researcher Testimony

As my first step in creating action and an opportunity for joint learning with the research participants, I held discussions with the non-anonymous ones to establish which actions I could move forward with and create a positive impact, however small it would be. There was also a discussion as to how participants themselves could move forward with enabling change related to the topic. One of the objectives of AR is to augment the capacity of the involved community to have control over their own destinies in a more effective way and trying to improve their capacity to do it in a more just and sustainable milieu (Greenwood & Levin, 2007). It was agreed upon that small actions that would support best practices should be undertaken and could then be assessed for possible snowball action by others and/or foster discussions that would enable learning related to the topic.

Stemming from the findings from this study and the recommendations for next steps, I decided to integrate language assessment results as part of annual performance evaluations within my direct organisation in a capacity that I was able to, while still respecting the current policies. In the most recent round of yearly performance assessments for my employees, I reviewed the language profile of each employee and the expiry dates of their language proficiency criteria requirements. With this exercise, I found that three employees who occupy bilingual positions had expired language results, yet were still receiving the bilingualism bonus, and were not scheduled for a retesting of their proficiency levels. When I communicated to the affected employees that they would need to be retested, I was questioned as to why, since the official languages legislation does not force people to be retested when their language proficiency results expire if they remain in the same position. I communicated to them that it has been found as a best practice by other departments and the OCOL since they are getting paid a bonus to meet certain proficiency levels and therefore we must ensure they are able to communicate at the level of the position requirements. These were employees that did not openly participate in the research (which does not mean they did not participate). This situation opened the door to a discussion regarding the bilingualism bonus and the reasoning behind the designation of their positions as bilingual. One of the employees believed that she was receiving the bonus because she was bilingual herself, as a person, and not because the position required her to be. This has been found as a popular
belief in the survey. Clarifying that the requirements for bilingualism are attached to the position and not the employee generated a larger discussion with others, and it provided a learning opportunity for several employees as it pertained to the requirements of the Act and their roles as bilingual position holders.

The employee that did not understand the intent and the requirement of her bilingual position and attached bonus went further and refused to be tested as she did not feel it was a requirement (as per legislation). This gave me the opportunity to expand my scope of actionable knowledge with the human resources department of my organisation. I sought support from the OL area of my organisation requesting in writing that I could in fact request that my employee be retested, and that it would be a best practice. To my surprise, this section of my department in charge of OL did not fully support me in my request. They indicated that because the legislation does not force employees to be retested if they remain in the same position, that I should realise this is a very sensitive issue and that I would need evidence that the employee does not meet the position’s language proficiency requirement to mandate re-testing. I was also told that if we systematically tested all employees every 5 years that the governmental department responsible for testing would not be able to meet the demand. This response from my OL area had me take a step back and realise that while I wanted to instate best practices related to OL in my group, I would not be supported by the greater organisation. This was clearly a step missed for me, that I should have consulted within the organisation before implementing an action, so as to be prepared to be supported, or on my own. This experience confirmed how very inconsistently the intent of the OL legislation and policies/directives is being interpreted and administered in each government department or agency.

In the spirit of moving forward with action research and enacting positive change, I proceeded with the retesting of the employees who agreed to be retested. I also continued to educate all employees regarding why the retesting is a best practice even if not mandatory. By testing people with expired results, or before they expire, we are ensuring that the bonus is provided not only to those who meet the proficiency but also ensuring that employees are not put in a situation where they are not able to move to other positions because they no longer have the required skills. If they are tested and fail the level they require, the employee can seek out official language training to upgrade or maintain their previous levels. I also felt that by
starting the routine of doing the verifications at the same time as the yearly assessment, I am taking a step forward in getting people to link work performance with language performance. As indicated previously, the performance tracking system now requires managers to validate the OL information for each employee before closing the assessment file. It is a good opportunity to discuss status/progress with employees.

While the action I took within my own team related to a review of language proficiency level during performance assessment was not a complete success, I have shared this experience with my management colleagues and it started a discussion on how we could move forward with my recommendation, but ensure the highest rate of success possible. In our discussions we came to the conclusion that offering the testing on a voluntary basis to employees with expired results, while explaining the benefits to them and the organisation of the re-testing, would likely yield positive results. This is an ongoing approach, but so far it has yielded some positive results. While we are not making a change to the bonus framework itself, by identifying to employees that their levels are about to expire, or have expired, we are trying to ensure that the bonus as it stands is being provided to those who meet the proficiency requirements.

