LEARNING FOR THE FUTURE, EARNING FOR NOW: STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES OF THE WORK-STUDY PROGRAMME AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Refilee Moratuoa Cynthia Mohlakoana

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Educationis (M.Ed.) in the Higher Education Masters in Africa programme, Institute for Post-School Studies, University of the Western Cape

February 2015

Supervisors:
Dr Gerald Wangenge-Ouma and Dr Thierry Luescher-Mamashela
KEYWORDS

Higher education
Student experience
Part-time employment
Full-time study
Students coping strategies
Student funding
Campus employment
Work-study programme
University of the Western Cape
ABSTRACT

Learning for the future, earning for now:
Students’ experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape

R.M. Mohlakoana

February 2015

This study does an in-depth exploration of how students experience full-time study and part-time employment, focusing on participants in the work-study programme of the University of the Western Cape. By means of the work-study programme, the university provides on-campus term-work opportunities for students in teaching, research, administration and other support services. In particular this study looks at: the reasons why students partake in the work-study programme and the benefits they gain; the type of work that students do; how demanding the work is; the number of hours they work; and the way this impacts on students’ experience of higher education. It further looks at the kinds of challenges students face while participating in the work-study programme and the strategies that they use in order to balance working and studying.

Student employment is not a new phenomenon but there is limited knowledge available on the students’ experiences of campus employment. According to Metcalf (2003:316), research into part-time work of full-time students is important because of the “potential impact [of term-work] on the nature and effectiveness of higher education and equality of provision of higher education”. Existing research shows that students who take part in part-time work are as diverse as the situations that compel them to work and study. It further highlights that students of all genders, ages and class have been observed as taking part in part-time work while pursuing full-time studies. Moreover, there are diverse reasons why students take part in term-work: to pay tuition fees and for their subsistence; to maintain their lifestyle; or to gain work experience. The literature also shows that students experience various challenges because of term-work, mainly due to their multiple time commitments. The effect is that working students may find it difficult to meet academic demands and succeed at the same level as non-working students.
As a way of studying student experiences on the UWC work-study programme, this study will use quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection by means of a two-stage methodology. The first stage will involve an electronic survey that will provide baseline data on the students in the programme. This stage lays the ground for the second, qualitative stage of the methodology where the researcher will conduct in-depth interviews with some students involved in the programme.

The findings show that students’ reasons for participating in the work-study programme are not necessarily about addressing their financial needs, but also about gaining work experience which puts them a step ahead of their peers. Students from the work-study programme worked varying hours. The number of hours was influenced by students’ classes, and also by the number of hours they were allowed to work, as the work timetable is designed around their academic work. The challenges that students experienced were both positive and negative, depending on their personal situation. Furthermore, the students reported many ways of coping and balancing working, studying and maintaining a social life. In terms of benefits, students indicated that they thought that both the students and the university were benefiting from the work-study programme. After the data was collected, analysed and discussed, a student experience typology in relation to the students on the programme was created.

The empirical findings in this study provide a new understanding concerning students who are employed on campus. The study found that students, depending on various variables, were finding ways to manage academic demands, social lives and working part-time on campus. Taken together, the findings suggest an added role for work-study programmes in enhancing students’ university experience.

February 2015
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that Learning for the future, earning for now: Students’ experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape is my own work; and has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any university. I further declare that other sources used or quoted in this work have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Signed: Refiloe Moratuoa Cynthia Mohlakoana
Date: 24 February 2015
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When I started this journey, had I known where it would take me, I would probably have stayed right where I was, none the wiser. It has been a painful, fun and sometimes weird journey. Now that it has come to end, I am grateful that it’s over. Deciding to take up a postgraduate study is not a decision to make alone. It involves a lot of people who made sacrifices for me to be here today. I am forever grateful; this thesis is more theirs than it is mine.

I am grateful to God Almighty who has been my source of strength, who kept me going when I could not even see the next day, who also brought me friends, relatives and close family members who stood by me. I am the luckiest and most blessed girl in the world. I have a mother who has never seen me as anything but an achiever; Mama, thank you for wiping tears when I cried, thank you for talking to me and telling me that I could do it.

To the rest of my family, I am grateful for the sacrifices you made for me. I would not change you for anything in this world.

I am deeply indebted to my supervisor, Dr. Thierry Luescher-Mamashela, who served as both a supervisor and my sounding board. Sir, I am truly going to miss our supervision meetings and your ability to push me to produce the best work. The road has been long but well worth it.

Similarly, I am grateful to Dr. Gerald Ouma, who offered me numerous academic insights and professional guidance through the course of my graduate school adventure. Together these two men managed to create a nurturing community at the University of the Western Cape. Being part of the HEMA 2010 class has been an honour. We met as strangers and, for some, we part as friends. I consider us the BEST CLASS OF HEMA programme. I also wish you well as we part ways to fulfil our mandate concerning higher education in Africa.

I will forever be grateful to a number of institutions which were vital to the successful completion of this thesis. These include the Faculty of Education at the University of the Western Cape for hosting me during the study period; the Norwegian Agency for
Development Cooperation (NORAD) for funding the research via the NOMA programme; the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET), Cape Town, for academic material and moral support; the University of Oslo for hosting me during the three months exchange programme; and the key people who are based at the Centre for the Study of Higher Education, UWC, for relevant literature support and for serving as my place of study at all times.

Lastly I want to thank my friends, who constantly supported me. Thank you for your prayers, some of you even made me part of your families. Thank you for remaining with me, especially when I did not have time to spare. You ladies were a Godsend to me.

Ntate Khoboli ke ea leboha

Ke ea leboha, Ntate Molimo a le e tse hantle.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

KEYWORDS .................................................................................................................................. ii
ABSTRACT ................................................................................................................................... iii
DECLARATION ............................................................................................................................... v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ............................................................................................................... vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS .................................................................................................................. viii
LIST OF FIGURES ........................................................................................................................ xi
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS ............................................................................................... xiii
CHAPTER ONE .............................................................................................................................. 1
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY ................................................................................................. 1
1.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................................... 1
1.2 The UWC work-study programme ................................................................................................. 4
1.4 Problem statement ................................................................................................................................. 5
1.5 Research questions ............................................................................................................................... 6
1.6 Rationale and significance of the study .......................................................................................... 7
1.7 Delimitation of research ....................................................................................................................... 8
1.8 Organisation of the thesis ........................................................................................................................ 8

CHAPTER TWO ........................................................................................................................... 10
LITERATURE REVIEW .................................................................................................................. 10
2.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................................ 10
2.2 Profile of work-study students ............................................................................................................. 11
2.3 Reasons for working .............................................................................................................................. 12
2.4 How many hours do students work? .................................................................................................. 15
2.5 What type of work do students do and where are they employed? ........................................ 17
2.6 Challenges experienced by working students .................................................................................. 18
2.7 Coping strategies and different responses to student employment by employers and institutions of higher learning ........................................................................................................ 21
2.8 Who benefits from students working? .............................................................................................. 23
2.9 Conclusion ........................................................................................................................................................... 25

CHAPTER 3 ................................................................................................................................ . 27
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ..................................................................................................... 27
3.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................................ 27
3.2 Motivational Conflict theory ............................................................................................................. 27
3.3 Future Time Perspective theory ......................................................................................................... 30
3.4 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs theory .................................................................................................... 30
5.3.9 The positive effects that work-study has on students ............................................................ 82
5.3.10 The time for participating in work-study programme ............................................................ 83
5.3.11 The number of hours that participants spend on the work-study programme per week .......... 83
5.3.12 The amount of money students earn per hour ....................................................................... 87
5.3.13 The fairness of the payment as considered by participants ................................................... 88
5.3.14 Who do you think benefits more from the work-study programme? .................................... 90
5.3.15 The students’ perception of the degree of difficulty of the work they do for work-study ...... 93
5.3.16 The different kinds of challenges that participants face due to taking part in the work-study programme .............................................................................................................................................. 94
5.3.17 The strategies students use to balance working, studying, and social life ............................. 98
5.3.18 The awareness of lecturers that students are on the work-study programme .................... 103
5.3.19 Does working have an impact on your studies? ................................................................... 104

5.4 Analysis of overall finding ........................................................................................................... 108
5.4.1 Typology of student experience ............................................................................................ 111

CHAPTER SIX ........................................................................................................................................... 116

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .................................................................................. 116
6.1 Introduction........................................................................................................................................ 116
6.2 Discussion......................................................................................................................................... 116
6.2.1 Students’ reasons for taking part in work-study programmes ............................................. 117
6.2.2 Students benefits from the work-study programme ............................................................ 117
6.2.3 The challenges that student involved with the work-study programme face ...................... 118
6.2.4 Students’ strategies of balancing work and academic work ............................................... 119
6.2.5 Typology of students’ experience of the work-study programme ........................................ 120
6.3 Recommendations .......................................................................................................................... 120
6.4 Limitation of the study .................................................................................................................... 121
6.5 Conclusion ....................................................................................................................................... 121

REFERENCES .............................................................................................................................................. 123

APPENDIX 1: Permission to conduct research at UWC ............................................................... 133

APPENDIX 2: Letter from my supervisor and ethical clearance ................................................... 135

APPENDIX 3: Information sheet ........................................................................................................ 137

APPENDIX 4: Informed Consent form .......................................................................................... 139

APPENDIX 5: Interview Guide .......................................................................................................... 140

APPENDIX 6: Respondent Contact Sheet ..................................................................................... 142

APPENDIX 7: Conceptual Map to the Survey Questionnaire ....................................................... 143
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs ................................................................. 34  
Figure 2: Hierarchy of needs changes in college/university (Wu, 2012:1336) ....... 36  
Figure 3: Theoretical implication for a university student .................................. 36

