Intern motivation to learn: The moderating role of perceived overqualification

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Internships are a distinct learning context, given that interns possess a blurred role status between student and employee. The distinctiveness of an internship, as a learning context requires investigation of which individual-level factors predict learning during internships and subsequently, how this learning impacts the acquisition of relevant workplace outcomes. Two rounds of longitudinal survey data were collected from final-year undergraduate students who participated in workplace internship programs (N=669). In this study, it was found that an intern's general learning orientation predicted internship learning, a relationship which was moderated by an intern's perceived overqualification, factors which in turn were shown to impact overall internship satisfaction. These results provide important insights for enhancing core student outcomes from work-integrated learning programs.

Keywords: University to work transition, internship satisfaction, overqualification, learning orientation.

Work-integrated learning (WIL) sits at the intersection of academic and workplace learning, acting as a bridge between workplace vocations and preceding academic programs. The practice of internships is theoretically rooted in experiential learning theory which has its philosophical roots in the guild and apprenticeship system of medieval times (Seweitzer & King, 1999). The influential educator Dewey (1938) asserted that adequate training for vocations requires actually performing the occupations themselves, with skill development occurring through a process of active adaption by the learner, referred to as experiential learning. Dewey's sentiments echoed Whitehead (1929), who also believed that knowing and doing could not be separated. More recent manifestations of this line of thinking are reinforced in the literature on situated learning, where it is suggested that recall of theoretical or abstract knowledge requires linkages with associated concepts, including real world application (Kenworthy-U'Ren & Peterson, 2005; McLellan, 1995). One of the most widely-known conceptualizations of experiential learning is Kolb's (1984) cycle of experiential learning. Kolb's cycle emphasizes the symbiotic relationship between theoretical knowledge and practice. WIL is a core form of experiential learning in contemporary higher education curricula, including internships, field-work, cooperative education, practicum, industry placement and student consultancy projects (Forde & Medows, 2011; Seweitzer & King, 1999).

Internships have become a cornerstone of WIL practice. In the 1960s the term 'internship' was almost exclusively associated with medical student practice in the United States. By the 1980s, internships were also undertaken by students studying for a variety of university majors, although participation generally remained low outside of medicine (Perlin, 2012). However, over the last two decades internship participation has rapidly increased, to a point in the United States where they are now regarded as a principle entry point into the workforce across a range of professional vocations (Perlin, 2012). Participation in internships is not isolated to just the United States, as for instance the United Kingdom, Germany, and Canada have also established practices of integrating internship-type experiences into higher education (Billett, 2011; Dessinger, 2000; Stirling et al., 2017). In East Asia it is increasingly common for university students to participate in internships prior to graduation (Liu et al., 2010; Rose, 2018b, 2020), whilst in other regions such as Australia, there are calls for increased

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student participation in internship programs to enhance vocational readiness across a range of university disciplines (Jackson & Collings, 2018; Universities Australia, 2007). From the employer's perspective internships have become a preferred means for new employee recruitment and selection in a number of post university vocations (National Association of College and Employers, 2018).

Based on current trends in internship participation, it is likely that internships will represent a vocational learning context of growing importance. Although favorable learning outcomes derived from internship participation are well established, including interpersonal communication (Beard & Morton, 1999; Beck & Halim, 2008), problem solving and critical thinking (Beck & Halim, 2008; Matthews & Zimmerman, 1999; Molseed et al., 2003), leadership (Cook et al., 2000), written communication (Knemeyer & Murphy, 2002), job related skills (Brumm et al., 2006; Gault et al., 2000; Hynie et al., 2011; Scholz et al., 2004), improved academic performance (Blair et al., 2004; English & Koeppen, 1993; Knechel & Snowball, 1987) and understanding of theoretical knowledge (Hynie et al., 2011; Mihail, 2006). Less is known regarding the individual-level predictors of these learning outcomes and the mechanisms by which these desirable learning outcomes are achieved during internships.