Further action has been and is being taken by a number of the participants who participated in my study. Some have brought forward the findings to their managers or colleagues to teach others about the intent of the bonus and the recommendations made to change it and make it better. The latter is a slow process, but the more people that move forward with their new knowledge, the greater chance of making a really big change.

6.2 Reflection – Researcher Testimony
Coghlan & Brannick (2010) use several authors to define reflection as the process of taking a step back from the experience at hand and questioning it, and having insight as well as understanding in order to plan further action. Raelin (2008 in Coghlan and Brannick, 2010) states that reflection has to be exposed so that it can go further than the insider researcher’s private assumptions, and assist in understanding how knowledge is created. “In action research, reflection is the activity which integrates action and research” (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010, p.25).
As part of my reflection following the data collection and analysis, I elected to do one last interview, to guide me in my reflection, to ensure any assumptions were removed and any recommendations for action solid. Coghlan & Brannick (2010) state that a decent portion of reflection is reflecting on action; taking a post facto look at what has taken place. The interview took place with the Commissioner of Official Languages. The Commissioner of Official Languages at the time of this research taking place was Graham Fraser. His term will have ended in 2016 and had been in this position for 10 years, the longest term for any Commissioner of Official Languages since the creation of the role.

The Commissioner’s mandate is to take all measures within his power to ensure that the three main objectives of the Official Languages Act are met. He plays various roles such the Ombudsman role in which he is responsible for the protection of language rights of citizens and the promotion of the equality of both of Canada’s official languages. The Commissioner also has an auditing role in which audits of federal institutions’ and other organizations’ compliance with the Official Languages Act is done to make recommendations for improvements. Liaising with other organisations and various levels of government to better understand and action the needs of communities related to official language is also a role of the Commissioner as well the monitoring, promotion and education of people, organisations and parliament on linguistic duality in the public service as well as Canadian society as a whole. Finally, the Commissioner plays a part in the advancement of Canadians’ language rights by getting involved, when appropriate, in court proceedings that relate to the status or the use of English or French in Canada (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015a).

Since the Commissioner is an agent of parliament without any hierarchy-related authority over public servants, and has the role of championing and bettering the state of official languages in the public service, he was the most logical choice to reflect on the research with. While the meeting with the Commissioner in itself does not enact changes in and of itself at the present moment, as explained, it is a step in the AR cycle and it has confirmed the interest for most recommendations from the most senior official responsible for the monitoring and supporting of official languages, and has provided additional supporting recommendations and opinions throughout this study. The interview with the Commissioner was the most gratifying part of the research process for myself. Being able to discuss my research topic
with one of the well-versed people in this topic in the government of Canada was inspiring.
He spoke with dedication and hope and confirmed that my need to research OL in the public
service was important and that looking out for public servants with the goal of improving
programs and policies is a noble venture.

Greenwood & Levin (2007) have a strong stance about what AR is and it has guided me
through this research process. They believe that action research is about explicitly trying to
disrupt existing power relationships in order to democratise society. By researching a topic
attached to rules and principles dictated at a political and regulatory level and addressing it
with various levels in the public service, I was trying to follow Greenwood & Levin’s (2007)
interpretation of AR in my own way in my current public servant management role.

The experience of being an insider researcher was surprisingly much like being the manager
I am in the sense that I already question the status quo and I already involve others in my
search for making the work environment better, more effective. The engagement with
organisational practices to effect change was different as an insider researcher than as a
manager because the topic I was trying to effect change on was not sanctioned by my
organisation. As a manager, I can engage with others in the organisation in the way I see
best, and work on creating change on issues or initiatives supported by senior management.
As an insider researcher, I had very tight parameters to engage within and even tighter
boundaries within which to effect change.