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Quantitative enrolments statistics of students in SAHE from 2008-2012 .......... 68  
Table 2: Age category of respondents .................................................................. 67  
Table 3: Countries of origin of respondents .......................................................... 68  
Table 4: Faculties in which respondents indicated they were enrolled .................. 68  
Table 5: Whether students were registered at the UWC at the time of the study ....... 69  
Table 6: Place of residence during studying .......................................................... 69  
Table 7: The period of involvement in the work-study programme ......................... 70  
Table 8: Participants taking part in work other than work-study programme .......... 70  
Table 9: Type of work done in the work-study programme .................................... 71  
Table 10: The reasons for participating in the work-study programme .................... 72  
Table 11: The people who provide support either practically or personally to students .... 78  
Table 12: Other forms of support ........................................................................ 79  
Table 13: The important things to participants ...................................................... 79  
Table 14: The negative effects that work-study has on participants and their studies ....... 80  
Table 15: The positive effects that work-study has on students ............................. 81  
Table 16: Day shifts that students work during the week ....................................... 81  
Table 17: The number of hours a participant spends on the work-study programme per week......... 82  
Table 18: The hourly rate participants earn per hour .............................................. 86  
Table 19: The fairness of payment as considered by the participants ...................... 87  
Table 20: Who do you think benfits most in the work-study programme? ............... 89  
Table 21: The students’ perception of the degree of difficulty of the work they do for work-study programme ......................................................................................... 92  
Table 22: The challenges students’ experience because they are in the work-study programme .... 93  
Table 23: The coping strategies students use to balance working, studying, and social life .... 97
Table 24: The awareness of lecturers and university staff are in the work-study programme ........ 102
Table 25: Does working have an impact on your studies? ........................................................................ 103
Table 26: Typology of students’ experiences based on study data ................................................................. 111
### ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSAQ</td>
<td>Computerised self-administrated questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EIHASD</td>
<td>East African Institute of Higher Education Studies and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA</td>
<td>Grade Point Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEMA</td>
<td>Higher Education Masters programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEIs</td>
<td>Higher Education Institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HTML</td>
<td>Hyper Text Mark-up Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICS</td>
<td>Information and Communication Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSFAS</td>
<td>National Student Financial Aid Scheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWC</td>
<td>University of the Western Cape</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

According to the White Paper for post-school education and training (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2013:8), some of the key resolutions of the post-school system is to prepare students and citizens of South Africa for the labour market; to empower individuals to earn supportable livelihoods through self-employment; to start a business or cooperative. The South African government’s aim is that everyone should be able to create a living for themselves and their families and add expertise to a developing economy.

In order for the above to be accomplished, the Department of Education, in 2001, indicated that higher education institutions must contribute towards the development of South African society by providing the skills needed for economic development (Department of Education, 1997). This is done through training and development of those students who meet the minimum requirements for specific courses.

Now, while the higher education institutions are ready to meet and train students, there still exist a few challenges in regard to access, participation and persistence in South African higher education, one of the key challenges being the financial difficulties experienced by many students. Due to the cost-sharing policy in South African higher education, students are expected to pay fees. Unfortunately, many students cannot afford the fees charged, and the existing student funding opportunities, mainly the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), are unable to meet the existing demand (Wangenge-Ouma, 2013). The inadequate funding for student aid leaves many university students (and parents) with the task of finding alternative ways to fund their studies.
With growing numbers of university students from disadvantaged backgrounds in South Africa pursuing higher education, finding employment while registered full-time is considered one of the strategies that most of the students seem to opt for (Letseka et al., 2010). Hence some universities had to find ways of supporting these students to partly meet their financial requirements by creating work-study programmes that would help students financially and also provide certain skills.

According to Wangenge-Ouma (2013:63), funding related issues “are intricately linked with issues of accessibility”. He further points out that some of the funding challenges in higher education have to do with inequalities within higher education, and that some of the factors are the “historical considerations, unequal access to critical infrastructure and resources that provide opportunity, the mediocrity of the school system, and financial difficulties that put education out of the reach of many” (Wangenge-Ouma, 2013).

Wangenge-Ouma (2013:3) points out that a coming together of the different challenges, especially funding, has ensured that the majority of students who were previously side-lined remain marginalised, even under the new dispensation. The South African government seeks to redress past inequalities and to transform the higher education system to serve a new social order, to meet pressing national needs, and to respond to new realities and opportunities.

The *Education White Paper 3* (Department of Education, 1997:10) provides goals on how universities can address the issue of funding. It encourages universities to promote and develop social responsibility and awareness amongst students of the role of higher education in social and economic development through community service programmes, such as the work-study programme. These programmes are based on financial need, affordability, sustainability and shared funding costs, and in the support of the goals of the national higher education plan.
One cannot deny the importance of higher education, with emphasis on funding and student access. However, it is also important to note that in South Africa there is a great demand for higher education, as it contributes towards personal sustainable income, and both personal and national development. The financially challenged students are those who come from low or no income families, which means, if admitted to university, they will rely on state funding for tuition, social spending and living costs (Wangenge-Ouma, 2013).

In terms of institutional response, Lowe and Gayle (2007:234) argue that there needs to be institutional change “…to support a successful work/life/study balance (for students who work)”. Though these authors realise the importance of institutional support, they do not delve deeper into how this can be done. However, the idea one gets from the above observation is that internal reforms in institutions of higher learning have to take place in order to accommodate the students who are studying and working at the same time. This view is shared by Cheng and Alcantara (2007) and by Little (2002), whose research papers are further discussed in the literature review chapter.

Student employment has been designed to help students financially, but it affects them differently as they try to meet their expectations with institutions of higher education. Robbins (2010), in his study, points out that student employment affects parents or guardians, the employers, institutions of higher education and the students themselves. Robbins (2010) describes issues of student employment as being those of labour systems that are regarded as exempted from “the industrial relations system”. This could also be understood as an indication that students find themselves working in a system that is not guided by policies or laws.

Because student employment affects other parties, they are not the only ones who need to have coping skills. Institutions of higher learning also find themselves having to accommodate students who work. Employers who employ students need to also find ways of supporting employed students as they may need to take a day off to either study, write exams or attend class. This could be taken as a reason for developing campus-based
programmes such as the work-study programmes at the University of the Western Cape. This is one of the many reasons why the author’s study focuses on South Africa, specifically UWC.

It should be noted that research into student life shows that there is more to students than just studying; when Robbins (2010) shares a picture of what student life is like, he argues that student life is not simply about books, but is about learning and experiencing things beyond the curriculum. He points out that one of the general experiences of university students has been learning to survive with tight budgets and being conscious about the quality of life. He points out that one of the common experiences has been students engaging in an assortment of part-time jobs which, for the most part, are low-paid and undemanding on them. More often than not, the jobs have little to do with students’ ultimate vocation dreams.

While it is no secret that student employment is on the increase for students who are pursuing higher education, most studies that are discussed in the literature review point out that it is very important to understand the overall student experiences. Callender (2008), Wenz and Yu (2010) and Beerkens, Mägi and Lill (2010), in their studies, shed light on reasons why it is important that the student employment experience is investigated. In order to help these institutions improve their work-study programmes, it is important to understand the challenges that students involved in these programmes face. The studies on university students who are working are further discussed in detail in the following chapter. The next section focuses on the work-study programme in UWC.

1.2 The UWC work-study programme

The University of the Western Cape (UWC) is a public university based in the Western Cape Province. UWC was established in 1960 by the South African government as a university for people classified under apartheid as coloured or of mixed race. In 2011 the university had a student population of about 18431. Due to poverty levels of surrounding areas from which the university draws its students, inability to pay fees has been a challenge for many years at
This university (Mestry & Ndhlovu, 2014). Hence the idea of a work-study programme was envisioned in order to address the students’ inability to pay their fees.

This University of the Western Cape, like many other universities in South Africa, also had to find ways of dealing with funding issues and increasing student participation. In order for the university to redress the issue of access and inequality in 1990, the Desmond Tutu Foundation and the vice chancellor of that time came up with the concept of work-study programmes.

The work-study programme can be considered to be a response to the Education White Paper 3 (Department of Education, 1997) and the National Planning Commission (2011) of South Africa because, according to the draft, financial aid and work-study programme policy from the University of the Western Cape, “It is committed to promoting equity and access to education for students who have potential to succeed but not the financial means, and in doing so to contribute to redressing the historical imbalances of the past” (Financial aid and work-study policy, p. 3). The programme redresses inequality by giving students the opportunity to stay in the university system and complete their studies. One can consider the work-study as a funding tool that can be used to make sure that students access higher education.

### 1.4 Problem statement

Table 1 shows the enrolment statistics of students in higher education in South Africa. The numbers show that student enrolment has steadily grown through the years. It grew from 799 490 in 1998 to 953 373 in 2012.

**Table 1: Quantitative enrolments statistics of students in higher education in South Africa from 2008-2012**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Period) Years</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public HEIs</td>
<td>799 490</td>
<td>837 776</td>
<td>892 936</td>
<td>938 201</td>
<td>953 373</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Department of Higher Education and Training (2014)*
Though the numbers have steadily increased, according to Wangenge-Ouma (2013:63), “A recent analysis shows that only 45.6% of the undergraduate cohort that entered the tertiary system in 2004 graduated in 2009; 40.3% had dropped out while the remaining 14.1% were still studying towards obtaining their qualifications”. This is very low compared with Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries average of 84% in 2009 (OECD, 2014). There are different reasons for these students to drop out; these include lack of performance and not being able to meet their financial needs. In order to meet their financial needs some students get involved in a work-study programme which could affect their academic performance. The problem has been that there is very little known about university students’ experiences of the work-study programme and how they balance their academic study with their work. The understanding of challenges faced by students taking part in a work-study programme would provide a basis for universities to establish a support mechanism for them.

1.5 Research questions

The study’s primary research question is: What are students’ experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape, and how do they balance working part-time, studying and maintaining a social life?

The main research question was broken down into sub-questions and hence the study was designed to gather data to answer the following sub-questions:

- Why do students take part in the work-study programme?
- What are the benefits of taking part in the work-study programme?
- What are the challenges that students taking part in the work-study programme face?
- How do students balance working part-time, studying and maintaining a social life?
- What are students’ experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape?
1.6 Rationale and significance of the study

This study has been motivated by a number of reasons. Firstly, university students’ part-time work is still an under-researched area in higher education. As part-time work has become a norm for full-time university students (Manthei & Gilmore, 2005; Robotham, 2009), there have been concerns about students’ participation and its impact on their student experience. This study responds directly to recommendations for further research in higher education concerning student employment, made by Walters and Koetsier (2006). Moreover, as Metcalf (2003:316) points out, such research is “important because of its potential impact on the nature and effectiveness of higher education and equality of provision of higher education.”