Given the growing significance of internships as a learning context and an intern's unique status in the workplace, the purpose of this study was to empirically investigate the mechanisms by which learning outcomes are achieved within the unique setting of internships. Namely, what is the relationship between an intern's general disposition for learning and internship learning, and how is this relationship moderated by their own perception of their qualification, relative to the tasks undertaken during their internship experience.

HYPOTHESES AND THEORY

Internships are most commonly conceptualized as an experiential learning context, and thus learning has been regarded as the focal outcome of internship research (Brooks et al., 1995; Clark, 2003; Gabris & Mitchell, 1989; Gault et al., 2000). However, there is an emerging stream of literature conceptualising internships as an opportunity for employee training, recruitment and selection setting, investigating focal variables such as intern satisfaction and intern conversion to employment (Beenen & Mrousseau, 2010; D'Abate et al., 2009; Rose, 2018a). Employee satisfaction research can theoretically be traced back to when Thorndike (1917) explored the relationship between work and satisfaction). Job satisfaction has proven to be one of the most durable constructs in workplace research (e.g., Ariani, 2012; Chen et al., 2011; DeTienne et al., 2012; Ziegler et al., 2012). Within the vocational setting of internships, links have been established between intern learning and general internship satisfaction (D'Abate et al., 2009; Rose et al., 2014).

These internship findings related to general satisfaction, are consistent with wider research where a positive relationship between workplace learning and job satisfaction has been reported (Rowden, 2002). This relationship is theoretically substantiated by assertions that work that provides a higher degree of learning opportunities develops an employee's sense of competency and self-worth (Eby et al., 1999; Hackman & Oldman, 1975; Pearson & Chong, 1997; Pierce et al., 1991). Furthermore, of particular relevance to interns, this theoretical premise is expected to be particularly true for early career employees, such as interns, who are strongly focused on developing their future careers (Doering et al., 1983; Gould, 1979), and hence place a heavy emphasis on learning opportunities which they associate with potential for career advancement during their initial career period (Ashforth & Saks, 2000; Bauer & Green, 1998; Cropanzano et al., 1993; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). For these reasons, an

intern's satisfaction at an initial stage of their career trajectory may potentially be influenced by the learning opportunities provided during their internships, leading to the following hypothesis:

> H1. Workplace learning during an internship experience has a positive relationship with internship satisfaction.

Although the linkage proposed in the preceding hypothesis has previously been empirically substantiated within WIL (D'Abate et al., 2009; Rose et al., 2014), less is known regarding how variance in an individual intern's disposition may impact internship learning and subsequently internship satisfaction. More specifically, to date, it is unknown whether an intern's general disposition for learning is transferable to the learning context of internships. Specifically, learning orientation refers to an individual's dedication to and concern for developing one's ability, knowledge, and skills (Atitumpong & Badir, 2018). This orientation is an internal mindset that motivates an individual to develop his or her competence and seek out learning opportunities (Gong & Fan, 2006; Molden & Dweck, 2000). Research suggests that a learning orientation is conducive to the acquisition of knowledge and skills across learning contexts (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Kozlowski et al., 2001). Therefore, it can be presumed that an intern with a strong learning orientation continuously searches for ways to improve their knowledge and skills within the context of an internship, and consequently will be satisfied if these desired learning outcomes are achieved. However, this presumption requires empirical substantiation, given the unique nature of an intern's status coupled with the short duration and structure of internships relative to regular workplace learning. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> H2. An intern's learning orientation has a positive relationship with workplace learning during an internship.