As opined by Coghlan & Brannick (2010), being an insider researcher contributed to my own
learning, but also did contribute to the development of my organisation through the
participants and supportive colleagues. I learned about the extensive limitations my
organisation and the greater public service put on non-sanctioned research. I learned about
myself that I could be a scholarly practitioner even if my day-to-day has been as a practitioner
for many years and will be continue to be. The learning for myself, and for others is the most
important aspect of this project. The goal of doing a doctorate while being a full time
practitioner in an operational law enforcement environment was to learn, to surpass myself
and to bring new information and knowledge to my organisation that would not have been
possible without this study. Did I succeed at everything? No, but that is part of learning, that
is part of action research, that is part of managing and of advancing.
I constantly seek this growth and intellectual fulfilment that knowledge and inquisition bring to me. While I remain in a practical environment as opposed to an academic one, wearing the label of scholarly practitioner is done with pride and is a reflection that anything is possible, and that practical barriers should not stop intellectual or academic inquisitiveness.

6.3 Conclusion

The bilingualism bonus does not increase bilingualism in the public service, nor does it motivate employees to use or learn their second official language. In essence, it does not serve a purpose. Respecting the linguistic duality of French and English goes beyond the right to use French or English, it also means respecting the cultural differences, ways of living, traditions. OCOL has stated that “to foster respect for linguistic duality in the workplace, it is important for both language groups to have positive interactions so that they can get to know each other better understand their differences” (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2011). The survey has revealed that 62% of respondents believe a change of culture or mind-set is required to increase bilingualism in the public service. While government is focusing on language levels and training, it appears the best way to unite the duality, and potentially foster learning and usage of both official languages better, may be to focus on teaching each culture about the other and everyone about what it means to be Canadian. If it is not about a legislated pressure, but rather a social phenomenon, maybe the linguistic duality would not be a duality, but a positive melting pot of cultures. Commissioner Fraser believes that one of the reasons to be bilingual in the public service is to understand Canada as a whole and serve the Ministry of the day. He believes that as a public servant, one should want to understand the country and personify the country and emulate the leadership competencies we have defined for ourselves. To be unilingual, as stated in this research, can be limiting from a career progressing perspective in the public service, but Commissioner Fraser also believes it is limiting people in how they can understand the country.

As per Greenwood & Levin’s (2007) interpretation of AR, one of the goals is to keep the conversation going, and I think as long as myself and the research participants and other public servants talk about the topic and the research, we are bringing awareness to the issue
and hopefully have started the bureaucratic machine moving towards more significant change than I am able to foster from my current position.

What has become clear is that the more than $82M the Canadian federal government is currently spending every year on bilingualism bonuses is not a source of motivation for employees to learn or use their second official language at work in the public service. The Council of the Network of Official Languages Champions wrote an inspiring vision in their Blueprint 2020 submission as it relates to official languages that I find fitting to conclude with:

“Across the Public Service, there is a desire for more freedom and less rigidity in how we practice bilingualism and think about official languages. Language is a tool. It is, by any measure, the most powerful workplace tool we have. When work can be conducted by people with the collective ability to move seamlessly in and out of both official languages, stronger insights, greater understanding, and better concepts result. When a workforce has two languages to work with for sharing views, conveying information and expressing ideas, there's enormous potential to communicate more effectively, expand imagination, generate better ideas and increase workforce productivity. In this sense, mathematically speaking, two or more employees each having two languages to work with is four times more powerful than having only one (Government of Canada, 2014, n.p.).”
References


Canadian Security Intelligence Service (2012a) *Note to all service employees/Cost-Saving Measures*, not published.

Canadian Security Intelligence Service (2012b) *Bilingualism Bonus / prime au bilinguisme*, not published.


House of Commons (2009) 5,000 Bilingual positions to be filled every year: The role of postsecondary institutions in promoting Canada’s linguistic duality, June 2009, 40th Parliament, 2nd session.