Beerkens, Mägi and Lill (2010:680) give important reasons why studies on student employment should be conducted. They suggest that “employment patterns among students are an important policy issue for institutions of higher education and students taking up employment maybe an indication of a frail monetary aid system.” Secondly, “there may be a negative correlation between time spent on working and time invested in studying.”

Understanding the dynamics of students’ employment during their university study period would help different institutions to formulate strategies that would support students, hence reduce the number of those who might drop out due to financial challenges.

As a result, an in-depth study of the experiences of full-time students who were enrolled at the University of the Western Cape and were also taking part in the work-study programme during 2011 was deemed necessary. Hence it was conducted in order to add to the body of knowledge about students who are working part-time on university campuses in South Africa.
1.7 Delimitation of research

The scope and focus of the study was limited in gaining an in-depth understanding of the experiences of students who were in the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape (UWC) during the year 2011. The reason why the researcher undertook this study was to highlight the role that the work-study programme plays on students and to understand how students work, study and maintain a social life.

Conceptually, the scope of this study has been limited to a number of indicators carefully selected from the literature. The indicators include: the reasons why students partake in the work-study programme; the type, extent and intensity of student employment; challenges and strategies that students experience while participating in the work-study programme; the strategies that students use to balance working and studying; and students’ perceptions of how they gain or lose out from participating in the programme.

Methodologically, this study pragmatically departs from similar studies on this topic. Most of the previous studies have been heavily quantitative in nature (Warren, 2002). This study, in contrast, combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches, with both methods used to enhance the understanding of students’ experiences and help answer the research questions. Furthermore the study intends to learn from students’ work experiences. The study confines its area of research to the University of the Western Cape, focusing on its work-study programme.

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

The thesis is divided into six chapters. The first chapter serves as an introduction to the study. Preliminary issues are presented in this chapter in order to provide an overview of the main research question, the aims of the study, its rationale and delimitation.

The second chapter presents a review of scholarly literature related to student employment while students are studying full-time. The literature review specifically looks at (1) which students are working? (2) reasons why they are working; (3) how many hours the students
typically work? (4) what type of work they do and where they are employed? (5) challenges experienced by working students; (6) coping strategies employed by students and different responses to student employment by employers and institutions of higher learning; and (7) who benefits from students working? (8) Lastly, the literature review looks at the research methodologies that were used in previous studies

The third chapter presents the conceptual framework of the study, while the fourth chapter describes the research design and methodology.

Chapter Four provides a detailed description and justification of the research design and methodology, the instruments and methods used in the data collection process and the indicators which were used to analyse data.

Chapter Five presents the data that was collected and the analysis of this data. The data is presented in the form of graphs, tables and vignettes, and is discussed in an integrated way. The chapter does not only present the findings from the study, but it also shows how the findings of the study compare to those of other studies.

Chapter Six concludes the dissertation by providing a summary of all the chapters in the thesis.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter One served as an introduction to the study; it provided a brief summary of the whole study by outlining South African higher education with emphasis on the University of the Western Cape. The chapter also drew attention to the different types of work-study programmes around the world. The research questions, aim and objectives were also discussed and a rationale that gave justifications for this study was highlighted.

In this chapter, a review of selected literature that is relevant to the current study is presented. The review focuses mainly on full-time students who work part-time. The study benefited from the relevant literature by providing us with solid foundation of knowledge in the full-time studying and part-time working. It helped provide the direction this study should take. This chapter covers literature that deals with general student employment, students who are employed on campus and those employed on work-study programmes.

The literature review provides a representation of which students are more likely to work, the reasons why they work, the challenges they face and how they balance working, studying and maintaining a social life. It further provides the researcher’s study with a base from which the study refers and departs. It highlights the impact of student employment on the academic attainment of students. The literature review sheds light on the complex but interesting relationship between students’ experiences and part-time employment. Nonetheless, the review of scholarly literature reveals a complex and, at times contradictory, empirical puzzle regarding the impact of the relationship that exists between part-time employment students and on students higher education experience. The literature shows why it is very important to contribute and increase knowledge regarding this topic. The researcher thinks it is important that its impact is monitored and evaluated as it has the potential to negatively impact on students and their future.
2.2 Profile of work-study students

The question of who takes part in part-time employment while attending university is very important as it helps to paint a picture of those involved in employment. It is important to know who takes part in the work-study programme because the university and the students themselves need to create an environment that is supportive to both university as the employer and the students in order to avoid students either dropping out or failing classes. Several findings have been made in different studies. The focus of this study will be on students’ socio-economic background, race, gender and financial support system.

Students continue to make great efforts to fund their own education, making use of an assortment of existing resources. However, some students, particularly those from the most disadvantaged backgrounds, are the most strained financially. This is supported by Robotham (2012B) who suggests that students who are working are those who were facing financial difficulties in financing their studies. If costs of acquiring higher education were to increase, most would likely redouble their efforts to work more and borrow more. However, some students, particularly those from the lowest socio-economic backgrounds, may not be able to do so. To support this assumption, Moreau and Leathwood (2006:24) point out in their studies that students who come from working-class backgrounds are more likely to work during their studies.

Some studies such as Sekabembe and Bakkabulindi (2008) explore the issue of gender. They conducted their study at Makerere University in Uganda and found that the students enrolled in the East African Institute of Higher Education Studies and Development (EIHASD) were mostly female students who indicated that they were working as teachers or lecturers at their university. Most of them also pointed out that they had other responsibilities besides work and studies. With this finding, one might argue that these particular students, the majority of whom were female students, had other responsibilities such as household duties to perform after daily academic sessions (Sekabembe & Bakkabulindi, 2008).

The gender dimension is also explored in studies by Moreau and Leathwood (2006), Curtis and Shani (2002) and Metcalf (2003). They found out that female students were more likely
to work and study full-time and they financed themselves by working part-time. The reason given for this was that female students had many responsibilities, whether they were married or not. However, a study by Robotham (2012A) found no difference in the gender representation of students in the working students’ sample.

Universities find themselves with students of different ages, gender, backgrounds and prior experiences. As a result, university students who participate in employment are also very diverse, hence a researcher must not consider students as a homogenous group. Richardson et al. (2013:9) indicated that male students who were living away from home and those in the Faculty of Engineering at the University of Canterbury in New Zealand were highly likely to work in their first year of study. They went further to indicate that older students with families who tended to work were likely to work part-time and found that age could also be a factor contributing towards working students.

In closing the discussion, when one looks at the characteristics of students who take part in part-time work, the researcher found that the characteristics were as diverse as the situations that compel students to work and study. As observed in the literature from the developed and developing countries, students of all genders, all ages and class have been observed taking part in part-time work while pursuing full-time studies. The literature has shown that any student from any background can participate in part-time employment; therefore a working student can be anybody.

2.3 Reasons for working

There are many reasons why students take part in work-study programmes while they are in higher education. Most researchers believe that the reasons are more about meeting economic or financial needs. Robbins (2010:109) pointed out that in Australia most students, when charged ‘a fee per subject’ and asked to pay upfront, acquired loans which accumulated year-by-year hence putting these students in debt. Most of the students registered in higher education preferred to work in order to reduce their loans.
Richardson et al. (2013:9) state that the price students place on education affects the sacrifice students are willing to make. Metcalf (2003) and Moreau and Leathwood (2006) seem to be in agreement with this view. They also contend that students are willing to sacrifice their study time in order to make money to pay for fees, as students believe that education is an investment and will do anything to acquire it. Some students believe that when they have finished studying and start working, they will earn enough to make up for the sacrifices. Porter (1997) cited in Riggert et al. (2006:64) agrees with the notion of education seen as an investment. Education is seen as an investment that is expected to yield a high return for the individual and for society.

Students are involved in part-time employment for more than financial reasons. Metcalf (2003) points out a distinction between financial and attitude factors that make students work. The observation suggests that students’ attitudes toward their studies and employment become an added deciding factor, especially for the students who find themselves having to choose to do either part-time work along with full-time study, or dropping out of institutions of higher learning.

Moreau and Leathwood (2006:31) found that students did not only rely on the money they got from working. They also found that most students found various ways of paying their fees from getting loans, being financially supported by their parents or partner and/or living with their family. Studies by Curtis and Shani (2002) and Cheng and Alcantara (2007:305) found similar findings regarding the reasons why students work. Their students found that the reasons for students working included the students’ desire to become more independent, gain confidence and earn money to pay for leisure activities. They found that more students indicated that they preferred working as it gave them confidence and they were able to maintain their social life. Students also felt that working gave them an edge over their peers when they had to compete for work later in life, due to the experience they had gained. Another view suggested that the majority of students had no choice whether they wanted to work or not, as some stated that they needed to undertake paid work in order to support payments for their studies (Moreau &Leathwood, 2006). This was noted to be true for those students from working-class backgrounds.
Robotham (2009:326) found that some students indicated that working allowed them to maintain a desired standard of living. Later, in another study, Robotham (2012A:69) found that “Thirty-two percent had taken up employment to maintain a desired standard of living, while 15% had taken employment as an alternative to borrowing money.” Though students in Robotham’s (2012A) study were working part-time, 50% of the students still felt that it was necessary to take out a bank overdraft. Moreover, in this study, less than 1% of the sample indicated that the jobs they were currently doing were related to their studies (Robotham, 2012A).

For some students who were working as tutors at the university, they felt that they gained academic experience by teaching the courses they had already passed (Robotham, 2012A). Some students indicated that they were working to enhance employability after graduation, which relates well with their experience and academic gain. Robotham (2012A) went further to indicate that students who held part-time jobs found it a positive experience.

Manthei and Gilmore (2005) reported enhanced time management skills as a result of students’ work experiences. Thus, in addition to earning some money, they also acquired time management skills. This implies that they improved their chances of being employed as they competed with their peers who were not involved in part-time work during their period at university. Cheng and Alcantara (2007) found that the number of hours that students worked was too high in some cases; this forced the students to choose between working and attending to academic obligations. On the other hand, being in a tight corner between work and academic duties, this group of students still indicated that working part-time equipped them with time management skills.