Participation in internships requires a transition between two distinct learning contexts namely; academic and workplace, contexts that may value different knowledge and skill sets. Given the intern's position and transient tenure in the workplace, interns may be assigned routine low-level tasks during internships (Rose, 2018a). Thus, in the juxtaposition between an intern's less practical and more theoretical academic learning, interns may perceive themselves as overqualified for the tasks performed during internship placements. Overqualification denotes a situation in which an individual's qualifications, such as education, work experience, and skills, are beyond the requirements of the job (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Maynard et al., 2006). As individuals pursue education, gain experience, and develop their knowledge and skills, they do so with the expectation that it will result in the attainment of a particular type of job; namely, one that utilizes that education, experience, knowledge, and/or skill set acquired (Rose, 2005; Vaisey, 2006). Therefore, research has devoted attention to investigating working in vocations for which one feels they are overqualified, a phenomenon, which is regarded as particularly common for new university graduates (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Vedder et al., 2013). However, little is known regarding the impact of over-qualification on the internship learning experience. This is notable, given an that individual's subjective perception of their qualification, is regarded as more significant than one's objective qualification relative to work performed (Erdogan et al., 2011). Previous work has shown perceptions of overqualification largely have a negative influence on desired workplace attitudes and behaviors (Johnson et al., 2002; Luksyte et al., 2011). Therefore, if an internship's learning experiences fail to meet an intern's expectations relative to the perceived match between their qualifications and learning, this will negatively impact attitudes associated with their internship, leading to the following hypothesis.

H3. An intern's perceived overqualification negatively moderates the relationship between their learning orientation and workplace learning, during internships.

METHODOLOGY

Data and Sample Selection

Fourth-year students from a large university in Vietnam were invited to participate in this study. Required institutional ethical review procedures were completed prior to data collection. Respondents were currently completing a 3-month internship and were on track to graduate in the year the study was conducted. The data collection process was conducted in two phases. In the phase one survey (T1), demographic data, and data on learning orientation, were collected. In the phase two survey (T2), conducted two months after phase one, data on perceived overqualification, internship learning, and internship satisfaction were collected from students who completed T1. These two phases of data collection ensured the reduction of potential for the occurrence of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

A cover letter and the questionnaire were emailed to each participant in T1. A follow-up email was sent after two weeks to remind non-respondents to complete the survey. In total, there were 1,523 valid responses in T1 (response rate 48.3%). In T2, the survey was emailed to the pool of respondents who completed the T1 survey. In total, there were 982 respondents (response rate 64.48%) completed the T2 survey. In accordance with the criteria of fully completed responses, the final sample embraced 669 respondents (response rate 21.20%). Of the respondents, 70.9% were female and the average age was 21.93 years (SD=.518).

Measures

Previously validated scales were used in this study. The main language in the survey was Vietnamese. The study followed the back-translation process to ensure the content and face validity of all the measurements (Brislin, 1970). A doctorate-qualified academic from Vietnam helped translate the questionnaire from English to Vietnamese. The comparison process of the interpretations was conducted until all errors were eliminated. To ensure the meaning and comprehensibility of the translation, a pilot test with 80 third-year students from a business school at a Vietnamese university was conducted. As a result of the pilot test, some items were reworded, refined, and changed in order for the questionnaire to be more understandable but all items were representative of the intended constructs.

The complete translation of the survey was sent to the pool of respondents. SPSS ver24 was used to produce descriptive statistics, correlations, and to run exploratory factor analyses. Structural equation modeling (SEM) approach using *AMOS ver24* (Byrne, 2016) was adopted to test the validity of the measurement model of scales and the hypotheses.

Learning Orientation

The current study adopted an eight-item scale developed by Button et al. (1996) to measure learning orientation. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they agree or disagree with statements demonstrating their learning orientation behaviors on a seven-point Likert scale, from '1' = strongly disagree to '7' = strongly agree. Sample items included, 'The opportunity to learn new things is

important to me.' Overall, the scale of learning orientation had a composite reliability coefficient of 0.91 and an average variance extracted (AVE) value of 0.58.

Perceived Over Qualification

A nine-item scale from Maynard et al. (2006) was adopted to measure the level of perceived overqualification. Respondents were asked to indicate their evaluation in relation to the relationship between the requirements of internship duties and the qualification they have been trained in the university on a seven-point Likert scale, from '1' = strongly disagree to '7' = strongly agree. Sample items included, 'I have more abilities than I need in order to do my internship work.' This scale comprised six items that had a composite reliability coefficient of 0.89 and an AVE value of 0.57.