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## Appendix A – Survey questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer choices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethics and consent questions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I confirm that I have read and have understood the information in the introduction of this study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information and where applicable ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that, under the Data Protection Act (applicable to the University of Liverpool), I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and it will not be possible to identify me in any publications.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree for the data collected to be used in relevant future research.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand and agree that once the data I submit is saved and becomes anonymised, I will no longer be able to withdraw it.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree to take part in this study by completing this survey.</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistical questions</td>
<td>Options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select your age group</td>
<td>• 24 years and under&lt;br&gt;• 25 to 29 years&lt;br&gt;• 30 to 34 years&lt;br&gt;• 35 to 39 years&lt;br&gt;• 40 to 44 years&lt;br&gt;• 45 to 49 years&lt;br&gt;• 50 years and older</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select your gender</td>
<td>• Male&lt;br&gt;• Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select the highest level of education you have completed</td>
<td>• Elementary school&lt;br&gt;• Secondary or high school&lt;br&gt;• Community college, CEGEP, institute of technology&lt;br&gt;• University certificate or diploma&lt;br&gt;• Bachelor's degree&lt;br&gt;• Master's degree&lt;br&gt;• Doctorate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select the government department or agency you currently work for</td>
<td>• All departments listed as choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select your current employment status</td>
<td>• Indeterminate (permanent)&lt;br&gt;• Term&lt;br&gt;• Trainee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select the occupational group of your current position</td>
<td>• All occupational groups listed as choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select the occupational level of your current position</td>
<td>• All occupational levels listed as choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select which category best represents your current position</td>
<td>• Administrative&lt;br&gt;• Non-managerial&lt;br&gt;• Managerial&lt;br&gt;• Executive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select the province or territory you currently work in</td>
<td>Professional designation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
<td>• Professional designation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ontario (excluding National Capital Region)</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Quebec (excluding National Capital Region)</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Northwest Territories</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Nunavut</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Yukon</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• British Colombia</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Alberta</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Saskatchewan</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Manitoba</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• New Brunswick</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Nova Scotia</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Prince Edward Island</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Newfoundland and Labrador</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Outside of Canada</td>
<td>• National Capital Region</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you have selected Ontario or Québec in the previous question, please select which you region you work in (if applicable)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you have selected Ontario or Québec in the previous question, please select which you region you work in (if applicable)</th>
<th>The bilingual region of Montréal (counties of Deux-Montagnes, Ile-de-Montreal, Ile-Jesus, La Prairie, Vaudreuil)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The bilingual region of Montréal (counties of Deux-Montagnes, Ile-de-Montreal, Ile-Jesus, La Prairie, Vaudreuil)</td>
<td>• The bilingual region of Montréal (counties of Deux-Montagnes, Ile-de-Montreal, Ile-Jesus, La Prairie, Vaudreuil)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The bilingual regions of other parts of Quebec (counties of Bonaventure, Gaspé-Est, Brome, Compton, Huntington, Missisquoi, Richmond, Sherbrooke, Stanstead, Argenteuil, Pontiac)</td>
<td>• The bilingual regions of other parts of Quebec (counties of Bonaventure, Gaspé-Est, Brome, Compton, Huntington, Missisquoi, Richmond, Sherbrooke, Stanstead, Argenteuil, Pontiac)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The bilingual region of Eastern Ontario (counties of Glengarry, Prescott, Russell, Stormont)</td>
<td>• The bilingual region of Eastern Ontario (counties of Glengarry, Prescott, Russell, Stormont)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The bilingual region of Northern Ontario (counties of Algoma, Cochrane,</td>
<td>• The bilingual region of Northern Ontario (counties of Algoma, Cochrane,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Research specific questions | Nipissing, Sudbury, Timiskaming)  
• I do not work in one of these areas |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Select the category which represents the number of years you have been working in the Canadian public service | • Less than one year  
• Between 1 and 5 years  
• Between 6 and 10 years  
• Between 11 and 15 years  
• Between 16 and 20 years  
• More than 20 years |
| Why do you to work in the public service? (select all that apply) | • Job security  
• Benefits (includes salary and other benefits)  
• A desire to provide service to your country  
• Other (please specify) |
| Select your first language *This is described as the language with which you have a primary personal identification; the language in which you are generally more proficient | • English  
• French  
• Spanish  
• Other |
| Select your current level of proficiency in second language written comprehension (reading) | • X  
• A  
• B  
• C  
• E  
• P  
• Other  
• Never been assessed |
| Select your current level of proficiency in second language written expression (writing) | • X  
• A  
• B  
• C |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Select your current level in second language oral proficiency (speaking) | • E
• P
• Other
• Never been assessed |
| Which criteria you believe management considers when determining the linguistic profile of a position in your department/agency (select all that apply) | • Client Service requirement
• Linguistic profile of employee considered for position
• Supervisory responsibilities
• Specific requirements of the position
• Other (please specify) |
| Which types of positions should be designated as bilingual nationally (therefore not only in regions designated as bilingual) (select all that apply) | • Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) officers
• Border Services Officers
• Correctional Services Officers
• Passport Canada client service employees
• Service Canada client service employees (pension, employment insurance, etc)
• Canada Revenue client service employees
• None of the above
• Other (please specify) |
| What should the ratio of bilingual positions be in regions designated as bilingual? | • 100% bilingual
• 75% bilingual
• 50% bilingual |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to your observations, how frequently are employees encouraged to use the official language of their choice in your workplace?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never, Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As an employee, how frequently do you receive central services (i.e.: pay and benefits, IT, etc) in the official language of your choice in your department/agency?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never, I am not certain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you feel you can communicate with your superiors in the official language of your choice?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never, Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is second language training offered in your department/agency?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the bilingualism bonus promote the use of both official languages in the workplace?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the bilingualism bonus effective in increasing bilingualism in the public service?</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How often should language skills evaluations take place for employees in bilingual positions?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is there value in providing bilingual services to the public?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is there value in allowing employees to work in the official language of their choice?</td>
<td>Always or most of the time, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In most departments/agencies, eligible employees occupying a bilingual position receive the bilingualism bonus. What is the reason for the issuance of this bonus? (select all that apply)</td>
<td>to reward employees for having the required linguistic levels of position, to act as an incentive for the employee to use their second official language, to act as an incentive for others to learn their second official language, Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How could the level of bilingualism in the public service be increased? (select all that apply)</td>
<td>Increase amount of bilingualism bonus, Create a new incentive program (for</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|**apply)** | learning or using second official language  
• Offer workplace language training  
• Recruit only bilingual candidates when recruiting externally  
• Change the culture/mindsets regarding bilingualism  
• Other (please specify) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Should employees in bilingual positions receive a bonus?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Always or most of the time  
• Often  
• Sometimes  
• Rarely  
• Never  
• Other (please specify) |
|**Should bilingual employees receive a bonus regardless of the requirements of their positions?** |  
• Always or most of the time  
• Often  
• Sometimes  
• Rarely  
• Never  
• Other (please specify) |
|**Who should be responsible to teach/train employees in their second official language?** (select all that apply) |  
• The employer  
• The employee  
• Both the employer and the employee  
• Educational institutions before the people become employees  
• Other (please specify) |
|**Do you consider yourself to be bilingual?** (bilingual defined here as being able to communicate in both official languages) |  
• Yes (sends the participant to questions for bilingual individuals)  
• No (sends the participant to questions for unilingual individuals) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions for bilingual individuals</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where did you learn your second official language?</td>
<td>• At home while growing up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• At home as an adult (selftaught or taught by spouse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Elementary or secondary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• College or University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Work (public service)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Work (previous employment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Self-study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How long have you considered yourself to be bilingual?</td>
<td>• All my life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Since less than 3 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Since 3 to 5 years ago</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Since more than 5 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Other (please specify)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Select the language requirements of your current position</td>
<td>• Bilingual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Unilingual English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Unilingual French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Either English or French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you receive the bilingualism bonus?</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you receive the bonus: do you use your second official language</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more because of it?</td>
<td>• No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How frequently do you use your second official language in your work</td>
<td>• Always or most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>functions (excluding for social reasons)?</td>
<td>• Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How frequently do you use your second official language socially?</td>
<td>• Always or most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Options</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What motivates you to use your second official language at work? (select all that apply)</td>
<td>• Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Requirement of position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Bilingualism bonus</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Desire to interact with colleagues in their first language</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Desire to practice and/or improve my second official language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• I am not motivated to use my second official language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would likely be an incentive for you to increase the frequency of your usage of your second official language? (select all that apply)</td>
<td>• Being in a position designated bilingual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• An increase in the yearly bilingualism bonus amount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Second language usage included in the yearly employee performance assessments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Having access to language learning tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you seek out bilingual positions when searching for a new position?</td>
<td>• Always or most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you refuse an offer of employment in a position that is not designated as bilingual?</td>
<td>• Always or most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you are (or have ever been) in a bilingual position: has your performance related to the</td>
<td>• Always or most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Use of your second official language ever been assessed by your manager? | • Sometimes  
  • Rarely  
  • Never  
  • I have never been in a bilingual position |
| If you are (or have ever been) in a bilingual position: has the frequency of use of your second official language ever been assessed by your manager? | • Always or most of the time  
  • Often  
  • Sometimes  
  • Rarely  
  • Never  
  • I have never been in a bilingual position |
| If you do not receive the bonus: would you use your second official language more if you did receive it? | • Yes  
  • No  
  • Uncertain  
  • I receive the bonus |
| If you do receive the bonus: would you use your second official language less if you did not receive it? | • Yes  
  • No  
  • Uncertain  
  • I do not receive the bonus |