McInnis and Hartley (2002:31) succinctly sum up the major reasons why students take part in work-study programmes, for: “financial need, career and employment preparation, independence and to supplement other income.”
2.4 How many hours do students work?

The balance between work and studies is very important. Wang, et al. (2010:92) found that the more hours students worked, the more likely it was that their academic work suffered. Robotham’s (2012A:69) study explored the students’ average working hours per week and found that the students were working, on average, for 13.05 hours per week. This finding is comparable to that of Metcalf (2003), whose study found that students’ work-study time ranged between 12 and 14 hours per week. Similarly, Cheng and Alcantara (2007:305) reported that students at Columbia University were working on average 13 hours per week during the academic year.

In contrast, Ford, Bosworth and Wilson (1995:200) found that students at four universities in the United Kingdom were working an average of 20 hours per week or more. According to Holmes (2008:308), students at Queen’s University in Northern Ireland worked an average of 13.5 hours per week during term time and when they were on vacation the number increased to 25 hours or 30 hours per week during the summer vacations. Manthei and Gilmore (2005) conducted their studies at the University of Canterbury and found that the students there were working an average of 14 hours per week.

Wang (2010) found that when students increased their hours, their academic performance was negatively affected. This finding is supported by Richardson et al. (2013:10-11) who conducted a correlation matrix which showed that “those spending a greater number of hours in paid employment had lower grades.” The study also found that for students studying Engineering, the effect of hours worked on grades was more detrimental than for other students who were studying other subjects such as Social Sciences. Richardson et al. (2013:12) concluded that there was a slight indication that students who worked faced academic challenges. He also found that those who worked a few hours, such as ten hours, had good academic results, but if they worked over the recommended hours of twenty hours per week, their academic results were negatively affected. In other words, Richardson et al.’s (2013) study titled ‘The academic achievement of students in a New Zealand university: Does it pay to work?’ actually confirms the finding that working longer hours had a negative impact on academic performance.
These findings suggest that students can work and study at the same time within the specific recommended number of hours. The recommended number of hours has to take into account the field of study in order to ensure that academic work is not affected. However, it should also be noted that some studies give a threshold of what is considered acceptable or ideal working hours for students. For example, in Robotham’s (2012A) study he states that:

Students at United Kingdom (UK) institutions are not only working extensively past the official UK government guidelines for part-time employment of a maximum of ten hours per week, some are also spending more hours per week in their chosen employment than in time-tabled university classes (Robotham, 2012A:72).

Robotham (2012A) further pointed out that one of the objectives in his study was to “generate data concerning the prevalence of part-time work undertaken during term time.” He states that 44% of students who took part in the survey were working ten hours per week and this affected the number of class contact hours that students had per week, which was reported to be 14.1 hours. These are very low hours as we assume that the students’ purpose at university is to devote more time on academic activities. In his study, 40% of the samples of students were working longer in their part-time work than they did in lectures and tutorials which form a greater part of their academic work. This was a matter of concern as it might have an impact on academic achievements. When Robotham (2012A) investigated the number of hours that students worked, it was found that 10% of students worked more than 20 hours per week and 4% of students worked more than 30 hours per week (Robotham 2012A:69). Robotham (2012A) states that the hours captured were not worked in a consistent pattern each week, and so any figure for average hours per week may mask important variations between students; this view is shared by Moreau and Leatherwood (2006).

Based on the literature, the number of hours that students worked while pursuing their higher education ranged between 13 and 14 hours per week. Literature further showed that students’ working hours were sometimes flexible, depending on the time of the year.
Therefore, it is clear that the number of hours that students utilise to do part-time work is important and hence needs to be monitored in order to ensure that their academic work is not affected.

2.5 What type of work do students do and where are they employed?

The literature shows that students are working both on-campus and off-campus. Though some students were in jobs that were related to their fields of study, others were not. The assumption of unskilled labour was brought up in the study by Robotham (2009) and Lowe and Gayle (2007); students found jobs that did not require some sort of certification while what is considered skilled labour requires that people go through training. To support this assumption, studies by Robotham (2009) and Lowe and Gayle (2007) found that many of their students worked in retailing, catering, hotels and bars, and as checkout operators; these would be considered unskilled. Most students in their study were not employed in the field related to their studies. However, Wang et al.’s (2010) and Sekabembe and Bakkabulindi’s (2009) studies found that students preferred to get employment in fields related to their study fields.

The majority of students who participated in Robotham’s (2012B) study were employed in the retail or service sectors. Robotham points out that it is important to note where students are employed as it might shed light on whether the jobs they were doing required specialised skills or not. In a study by Smith and Patton (2011), students worked in retail and hospitality industries, as with Robotham’s (2012B) study; they did not choose but could only get employment in that field.

McInnis and Hartley’s (2002:21-22) study found that 53% of their study population were working as casual workers in a university in Australia. Though the researchers speak of students being employed on campus, they do not say which sectors students were involved in.
Robbins’ (2010:104) study focused on students who were employed on a casual basis. His study showed that most students worked as casual labourers which rendered them unprotected and unregulated. This makes it harder to regulate and so it is hard to monitor. Because of no monitoring or laws that govern student employment, one is unable to get a clear picture of the specific types of work students engage in; their working hours; the kind of businesses that are employers; the levels they occupy in the work hierarchy; the amount of money they earn; and how they spend it.

Cheng and Alcantara (2007:306) concluded that some students felt a sense of fulfilment and benefited from working, especially if the type of job the students were doing was not routine but required critical thinking. If students worked as mentors, they felt good, as they saw themselves making a difference in other students’ lives. This is also supported by Richardson et al. (2013:16) who investigated whether the kind of job students were involved in was related to their studies and if the students experienced a positive effect on Grade Point Average (GPA). They found however that having a job that students perceived as useful to their university studies in fact provides no advantage in those students’ academic outcome.

Curtis and Shani (2002) and Wang et al. (2010) found that students felt that working part-time impacted negatively on them when they were doing work that was not related to their studies. On the other hand, those who were working to gain work experience were happier, as they believed working increased their ability to secure jobs once they had finished their studies, giving them an advantage over their peers.

2.6 Challenges experienced by working students

In the studies by Cheng and Alcantara (2007) and Curtis and Shani (2002), students indicated that they benefited from working, without making reference to any challenges. When students were asked about challenges in combining work and study in a different study by Moreau and Leathwood (2006:30), they highlighted difficulties such as “demand for flexible working hours, juggling work and study”. Metcalf (2003:316) also cites numerous studies where students reported that paid employment had negatively affected their studies,
specifically their attendance at lectures and seminars; production of assignments; time devoted to studying; thus has increased stressful effects.

Lowe and Gayle (2007) state that working and studying students indicated that they needed more support with their studies from peers and lecturers than other students who studied full-time. The issue of how much support was needed also depended upon the balance between work, family or personal life, and study. Those who indicated needing more support were more likely not to have a good balance. Students also indicated that the quality of relationship between the university and students as employees, if it was good, made it easy to have a positive balance and this was crucial. Some students reported that their social lives were affected. Some even reported not having enough time to sleep; some reported that they were usually tired, ill and depressed (Lowe & Gayle, 2007). Fjortoft (1995), cited in Cheng (2004:3), points out that one part that was affected was “the amount of time available” for academic work, and that the students tended to reduce leisure and socialising time in order to complement the time they used on academic work.

Robotham (2012A:71) also focused on how working part-time influenced academic performance. He checked if participants thought their performance on academic tasks could have done better if they were not employed – 58% of the participants indicated that they felt they would have performed better if they were not working. In order to increase time for academic work, students indicated that they reduced their leisure and social time. Robotham (2012A:72), in an interesting observation, states that “the somewhat contentious issue of the extent to which time for students to engage in leisure activities while at university is important”. The study also showed the negative impact of working part-time on students. Robotham (2012A:71) states that even though the negative impacts were few, “part-time employment, whilst not being entirely negative, does incur some costs.”

In Metcalf’s (2003) study the students experienced difficulties juggling employment and educational demands. It is interesting to note that the results were identified on a specific level of study which was the third year; it is not clear whether the findings would be different or similar if other levels were studied. According to this study, 64% of the study population reported experiencing difficulties, even though they did not mention what the
difficulties were. On the other hand, 78% reported that term-time work affected the time they needed for effective studying.

Students also reported challenges in utilising the library, computer labs and other facilities, due to competing time demands with work (Robotham, 2012A). Robotham went further to demonstrate how working students experienced significant high levels of stress such that some were increasingly suffering from mental health problems. During academic life, the consequences of stress can be devastating for some. Robotham (2012A:72) states that “of his students, 54% students indicated that working part-time increased their intensity of stress, and 28% replied that it reduced their ability to cope with stress.” In contrast, 28% of the students felt that combining employment and study increased their ability to cope with stress.

Smith and Patton (2011) state that, in their study, some of the students’ experienced challenges as most jobs were available during daytime and this clashed with their academic schedules. In addition, the availability and timing presented challenges such as lack of sleep which impacted them negatively the next day at university; family time was affected, especially when the job they did took place in areas where employers expected them to be involved for longer hours. Another disadvantage was that most of the part-time low-skilled jobs may have turned out to become long-term careers, as students could not cope with working, studying and maintaining social life, so instead they would rather stop studying.

Moreover, the industries in which most students worked have conventionally been at the lower end of the wages scale, although there were some differentiations; for example, retail rates of pay were better than in fast food. Workers who happen to be students are perceived to be able to move between jobs easily and they are perceived ashaving nopower in the labour market especially within the retails and trading industry (Smith & Patton, 2011:21).
Some studies indicated that part-time working students experienced little or no negative impact on their studies or social lives. In some of the studies, some students reported working as a reason for not doing assignments on time while in other studies, students reported that the jobs clashed with their academic schedule. Other studies stated students needed more help when they worked and studied. The working students expected support from employers and from family members; some also indicated that they needed help in balancing personal lives. The parents appreciated the work experience and the learning that students gained during work-study programs. Students felt that if some form of assistance were available in the university, it could reduce some pressures that they experienced.