Internship Learning

The study used a seven-item scale developed by Beenen and Mrousseau (2010) to measure the perceptions of internship learning. Respondents were asked to indicate their opinions about what they learnt from the internship on a seven-point Likert scale, from '1' = strongly disagree to '7' = strongly agree. Sample items included, 'During my internship, I developed my interpersonal skills.' This scale had a composite reliability coefficient of 0.91 and an AVE value of 0.62.

Internship Satisfaction

This study utilized a three-item scale of internship satisfaction developed by D'Abate et al. (2009) to measure respondents' satisfaction levels with their internship. Sample items included, 'I was very satisfied with my internship.' Respondents were asked to answer the questions on a seven-point Likert scale, from '1' = strongly disagree to '7' = strongly agree. This scale had a composite reliability coefficient of 0.88 and an AVE value of 0.70.

Control Variables

This study controlled for age, sex, majors of study, company industry, and ownership types.

RESULTS

Measurement Model Estimation

Structure equation modeling was used to check the estimation of the measurement model. The analysis followed the two-step approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the scales, and the goodness of fit of the measurement model. The values of AVE of four perceptual constructs that were above the cut-off value of 0.5 (Hair et al., 1998), indicated that each of these four constructs had convergent validity. In the estimation of the measurement parts of the model, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) was undertaken. The CFAs for the four scales showed that each met the minimum fit indices as recommended. In addition, the analysis of the hypothesized five-factor measurement model showed a good fit to the data (χ^2/df = 1.729, CFI= 0.99, TLI= 0.98, RMSEA= 0.03, SRMR= 0.03) (see Byrne, 2016).

Two tests were conducted to check the discriminant validity of the four subjective measurements. Firstly, the study's analysis followed Fornell and Larcker's (1981) approach to evaluate the discriminant validity of these four measurements. The square root of the AVE for each construct was much larger than its correlation with any other construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (Table 2). These results showed

that the discriminant validity of the four scales was established. Second, a Chi-square test was undertaken to compare the hypothesized model with alternative measurement models (see Table 1). For instance, Model 1 had a significantly better fit to the data than Model 2 ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 876.938$, $p < 0.001$). Simultaneously, Model 1 showed a better fit to the data than Model 3 ($\Delta\chi^2(8) = 2{,}186.638$, $p < 0.001$). Results of comparisons between Model 1 and the remaining alternative models showed that the hypothesized five-factor measurement model noticeably provided the best fit to the data and confirmed the discriminant validity of the five constructs.

Common Method Variance

Two tests were undertaken for the checking of common method bias as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003). First, Harman's single factor test showed that four factors emerged with values of more than 1, accounting for 70.5% of the variance in the exogenous and endogenous constructs. Second, a marker variable as social desirability scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) was included in the proposed model as this scale has to be unrelated to one or all constructs in the model. The study followed Lindell and Whitney (2001) to compare the difference in correlations of all constructs between before and after including the marker variable. The result was 0.027, indicating that the correlations of exogenous constructs with the endogenous variable cannot be accounted for by the marker variable (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Next the study used a *t*-test of mean difference to compare the correlations of the model including the marker variable and the one without the marker variable. The *p*-value for this *t*-test is large at 0.871, which is above the standard cut-off value of 0.05. This result indicated that there was no difference between the two models. Altogether, these two tests showed that there was a low risk of common method bias in the dataset. Therefore, common method bias was not a major issue in this study.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations, composite reliability coefficients, AVE values, and zero-order Pearson correlations of the five constructs.

Tests of Hypotheses

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the hypothesized model. Control variables were included in testing hypotheses. The findings showed that study major was negatively and significantly associated with perceived over qualification ($\beta = -0.10$, $p < 0.05$). Gender was found to have a positively significant association with perceived overqualification ($\beta = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$) and internship learning ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$). Company industry was found to be negatively and significantly associated with perceived overqualification ($\beta = -0.16$, $p < 0.001$). Internship duration and ownership type of internship company were found to have a positive and significant association with internship learning (respectively, $\beta_1 = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_2 = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$).