**Questions for unilingual individuals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Select the language requirements of your current position               | • Bilingual  
  • Unilingual English  
  • Unilingual French  
  • Either English or French |
| What currently motivates you to learn your second official language (select all that apply) | • 800$/year bilingualism bonus  
  • Promotional opportunities  
  • Desire to interact with colleagues in their first language  
  • Desire to practice or improve second language skills  
  • Nothing motivates me to learn my second official language |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What would likely be an incentive for you to learn your second official language? (select all that apply)</td>
<td>• Other (please specify) • Employer-paid full time language training • Employer-paid part time language training • An increase in the yearly bilingualism bonus amount • A one-time lump-sum bonus for achieving a certain bilingual level • Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you believe there is value in learning your second official language?</td>
<td>• Always or most of the time • Often • Sometimes • Rarely • Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Optional Questions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you wish to be contacted if we have follow-up questions?</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you wish to receive a copy of the findings/final report?</td>
<td>• Yes • No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you would like to provide additional information/opinions pertinent to this research, please do so in the box below</td>
<td>Open text box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact information (voluntary, not required)</td>
<td>• Name • Email Address • Phone Number</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Appendix B – Follow-up Survey Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer choices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethics and consent questions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have participated in the initial survey</td>
<td>• Yes (the consent you gave in the previous survey still applies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• No (you will be directed to the consent page)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I confirm that I have read and have understood the information in the</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>introduction of this study. I have had the opportunity to consider the</td>
<td>• No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information and where applicable ask questions and have had these</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answered satisfactorily.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being</td>
<td>• No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or questions, I am free to decline.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that, under the Data Protection Act (applicable to the</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Liverpool), I can at any time ask for access to the</td>
<td>• No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information if I wish.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and it</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will not be possible to identify me in any publications.</td>
<td>• No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree for the data collected to be used in relevant future research.</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand and agree that once the data I</td>
<td>• Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After completing the initial survey, I will receive my response</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
submit is saved and becomes anonymised, I will no longer be able to withdraw it.  