2.7 Coping strategies and different responses to student employment by employers and institutions of higher learning

Sekabembe and Bakkabulindi (2009) found that students were developing adaptive strategies in order to cope with studying and working. According to their study, some of the adaptive strategies resorted to by students were:

- taking leave from work in order to find time to study;
- arranging with their colleagues to cover for them at work in order to gain more hours of study; and
- choosing jobs that required them to work in shifts so they would be able to arrange to work when there were no lectures.

The study also found that some of the students were self-employed and did not have to report to anybody. This arrangement played out safely, especially when the students were able to juggle times without much trouble as they did not have to ask for permission.

According to Sekabembe and Bakkabulindi (2009), some lecturers went on further to point out that work-study programmes affected the modules the students chose as they felt that students chose modules that fitted within their employment schedule. Some students changed modules to fit the work demands and others either arrived late to or left from class to meet work needs. The lecturers attributed the reason that students took up part-time
work as a means of overcoming their financial pressures and the cost of education, which recently become the responsibility of the students.

Due to demands of the work-study programmes, institutions of higher learning need to adapt and support the students in order to ensure that their academic work is not affected. Lowe and Gayle (2007:234) argued that there is a need for institution “...to support a successful work/life/study balance (for students who work).”

In addition to institutional responses to students working, government was brought in as a way of all parties involved coming together to create policies. Recommendations by Robotham (2009) and Moreau and Leathwood (2006), mention that government policy needed to be changed and that students needed to be protected in order not to be exploited by employers because of their circumstances. The reason is that working students are a phenomenon that is not going away, but is on the increase, as evidenced in the study by Moreau and Leathwood (2006). Their study found that at the beginning of the students’ enrolment at the London Metropolitan University, 38% of students who responded to the study indicated that they were currently working, and 81% of them indicated that they were in the process of finding work. This statement was made to indicate the rise of the number of students who are actively looking for work.

Robbins (2010) addresses issues of student employment not just as a concern for institutions of higher learning, but as an issue of labour systems that are regarded as exempted from “the industrial relations system”. In other words, Robbins (2010) argues that student employment not only affects students in institutions of higher learning, but all role players who are directly or indirectly involved with students who ‘part-take’ in student employment. The author argues that students as employees’ take part in a labour system that is neglected and unregulated. It is hard to monitor and evaluate student employment as it is a labour market that is often dismissed as unimportant. It requires laws that make sure that the students are well protected in whichever industry they find themselves employed.
The students have presented different coping mechanisms such as absenting themselves from academic engagement in order to fulfil work requirements; arranging with their colleagues to cover for them at work in order to gain more hours of study; choosing jobs that require them to work in shifts so that they would be able to arrange to work when there were no lectures; choosing modules that fit with the employment pattern; changing modules to fit the work demands; arriving late at lectures; leaving earlier than the end of class, etc. It was also reported that some employers created new supervisor positions in order to retain and keep the students more interested in their work, while other students had learnt to work around the period of examination absences. In these cases, students needed to make their own decisions about their priorities in terms of whether to work or attend to academic activities at the university.

2.8 Who benefits from students working?

Some studies found that employers benefited from having students working for them (Robbins, 2010; Sekabembe & Bakkabulindi, 2008; Lowe & Gayle, 2007; Moreau & Leathwood 2006; Curtis & Shani, 2002). Universities too in both roles as employers and trainers benefit from having students working for them. Despite the benefit, both off-campus employers and the university do not seem to make enough attempts to meet the needs of working students.

Smith and Patton’s (2011:18) study states that there are many parties that benefit from having students taking part in employment. They state that advantages for employers are that young people (students) are eager and make fresh workers who are enthusiastic. An advantage for family members is that they appreciate the pay and the life lessons that young people receive from work. Lecturers may welcome increased maturity or real-world experience, and future employers value previous training.

Through employment, students gain technical and generic skills. The visibility of young people also improves society’s view of them. Students contribute to the financial system by paying for their education and purchasing goods, and by building up the level of skills in the
The community also benefit from students working, because the students take the money they were paid home, and it also contributes because places of shopping extend opening hours of retail and hospitality businesses, which would not be possible without student labour (Smith & Patton 2011:18).

According to Robbins (2010), when it came to who benefits from student employment in relation to the industrial relations context, he mentions both students and employers. However, the study raised concerns such as a lack of information to student employees in relation to their work arrangement, which may render the students inactive in discussions of their terms and conditions of employment.

Another point Robbins (2010:114) raises relates to the inability of students to access union membership which denies the students access to work issues that need collective bargaining. The article emphasises that students do not have much choice and have to take what the employer offers with little flexibility on working hours and no negotiations on pay. In other words, the employers are the ones who are benefiting as they hold the negotiating power. It seems to Robbins (2010) that some employers refuse to share and this disadvantages students.

In Perold and Omar (1997:33), the issue of who benefits is also discussed. They point out that the university benefits as well. They argue this by stating that:

*In institutions such as the University of the Western Cape and the Peninsula Technikon, work-study have become an essential feature of the institutions which have come to rely on student work to carry out a range of essential services. For example, if work-study students were not employed at Peninsula Technikons, the library would have to close at 8pm instead of 10pm.*

Smith and Patton’s (2011) study uses 15 in-depth expert interviews of national and state organisations that have a policy interest in student employment in Australia. The interviews form part of a major study on student employment, spanning three years, from 2006 to
2008. Their study finds that students benefit from participating in work-study programmes in the following ways. They benefit financially as they receive money; with this money they are able to be financially independent; working also allows the students to interact with other students and adults in their work environment; and, lastly, some students gain a few administrative skills they can use in the future (Smith & Patton, 2011:15).

While researchers like Robbins (2010) point out that students are at a disadvantage because of a lack of protection of students in the labour systems, there is little evidence from the stakeholders involved that they have heard about specific instances where labour statutes were violated.

The studies therefore lead the researcher to conclude that there are many parties who benefit from having students taking part in employment. They also state the different ways in which the different parties benefit. The following beneficiaries are mentioned: employers; students; family members; teachers; future employers; society; the financial system and the community. There are a few benefits that the literature review highlights: students indicate that they gain confidence, meet people, it contributes to their CV’s and this sets them apart when they want to join the working world.

2.9 Conclusion

It is clear from the literature above that working while studying is not a new phenomenon. Again it is clear that the number of students taking part in part-time employment has increased in the past years. These work-study programmes had both negative and positive effects on the students. It has also been noted that there are many factors that influence students to seek employment and they utilise different strategies to cope with the challenges of working.

Many studies in the literature review concentrate on the relationship between employment outside campus and its impact on students’ academic achievement; conversely, there are few studies that look at students who work on campus. There has also been a debate whether work-study programmes, which are the centre of the exploration in this study, should be considered as employment.
The literature reveals that working students come from diverse backgrounds and they work for different reasons. Literature shows that students are involved in all kinds of jobs from unskilled to skilled labour and from the jobs that are relevant to their studies to those that are not.

Due to the changing nature of the students’ university experience and due to the increasing number of students who work both on and off campus, the employers and students alike have had to come up with coping mechanisms and more formalised efforts in the area are necessary. It has emerged from the studies that the beneficiaries of the students’ work are also diverse; at least it is not only the students who benefit. Since the studies were carried out in different contexts from the one this author used, the validation of whether or not findings may be generalised to all contexts remains to be proven by this study. Since studies concentrated mainly on students working outside campus for this study the researcher decided to investigate the formalised, university-based form of employment in the form of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape.

The next chapter, titled THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, discusses the different frameworks that were adopted and used in the study.
CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter, titled THE LITERATURE REVIEW presented scholarly literature related to student employment while students are studying full-time. This chapter discusses the theoretical framework used in the study. After looking at the different facets through which students’ employment influences the students’ experience in higher education in the previous chapter, it becomes imperative to position this study in a specific theoretical framework for analysis.

Finding a theoretical framework proved, for a while, to be a challenge for the researcher, an issue Riggert et al. (2006) support. According to Riggert et al. (2006:70), the “challenges of understanding post-secondary student employment are not limited to problems in statistical methodology.” The authors point out that “there has been minimal effort to frame the relationship of student employment and higher education in a theoretical context” (2006:70). They stress the fact that no theoretical models have ever been found that solely (or even primarily) focused on the student-employment/higher-education relationship. Riggert et al. (2006:70) further suggest that the lack of theoretical groundwork might have somehow contributed to the discontinuity across empirical studies. With all these challenges, three theoretical frameworks were identified and are discussed below. The frameworks have been adapted and modified to fit into this research study.

3.2 Motivational Conflict theory

University students are no longer simply students, they are involved in multiple activities. King and Gaerlan (2013:63) point out that “When students have to choose between two alternatives and even when they end up choosing one of the two mutually incompatible goals (e.g. university vs leisure goals), they may experience motivational interference during
the performance of the chosen action.” Students in this study are also not just students; they are studying full-time, while maintaining a social life.

While King and Gaerlan (2013) discuss school vs leisure, for this study we have school vs social life vs working. For this study we see a triangular relationship; we see academic vs social life vs working. Motivational interference refers to the “cognitive, affective, and behavioural impairment of a chosen activity as a result of the motivational properties of a non-chosen alternative” (Hofer et al, 2010, cited by King & Gaerlan, 2013:63).

According to King and Gaerlan (2013:64), a vital basis of motivational conflict theory is that students are no longer just students, but they are now involved in numerous activities that happen at different times and this makes them vulnerable to motivational intrusion. The researcher also points out that students are functioning in a space where resources are limited and this creates competition between the students’ goals. Because of these limited resources, students find themselves pursuing goals such as working; these pursuits compete with studying and maintaining social lives.

For students to be motivated, according to Husman and Lens (1999:113), “Motivation is most often a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Students are intrinsically motivated when learning or performing at school is a goal in itself”. These researchers point out that student are extrinsically motivated when whatever they are doing is done for the sake of gaining, or maybe they get motivated when whatever they are doing is not really related to their studies.