The path analysis procedure showed that the model had a goodness of fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.44$, CFI= 0.99, TLI= 0.98, RMSEA= 0.03, SRMR= 0.034) and these positive fit indices satisfied the cutoff criteria for fit indexes (Byrne, 2016; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The path analysis showed the hypotheses were supported. Hypothesis 1 was supported, as the relationship between internship learning and internship satisfaction was found to be positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.77$, $p < 0.001$) whilst the relationship between internship learning orientation and internship learning proposed in hypothesis 2 was also found to be statistically significant ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.001$). Perceived overqualification was found to be negatively and significantly associated with internship learning ($\beta = -0.21$, $p < 0.001$).

TABLE 1: Comparison of fit indexes

		λ^2	df	λ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\triangle\lambda^2$(df)
Model 1	Full model	345.762	200	1.729	0.986	0.982	0.034	0.0328	-
Model 2	4-factor model (Learning orientation, Perceived over qualification + Internship learning, Internship satisfaction)	1222.7	205	5.964	0.900	0.877	0.086	0.1151	$\triangle\lambda^2(5) = 876.938$ $p < 0.001$
Model 3	3-factor model (Learning orientation + Perceived over qualification + Internship learning, Internship satisfaction)	2532.4	208	12.175	0.772	0.723	0.129	0.1701	$\triangle\lambda^2(8) = 2186.638$ $p < 0.001$
Model 4	2-factor model (Learning orientation + Perceived over qualification + Internship learning, Internship satisfaction)	2534.64	209	12.127	0.772	0.724	0.129	0.1702	$\triangle\lambda^2(9) = 2188.878$ $p < 0.001$
Model 5	Single factor model	2882.35	210	13.725	0.738	0.684	0.138	0.1733	$\triangle\lambda^2(10) = 2536.588$ $p < 0.001$

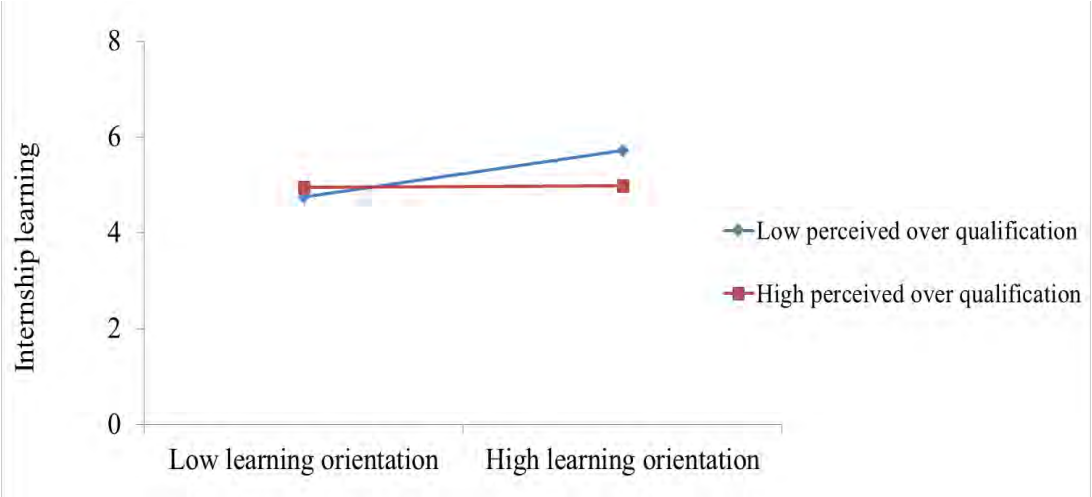
TABLE 2: Descriptive statistics and zero-order Pearson correlations of measurements.