| I agree to take part in this study by completing this survey. | Yes  
|-----------|---|   | No |---|

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|Select your age group| 24 years and under  
|---|  
| 25 to 29 years  
|---|  
| 30 to 34 years  
|---|  
| 35 to 39 years  
|---|  
| 40 to 44 years  
|---|  
| 45 to 49 years  
|---|  
| 50 years and older  
|---|

|Select your gender| Male  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|Select the government department or agency you currently work for| All departments listed as choices|

|Select which category best represents your current position| Administrative  
|---|  
|Non-managerial  
|---|  
|Managerial  
|---|  
|Executive  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional designation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|Select the category which represents the number of years you have been working in the Canadian public service| Less than one year  
|---|  
|Between 1 and 5 years  
|---|  
|Between 6 and 10 years  
|---|  
|Between 11 and 15 years  
|---|  
|Between 16 and 20 years  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|Do you consider yourself to be bilingual? (bilingual defined here as being able to communicate in both official languages)| Yes  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Do you usually converge to the language of the person you are communicating with (when different than your language)?                 | • Almost or most of the time  
• Often  
• Sometimes  
• Never |
| Why yes or no (attached to previous question)?                                                                                         | • Open text box                              |
| If you were asked to create a new incentive program for people to learn and/or use their second official language (to replace the current bonus program), what would you recommend? | • Open text box                              |
| Do you agree with the following statement? "While government is focusing on language levels and training, it appears the best way to unite the duality, and potentially foster learning and usage of second languages better, may be to focus on teaching each culture about the other. If it is not about a legislated pressure, but rather a social phenomenon, maybe the linguistic duality would not be a duality, but a positive melting pot of cultures". | • Yes  
• No  
• Other (Open text box)                        |
| If you would like to provide additional information/opinions pertinent to this research, please do so in the box below              | • Open text box                              |
| Contact information (voluntary, not required)                                                                                         | • Name  
• Email Address  
• Phone Number |