King and Gaerlan (2013:64) state: “Motivational interference arises when a student has to decide between two highly valued goals, or may occur when a student is already performing an activity and another opportunity comes into play.” In the case of this study, the students on the work-study programme find themselves facing conflicts: they are studying, working and trying to maintain social lives. The work-study programme was created to address the students’ financial needs and provide them with a platform to learn work skills. Because of this, one can consider financial resources to be a scarce commodity for students.
There are two types of motivational interference which Hofer et al. (2009) think are appropriate for students: they share this in their paper. They point out that motivational interference occurs during studying and during leisure. Motivational interference occurs during studying and this is experienced when students choose academic goals over leisure goals. However, as a result of these conflict, students find themselves unable to give their full attention to either social or academic fields.

The above definition of motivational interference does not completely fit in with this study, as it only looks at academic interference and leisure activity. This study explores the impact that working has on academic achievement. Although it does not investigate in-depth, what it does is explore the relationship between studying and working, to see if students have the time to take part in leisure activities and whether there is an impact on the student’s whole student experience.

Kauffman and Husman (2004:1), in their journal article, point out that: “People understand why they are doing what they do on the basis of some understanding of how it is that they came to be doing that activity (a memory of the past) and, many times, an understanding of what they hope to come next, many times, comes in the distant future.” The literature reviewed shows that students are aware that their studying is temporary and that in the future they will gain the rewards of employment. Robbins (2010:109) points out that in Australia most students are now being charged ‘a fee per subject’ and they are asked to pay upfront; as a result many find themselves acquiring loans and gaining debts, so most of the students prefer to work in order to minimise credit costs.

In this study students understand why they are taking part in part-time employment on the work-studyprogrammeon-campus while pursuing full-time study. Kauffman and Husman (2004:1) point out that “Students are most adaptive when they focus on the feelings that come from gaining competence and control in the movement.” Students on the work-studyprogrammemight feel that they are in control in managing to balance working, studying and maintaining a social life. This control is where the motivational conflict theory comes in as it helps explain how students prioritise between these three areas.
3.3 Future Time Perspective theory

Husman and Lens (1999:114) cite Frank (1939) and Lewin (1935) as the first modern psychologists to consider and examine the significance of the imagined future in understanding human motivation and behaviour. According to Husman and Lens (1999), both researchers regarded time as a direction towards future goals; they assumed that the capacity to take anticipated outcomes or costs of behaviour into account results from developmental processes.

The Future Time Perspective theory is defined by Husman and Lens (1999:114) as “the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal-setting processes”. For this study this would mean that the students in the work-study programme, who are studying full-time when they decide to take up more activities that are not related to their studies, would need to be able to integrate work into their studies. The future for the students would be once the students complete studying and hopefully enter the world of work.

Seijts (1998:154) “points out: “Knowledge about time span a person considers when making decisions is important in predicting how he or she will act, that is, what goals will be pursued.” For this study the researcher had to consider when they would be studying or working and, because of the limited resources students need, some had to take part-time employment in the present, thus eliminating debts in the future. However, financial reasons are not necessarily the only reasons students take part in part-time employment while pursuing full time study. In the literature reviewed, Cheng and Alcantara’s (2007:305) research showed that students worked for many reasons; the motivation ranged from the students’ desire to become more independent, gain confidence and earn money to pay for leisure activities.

3.4 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs theory

The work of Abraham Maslow, in particular the theory about the Hierarchy of Needs, has been largely embraced in many study areas, though no such engagements were found by the researcher in the area of students’ experiences of work-study programmes. The original
hierarchy study by Maslow (1970) is modified for use on student experiences of a work-study programme. The study does so by studying a case of the students in the work-study programme and its implications at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa.

The Hierarchy of Needs by Maslow (1970) could be used to appreciate and investigate students’ experiences in relation to their needs and therefore provide an understanding of possible shifts within the needs spectrum by all stakeholders.

The work-study programme at UWC was intended to address the financial challenges students face and provide students with a safe space where they could learn employment skills. The challenges of financing higher education have necessitated that the institutions come up with strategies to assist the needy students by provision of work-study opportunities; the jobs students do are situated in all areas of the university. Ironically, as the interventions happened, no specific empirical data, concepts and frameworks were taken into account. The teams and players engaged in the whole intervention did not have much basis for interaction and direction; as a result expectations and experiences were diverse.

The study contests that the hierarchy, as placed by Maslow (1970), can be embraced in the student experiences and their needs within the work-study programme. The researcher believes that the theory therefore can be used as a lens through which the experiences of the students are looked at in a realistic but theory-supported manner. Although in the study the researcher suggests applying the engagement of a psychological theory by Maslow (1970), due to its vigorous application potential, she has not found studies in the area of student experiences of work-study programmes which have utilised the approach.

The study therefore uses Maslow’s hierarchy of needs by providing an understanding of the needs and engaging with them in the area of the study. In this paper, the researcher also discusses the implications to the experiences of the students within the work-study programme, using policy and research in the area.
Abraham Maslow (1970) was a psychologist who was mostly utilised in the twentieth century, together with his colleagues, Freud and Skinner. He did not believe in the strict negative implications of the approaches used at the time to judge human behaviour which used behaviourism and psychoanalysis (Maslow, 1970). Simons et al. (1987) maintained that humans are not involuntarily directed by stimulus and reinforcement as behaviourists do, or by instinct as in psychoanalysis. In pushing his ideas forward, he developed what became known as the third force in a humanistic theory in psychology, giving it the face of hierarchy of needs and human development.

Maslow (1970) believes that each person incorporates several aspects and needs in life; the person presents these in a wholesome nature with other aspects that make that person who they are. The theory observes the whole existence of people in relation to what they need and their goals in life. Maslow (1970) asserts that the fundamental desires of human beings are similar despite the multitude of conscious desires. “His psychology is premised on a shared humanity that crosses geographic, racial, gender, social, ethnic, and religious boundaries” (Robert et al., 2005:2).

As in Maslow’s observation, there are many variables within the human world, but the theory sees and affirms that one of the joining factors in our lives is the desire we have as human beings. The researcher agrees with this observation as most of the responses to human needs are replicated all over the world. For example, the need for education is universal, though the education systems may differ in relation to the variables mentioned, such as geographic location. The relevance of the observation to the study of student experiences in UWC is that Maslow (1970) sees the needs as relating to daily experiences of individuals. The theory holds that the needs get experienced with a form of hierarchy, with the lowest being fulfilled first and determining what happens in the space, while the highest is the last to inform the individual experiences.

The different levels of the hierarchy therefore determine what the individual pursues next. As the theory developed, there was opposing thinking around it, but Maslow (1970) explained the theory as a representation, hence allowing in some instances partial fulfilment at different levels and skipping to some parts of the higher levels. In life, the way
individuals may rearrange their experiences of the world may differ by situation. As a result, the theory should be taken and observed as a framework that provides guidance and ways of doing and not as a tight instruction forceful to everybody (Robert et al., 2005).

A questionnaire was designed consisting of thirty-two questions bearing an influence on the hierarchy of needs as defined by Maslow. For example, a question was asked about the involvement of family and close relatives in provision of support. Though the ordering of questions did not follow the order of the hierarchy, they appeared somewhere in the hierarchy of needs, hence the theory was used to check the questions around experiences through needs, but not to order the questions in any manner. During analysis of the data, the relationship between the needs and student experiences was researched, as the shift from the initial need for finances was observed. In some case the students wanted to financially supplement fees; later, they wanted to buy better toiletries; later, they wanted to work in areas of the fields in which they were studying as they saw the idea affecting their self-esteem positively.

As alluded to at the beginning of the discussion about the theory, the needs are seen as ranging from the lowest to the highest level with layers in between. The following figure is a representation of the theory.
Figure 1: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

For the purposes of this study, we are not going to explore all of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. We are going to look at those that are relevant to the study.

3.4.1 Physiological needs

Maslow (1970) describes the physiological needs as needs that are biological. He gives the following as examples: the need for oxygen, food, water and a relatively constant body temperature. Maslow (1970) points out that if a person is deprived of all needs, the physiological ones would come first in the person's search for satisfaction. In relation to this study, students all come from diverse social economic backgrounds – this might impact on whether they have food, water, etc.

3.4.2 Social needs and belongingness

Maslow (1970) points out that when the needs for safety and for physiological well-being are satisfied, the next set of needs for love, affection and belongingness can emerge. Maslow (1970) states that people look to rise above feelings of solitude and isolation. This involves both giving and receiving love, affection and the sense of belonging. The students from UWC come from different places, many have come from other African countries, they are far away from home and, if they do not adjust to the university lifestyle, they become isolated and this might affect their university experience. In the study the researcher investigated this need by enquiring from where students were receiving support.

3.4.3 Need for esteem/ego

The third need that Maslow (1970) points out is the need for esteem. He points out that this entails needs for both personal self-esteem and the other related to the esteem a person derives from others. Maslow (1970) further explains that as humans we have a need for a secure, firmly based, high, level of self-respect, and respect from others. The literature reviewed by authors such as Cheng and Alcantara (2007:306) show that some students felt a
sense of fulfilment and felt they were benefiting from working, especially if the type of job
the students were doing was not routine but engaged the students’ minds. If they worked
perhaps as mentors, they felt good as they saw themselves making a difference in others’
lives. This is supported by Richardson et al. (2013:16) who investigated whether the kinds of
jobs students were involved in were related to studies and if the students experienced a
positive effect on grade point average. Richardson et al. (2013) found, however, that having
a job that students perceived as useful to their university studies, in fact, provides no
advantage in academic outcome.

One can conclude that when these needs are met, the students feel self-confident and
important as people in the world. Maslow (1970) suggests that when these needs for
esteem/ego are discouraged, the person feels inferior, weak, helpless and worthless and, in
the case of the students working on the work-study programme, this would have a bad
impact on the students’ university experience.

3.4.4 Need for self-actualization

The fifth and last stage of need Maslow (1970) called the ‘need for self-actualization’. This
stage comes when all of the other needs have been fulfilled or satisfied; then and only then
is the need for self-actualization set in motion. Maslow’s (1970) description in relation to
people suggests that self-actualization happens when a person’s needs are fulfilled and the
person does what they were ‘born to do’. When these needs are not met, people tend to
show signs of restlessness.