	Mean	SD	CR	AVE	Learning Orientation	Perceived Over Qualification	Internship Learning	Internship Satisfaction
	7.59	0.43	-	-				
Learning orientation	5.58	0.87	0.91	0.58	1 (.91)			
Perceived over qualification	3.30	1.03	0.89	0.57	0.10*	1 (.89)		
Internship learning	4.12	0.90	0.91	0.62	0.28***	-0.24***	1 (.91)	
Internship satisfaction	4.50	1.14	0.88	0.70	0.23***	-0.21***	0.83***	1 (.88)

Note: *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.0$ Cronbach alphas are reported on the diagonal in brackets

In regards to testing the moderated hypothesis PROCESS macro (model 1, Hayes, 2013) was used to test the interaction effect of learning orientation and perceived overqualification on internship learning (see Figure 1). A 95% confidence interval based on 10,000 bootstrap samples did not include zero indicated definitive evidence of the interaction effect as hypothesized. In other words, perceived overqualification negatively moderated the relationship between learning orientation and internship learning ($\beta = -.23$, $p < 0.001$), as shown in Figure 1 supporting hypothesis 3 and asserting the moderating role of perceived overqualification.

FIGURE 1: Moderation effect of perceived overqualification.



DISCUSSION

Implications for Theory

The results of this study empirically substantiate the transferability of an intern's general orientation for learning to the unique vocational learning context of internships, which in turn was shown to have an impact on general internship satisfaction. These linkages have a number of notable implications. Firstly, the results of this study support the conceptualization of internships as an opportunity for experiential learning, aimed at bridging the gap between classroom learning and the workplace, prior to entering the employment market (Clark, 2003; Gault et al., 2000). However, this finding goes beyond the results of previous studies which, investigated intern learning as the ultimate outcome of internships, by evidencing the predictive role of learning on internship satisfaction, via intern perceived overqualification, as an explanatory mechanism.

Empirically, substantiating the causal link between internship learning and internship satisfaction supports previous work within the context of internships (D'Abate et al., 2009; Rose et al., 2014). As these two studies used the same measures, this is one of the few theoretical relationships that has been replicated in a number of internship studies. Thus, by extension providing strengthened empirical support for the applicability of wider workplace and vocational theories to internships, specifically those which assert the link between the intrinsically motivating characteristics of work associated with learning and job satisfaction (Choo & Bowley, 2007; Eby et al., 1999; Hackman & Oldman, 1975). In addition, this finding also establishes a parallel between interns and other early-career employees who

are known to place a heightened value on learning opportunities when determining their job satisfaction (Bauer & Green, 1998; Wright & Bonett, 2007).

The results regarding perceived overqualification in the hypothesized model make a distinct theoretical contribution by evidencing that interns who perceive themselves to be in possession of a surplus of skills will experience a decline in learning and satisfaction during their internship, despite having a strong learning orientation. This interaction effect has numerous broader implications, firstly by adding interns to the body of literature asserting the negative impact of perceived overqualification across employee categories (Wright & Bonett, 2002). Furthermore, the moderated relationship detected echoes findings in other vocational contexts, asserting that one's perception or overqualification rather than the reality of an individual's actual qualification for a given vocational task, is the primary psychological mechanism impacting relevant attitudes and behaviors (Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013). This theoretical mechanism has wider implications for the vocational literature, given the global phenomena of increasing educational levels which in many cases have outpaced opportunities for graduates to utilize these higher levels of qualifications in the workplace (McKee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011; Vedder et al., 2013). By extension of specific relevance to the WIL literature, students are also increasingly likely to end up in vocational placements that do not match their educational qualifications.

Implications for Practice

The study has a number of timely implications for practice for key stakeholders involved in WIL programs. Particularly for host organizations, given that they possess considerable discretion regarding designing internship programs and constituent work performed by interns. For instance, it would be advantageous to incorporate more challenging assignments within internships to mitigate the negative impact of perceived overqualification, allowing internships to be better leveraged as a means to attract, train, recruit and retain future generations of talented employees. This is particularly important as internship satisfaction has been shown to be a perquisite condition for successfully converting interns into post internship employees within a host organisation (Beenen & Mrousseau, 2010; Resick et al., 2007; Zhao & Liden, 2011).

From a higher education stakeholder's perspective, the findings provide guidance for enhancing the effectiveness of internships as a transitional learning experience from university study into the world of work. Given the detrimental effect of perceived overqualification on internship outcomes, those responsible for internships in universities should incorporate content into pre-internship inductions, aimed at better aligning an intern's beliefs regarding their own qualifications and the relative type of skills they will likely utilize during their WIL experience. Furthermore, post-internship debriefs could also be utilized to better calibrate any disjuncture between an intern's beliefs regarding their qualifications and the skill sets required of them in the workplace.

Future Research

The findings of this study highlight a number of potential fruitful avenues for future research which could enhance understanding of perceived overqualification within the distinct learning context of internships. Given perceived overqualification is a multidimensional construct, it remains unknown which specific psychological construct underpins its role in shaping internship outcomes. Therefore, future work could apply theoretical perspectives such as relative deprivation theory; (Feldman et al., 1997), person-environment fit (Schneider, 2001), or organizational justice (Greenberg, 1990), to deepen our understanding of perceived overqualification across learning and vocational contexts. Furthermore, additional work is required to examine the boundary conditions which may have

impacted the findings of this research. Specifically, this study was conducted in the Vietnamese cultural context, hence further work is required to establish the generalizability of findings across global work-integrated learning contexts.

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About the Journal

The International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning (IJWIL) publishes double-blind peer-reviewed original research and topical issues related to Work-Integrated Learning (WIL). IJWIL first published in 2000 under the name of Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education (APJCE).

In this Journal, WIL is defined as " *An educational approach involving three parties – the student, educational institution, and an external stakeholder – consisting of authentic work-focused experiences as an intentional component of the curriculum. Students learn through active engagement in purposeful work tasks, which enable the integration of theory with meaningful practice that is relevant to the students' discipline of study and/or professional development"* (Zegwaard et al., 2023, p. 38*). Examples of practice include off-campus workplace immersion activities such as work placements, internships, practicum, service learning, and cooperative education (co-op), and on-campus activities such as work-related projects/competitions, entrepreneurships, student-led enterprise, student consultancies, etc. WIL is related to, and overlaps with, the fields of experiential learning, work-based learning, and vocational education and training.

The Journal's aim is to enable specialists working in WIL to disseminate research findings and share knowledge to the benefit of institutions, students, WIL practitioners, curricular designers, and researchers. The Journal encourages quality research and explorative critical discussion that leads to the advancement of quality practices, development of further understanding of WIL, and promote further research.

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Types of Manuscripts Sought by the Journal

Types of manuscripts sought by IJWIL is of two forms: 1) *research publications* describing research into aspects of work-integrated learning and, 2) *topical discussion* articles that review relevant literature and provide critical explorative discussion around a topical issue. The journal will, on occasions, consider good practice submissions.

Research publications should contain; an introduction that describes relevant literature and sets the context of the inquiry. A detailed description and justification for the methodology employed. A description of the research findings - tabulated as appropriate, a discussion of the importance of the findings including their significance to current established literature, implications for practitioners and researchers, whilst remaining mindful of the limitations of the data, and a conclusion preferably including suggestions for further research.

Topical discussion articles should contain a clear statement of the topic or issue under discussion, reference to relevant literature, critical and scholarly discussion on the importance of the issues, critical insights to how to advance the issue further, and implications for other researchers and practitioners.

Good practice and program description papers. On occasions, the Journal seeks manuscripts describing a practice of WIL as an example of good practice, however, only if it presents a particularly unique or innovative practice or was situated in an unusual context. There must be a clear contribution of new knowledge to the established literature. Manuscripts describing what is essentially 'typical', 'common' or 'known' practices will be encouraged to rewrite the focus of the manuscript to a significant educational issue or will be encouraged to publish their work via another avenue that seeks such content.

By negotiation with the Editor-in-Chief, the Journal also accepts a small number of *Book Reviews* of relevant and recently published books.

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