Figure 2 shows the changes of Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs as they apply to
university students. The representation of letters in the diagram is as follows:

A = represents Physiological Needs
B = represents Security Needs
C = represents Social Needs
D = represents Esteem Needs
E = represents Self-actualising Needs
Wu (2012) indicates that the students’ physiological and self-esteem needs are low since the university context is not the same as a township or home setting (society). The most important element to university students is the feeling of completing the degree that they have registered for.

Every student who pursues higher education has needs that they would like to fulfil. Cheng and Alcantara (2007:305) point out that while doing research in their study, they established reasons that ranged from the students desire to become more independent, gain confidence and earn money to pay for leisure activities. This reasons fit in with Maslow’s (1970) theory of needs.
When it comes to the motivational conflict theory and future time perspective theory fitting into the study, students find themselves having to study for the future, while taking into consideration how they are going to balance working, studying and maintaining a social life at the time.

The space labelled ‘university students’ (Figure 3) shows that being a student at the university and also making a choice to take part in the work-study programme could be interpreted using the three theories at the same time. A student sees the future where a degree has been completed but, for that to occur, a conscious decision has to be made on how to financially support the process of reaching there. Since they are motivated to be at university, they tend to sacrifice some of their free time in order to attain what they perceived as a need in their life. Therefore the study will utilise the three lenses to evaluate the student’s participation in work-study programmes.

The following chapter is titled RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS. The chapter provides us with a detailed description and justification of the research methodology, research tools and methods used in the study. It provides a discussion of the methodology and seeks to justify it, using the data compilation process and providing tools and indicators which were used to analyse data.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Two presented the review of studies that were relevant for this study. Chapter Three provided us with a theoretical framework. Using Chapter Three as a point of departure, Chapter Four discusses the research design and methodology used in this study. This chapter discusses the research design and methodology adopted for this study.

4.2 Research design

This section presents the research design of the study, which is a road map that gives clarity of research methods that were utilised in the study, data collection tools, rigour of data quality and analysis (Oates, 2006). In addition, the section provides the paradigms or the approaches used in doing the research. Overall, the study was qualitative in nature, even though it heavily relied on quantitative aspects where there was necessity to provide more information, clarity and support of ideas. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:10), the word qualitative “implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on the process and meaning that are not experimentally examined or measured (if measured at all) in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency.” Babbie and Mouton (2001:270) describe qualitative research as a study that seeks “to study human action from the perspective of social actors themselves.” In other words, qualitative research is concerned with how people make sense of their surroundings and produce their own meanings.

Due to the realisation of the need to bring the two paradigms together to produce what is known as mixed methods, researchers such as Hammersley (1995) refers to an approach being synthesised in order to enhance the study with benefits from both worlds. This mixed method approach tends to benefit individuals, using it by borrowing the strengths of one
method to practically reinforce the other, in order to respond effectively to the objectives of the study.

To bring emphasis to the need to engage in the manner and indeed to justify the researchers choices that were observed, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007:123) define mixed methods as those research approaches or designs “...in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.” In the case of this study in particular, data is collected through survey (quantitative) and interviews (qualitative) in order to respond to the main research question and to address the research aims. This demanded that the two approaches be engaged.

4.2.1 Two stage approach

Within the context of the design, two approaches to data collection tools in the study were engaged. Firstly, the study benefited from an online survey as the first tool to be used, followed by semi-structured interviews. The study used a survey which had questions that were necessary to get sufficient baseline data and the interviews were designed to get the in-depth understanding of students’ experiences and challenges. The baseline data was collected to provide an information base which helped to give a broad view of students’ personal experiences on the work-study programme. This method was also chosen because there were too many students on the programme and, for the researcher to truly understand the experience, she required more personalised data from the students; this is where the one-on-one interviews came into play. The interviews, on the other hand, allowed the researcher to probe and this way allowed the researcher to make meaning of the findings from Stage One. Stage Two also gave the study face-to-face interaction with the students. Babbie and Mouton (2001:249) state that one-on-one interviews similar to the ones conducted in this study allow a researcher a chance to interact with participants. One of the benefits of the one-on-one interview is the presence of the interviewer, which makes it easier for the respondent to either clarify answers or ask for clarification for some of the
items on the questionnaire. It also helped to minimise non-response and maximise the quality of the data collected. Johnson et al. (2007:123) identified the issues of corroboration and understanding embedded within the interviews.

This stage was necessitated by the research questions because the survey provided the baseline data but it did not give the students experience. This stage occurred because the researcher had to make sure that the findings of the data collected through the survey were true. Because this study seeks to understand the student experience, the author had to make certain that the research findings accurately reflected the ‘real’ situation.

To make certain the data was real the researcher had to use the triangulation method. Guion, Diehl, and McDonald (2011:2) describe triangulation as “a method used by qualitative researchers to check and establish validity in their studies by analysing a research question from multiple perspectives and this involves using different sources of information in order to increase the validity of a study.”

4.3 Case selection, access to research site, and access to participants

The study took place at the University of the Western Cape (UWC), which is situated in the Bellville suburb of Cape Town. The university was chosen for various reasons. Firstly, on the UWC website the university states that its work-study programme is the largest of its kind in Africa and is considered a model for universities and technikons in South Africa. This statement was not authenticated, the reason being that the researcher could not find a way to do so. Secondly, the researcher was a student at UWC at the time of study and was familiar with the work-study programme, during her undergraduate studies, she had been part of it. She was employed as a student assistant and later promoted to writing consultant. Her placement as a researcher in the matter assisted with issues of familiarity, and access and cutting of research costs, as she needed finances for the study. Her prior involvement in the programme and closeness to the university also meant that she had to take special account of her own subjectivity in the research process, an issue that is discussed and shared later in the chapter.
4.4 Criteria for participation

In order for students to participate in the survey, they had to have been in the work-study programme for more than a year; a year, because the researcher believed that they would have gained the experience that would be able to yield valid data. For the interviews in the survey, students had been given an option to indicate if they would allow the researcher to contact them for face-to-face interviews. From the survey participants, students were selected who had given permission to be contacted for interviews. For the interviews, initially the researcher selected ten participants. The students who indicated that they were willing to take part in Stage Two were given the opportunity to take part. The third criterion for making the choice was those who felt that the work-study programme had an impact on their studies. The fourth choice was those who had indicated that they had someone who depended on them financially. The fifth choice was of students taken from different faculties. After the students were chosen, they were contacted and interviews were set up. Only eight of the students agreed to be interviewed.

At the beginning of the study, the researcher received information about the students on the programme from the work-study office and, as the information was checked, some errors were found in the information. Because of researcher’s experience as a student at UWC, the researcher was aware that the Information and Communication Services (ICS) might help with matters relating to validation of the email addresses, as they are the section of the university that would normally deal with Information and Communication Technology-related issues (ICT). The researcher approached ICS and asked if they would help in verifying the students email addresses and removing those that were not correct. They agreed and did assist with the matter. The email addresses were then returned to the researcher after being verified.

It is to all those email addresses that researcher sent emails to forewarn students about and explain the study to them. The researcher explained to the students that their answers
would help her to understand the programme better, in order to make good recommendations and thereby help improve the work-study programme. Though the researcher did not ask the students to reply to the email, some decided to respond; all confirmed that they would participate in the study.

After this initial encounter with students through emails, the researcher was approached by some students who reported that they had heard about the study from fellow friends and colleagues and felt they qualified according to the criteria set for selection of participants in the study. This made the researcher realise that some names had been omitted from the list of emails that the researcher had received from the work-study centre.

In order to accommodate these particular students, the researcher put a notice on the university electronic notice board (commonly known as Thetha website). Here students were notified of the intended study in order to bring awareness about the study to the student population and in particular those who were qualified to partake in the study but had not received the email communication. On the notice posted on the board, the researcher introduced herself, explained the study and related ethical considerations (which are discussed later in the chapter) and invited the ones who qualified as members of the study target group. The researcher also placed her contact details so that those who qualified and wished to participate could contact her.

The researcher received a total of 1400 applicants on the initial list received from the work-study director. After the validation by ICS, the total number of students’ email addresses was 1220. After the questionnaire was prepared (the issue is explained and elaborated on later in the chapter), the emails addresses were input in ‘survey monkey’. The ‘survey monkey’ is an online survey development cloud that provides free, customisable online surveys, as well as a set of paid back-end packages that comprise of data analysis, sample selection, bias elimination and data representation tools.
The return number of 416 questionnaires was achieved. When the data was checked for preparation for cleaning, it was found that 384 (92.3%) of them were filled completely while 32 were partially filled. The 384 then represent the number of students who finally participated in the study. The survey had a consent form and students were asked to indicate if they wanted to be part of the interviews. Those who had answered fully and indicated they were interested in face-to-face interviews were contacted.

For the interviews ten participants were initially selected. The students who indicated that they were willing to take part in Stage Two were chosen. The third criterion for making the choice was those who felt that the work-study programme had an impact on their studies. The fourth choice was those who indicated that they had people financially dependent on them. The fifth choice of students was from different faculties. After the students were chosen, the researcher contacted them to set up interviews. Only eight of the students agreed to be interviewed.

4.5 Research Stage One: Electronic survey

In this part of the chapter, the method chosen is justified and the advantages and disadvantages experienced when using an online survey are explored. Furthermore, how the interaction of various factors unfolded in the study is shared.

There is no perfect way of collecting data, and electronic surveys are also not perfect. Andrews, Nonnecke, and Preece (2003:186) refer to data collection techniques and technologies as “...imperfect vehicles for collecting data. They require participants to recall past behavior that can be more accurately captured through observation”.

Electronic surveys are described as “the newest innovations in self-administered questionnaires” that make use of a computer (Babbie & Mouton 2001:259). For the purposes of the study the researcher designed the questionnaire and put it on the ‘survey monkey’. The ‘survey monkey’ is a computerised self-administrated questionnaire (CSAQ). The researcher inserted the 1220 email addresses on the website and instructed that on a
specific day an email with the link to the original questionnaire be sent to students whose emails had been exported to the ‘survey monkey’ data base.

Van Selm and Jankowski (2006), Bandilla (2002) and Wright (2005) all point out that the past decade has seen a remarkable increase in Internet use and computer-mediated communication; this has led to the Internet being increasingly used as an instrument for, and object of social scientific research. With the general increase of users, online survey research is still considered to be a very young and evolving field compared to other forms of data collection. The researcher is aware that some groups of people might not have access to the Internet and this might make the study difficult and thus hinder participation. Groups of possible research participants such as company employees, members of professional associations or college students have email access and nearly all of them can be reached. This might make it easy for groups to be relatively easily targeted through surveys by email (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

Indeed, the use of an online survey in the context of this study was relevant, appropriate and opportune. Van Selm and Jankowski (2006:435) go to lengths to share some of the reasons for the use of an electronic survey and they greatly resonate with the researcher’s own reasons for the selection of the approach to data collection. The choice of data collection was largely influenced by the subjects who became the participants of study, in terms of numbers and access as two of the pointers. The researcher engaged an online survey where the population had access to computer and Internet. Due to Internet access, the participants who were students did not need to be on any particular place such as on campus or even a particular place on campus to take part in the survey; they could work on the survey anywhere where they had access.

Wright (2005:1) pointed out that until recently creating and conducting an online survey was a time-consuming task that required one to be familiar with the web-authoring programmes, Hyper Text Markup Language (HTML), and scripting programmes. 'Survey
monkey’, an online survey tool, was used to create and run questions. Survey monkey is software that allows users to create their own surveys (Marra & Bogu, 2006). As one designs the questionnaires, the software also makes suggestions on the kind of questions one can use.

Using ‘survey monkey’ was very educational. The programme allowed the researcher to design her own questionnaire; also it suggested options where the researcher was not sure how to phrase a question. It made the researcher’s job of designing a questionnaire very easy. The programme has been designed in a way that it makes it interesting for the researcher. The ‘survey monkey’ allowed the researcher to personalise an email that was sent out to every participant and, by doing this it increased response rate. ‘Survey monkey’ also helped to keep a detailed record of how many students had responded, whether they answered all the questions or skipped some, and it also recorded the time they responded. Because of this detailed report on response rate, it made it easier to see when the response rate was winding down; in this way follow-up emails could be sent out to remind those who had not yet completed the survey. During the interviews, one student told the researcher the reason he answered the survey was because it was addressed personally to him, and this way it made him feel that his input would be important.

Online surveys also allowed the researcher to have the convenience of automated data collection, which reduced time and effort for both researcher and participant, as the surveys are generally quick and easy to fill in. The idea of giving the pilot to colleagues and the comments they gave insured that the questionnaire was not too long, to allow participants to work on it within a short space of time. Time was an important issue for this study due to the delays experienced in the process of carrying out the research; the study was intended to have been conducted in the year 2011 and was running behind. The automated response of the ‘survey monkey’ also tracked the responses for the researcher. Once the participants had completed the survey, the survey programme remembers the participant’s email address and does not allow anyone except those using that email address access to the survey, so while Wright (2005) provides a solution, the researcher did not assign any unique codes to the questionnaire sent out.
The flexibility of the tool also meant the participants could access the survey at their own convenience within the specified time frame, or request a dateline for returning the questionnaire. Different participants have different engagements and free times that they may use to fill in the questionnaire, hence the flexibility of the online survey fit snugly into the preparation. Wright (2005:1) agrees with the observations by pointing out that one of the advantages of an online survey is that it allows access to individuals in distant locations.

Furthermore, online surveys allow a researcher to reach multitudes of people with common characteristics in a short amount of time, despite possibly being separated by great geographic distances (Wright, 2005; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006:435). The flexibility was also useful in that, due to the time available to each participant, the questionnaire was designed so it also allowed the students to fill in the questions and sections bit-by-bit till until complete. It allowed the participants to work within different time spells and did not need one long session with the questionnaire.

Another benefit of collection of data in this manner is that, as one collects responses using online surveys, the responses are transmitted to the researcher immediately via email, or posted to an HTML document or database file immediately. This gave the researcher an opportunity to conduct preliminary analyses on collected data while waiting for the desired number of responses to mount up. It was also helpful as it helped the researcher to track progress in terms of what the participants were doing in engaging with the questionnaire.

When one conducts a study, the issue of cost is never far from the researchers’ minds. Many researchers point out that an online survey saves money by moving to an electronic medium from a paper format. Paper surveys have a tendency to be costly, even when using a comparatively tiny sample and the costs of a traditional large-scale survey using mailed questionnaires can be vast. The use of online surveys circumvent this problem by
eliminating the need for paper and other costs, such as those incurred through postage, printing and data entry (Llieva et al., 2002; Watt, 1999; Witmer, Colman & Katzman, 1999).

The idea to use ‘survey monkey’ made even more sense when the researcher considered the number of emails that were to be sent out versus the number of questionnaires received and worked with. The non-returned questionnaires could have been a huge loss if the questionnaires had been hard copies. In enhancing the above viewpoint, Wright (2005:3) further states that, “Conducting online interviews, either by email, or in a synchronised ‘chat’ format, offers cost savings advantages. Costs for recording equipment, travel, and the telephone can be eliminated.” In addition, transcription costs can be avoided since online responses are automatically documented. The researcher needed to conduct research in the most economical way possible in relation to funds available for the study.

4.6 Resources and data collection tools

There are many reasons why any researcher could choose a particular method of data collection as dictated by data to be collected. This researcher has already shared that the study benefited from online survey as its first data collection method. In preparation for engaging with the survey questionnaire, literature was reviewed and several questions were chosen from the other studies, then modified and incorporated in the tool for this study. Specifically the researcher had an initial questionnaire whose design was intended to be borrowed from Lowe (2005:275). The researcher had proposed to adopt Lowe (2005) for a questionnaire design that was divided into five sections, but that changed going forward as the idea did not work well. Lowe’s (2005:1) study “explored the nature of the students’ experience of combining study with work and family life and its relevance to institutional management and higher education policy”. The researcher had to draw some questions from Lowe’s questionnaire and add her own; for this study she had to also include questions that were guided by the literature review. While Lowe’s (2005) study looked at institutional management and higher education policy, the researcher was more interested in how
working part-time on campus affected the students’ experiences of higher education at UWC.

The questionnaire took two months to design. The first draft was sent out to colleagues, classmates and a few students who had been in the work-study programme a few years previously. The intention was for the group to check for clarity, usability and any issues they could pick up in engaging with the tool. The feedback received was that the questionnaire was too long, repetitive and some of its questions unclear.

The questionnaire was reworked and tested again with a few students; this time it was found to be short, easy to understand and did not require a lot of time to fill in. The piloting of the paper for the first and second time was done through email and hard copy. The statistical analysis for Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was calculated for the questionnaire to also establish its reliability. This coefficient which is normally between 0 and 1 presents the test of reliability between different statements found in a questionnaire that was used by the researcher (Bindak, 2013). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) showed that Cronbach’s alpha coefficient “determines agreement of answers on questions targeted to a specific trait”. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient should be calculated during data analysis to determine the reliability of items or questions presented in the questionnaire (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In this study the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was found to be 0.821. Any coefficient less than 0.9 but greater than 0.8 demonstrate high reliability of the questionnaire used (Baah, Johnson & Twenefour, 2015). It was only after both the supervisor and researcher were happy with the questionnaire that it was sent to the university’s ethics committee for approval. After ethical clearance was granted, only then could the study go forward. The questionnaire was uploaded onto the ‘survey monkey’.

The electronic questionnaire with both closed and open-ended items was prepared and sent to the students. ‘Survey monkey’ online survey tool was used to generate and run
questions. The survey had thirty-two questions as informed by the conceptual framework. The tool can be found in Appendix 7. It covered concepts across the five aims, as indicated by the attached questionnaire, and the conceptual framework of the study. The thirty-two questions covered the conceptual framework as stated below.

The first section had seven questions that dealt with participation in the work-study programme; the second section had nine questions to deal with effects and challenges students’ experience. The third section had five questions and dealt with coping strategies. The fourth section of the questionnaire had nine questions and dealt with students’ financial responsibilities such as asking who paid their fees and their living arrangements, referred to in this study under the section I named Demographics, due to the manner in which it is populated (see Appendix 1). The last section of the questionnaire had one question and it invited students to give general comments on the work-study programme.

In terms of the content of the questionnaire, the first part of the questionnaire had a welcome page that introduced the study. There was a consent form, for students to tick. The second part had a heading titled ‘Participation’, which asked students about their participation experience in the work-study programme. The third part of the questionnaire was titled ‘Coping strategies’ and it asked what kind of strategies students used to balance working, studying and maintaining a social life, and the last chapter was titled ‘Facts about yourself’ and it asked students for demographic information about the student. After the questionnaire was piloted it was adapted again and then implemented.

4.7 Sampling for the electronic survey

In order for work to begin, the researcher had to determine the sample size needed. After reading numerous texts on ‘Determining appropriate sample size in survey research,’ the researcher came across Cochran’s (1977) correction formula that is used to conduct the final sample size needed. In the same work, it is stated that selecting a sample for a survey is based on probability from a predetermined population. Then the data created from the
sample may be used to generalise to the larger group. The author observed that the sample size for each survey is always informed by the objective of the study. Since different studies have different objectives, it means there would be different ways of attainment of sample size; the size is therefore fluid and not fixed.

Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001:43) state that “One of the common goals of survey research is to collect data representative of a population. The researcher uses information gathered from the survey to generalize findings from a drawn sample back to a population, within the limits of random error”.

The idea of representation in research came at the inception of the study though, for the purposes of the electronic survey, a statistically representative sample was not sought, as a mini-census was being conducted. Regarding the issues of representativeness, this was analysed in terms of gender and faculty variables. Because the students in the programme are dispersed across campus, the students that were chosen for interviews were not representative of the students in the work-study programme overall. Rather, using the logic of qualitative sampling, the researcher selected participants on the basis of whether they had been part of the work-study programme in 2011. This made them experienced and able to share their experiences on the programme, as the data was collected a year after they had been part of the programme. In any case, to be considered for participation in the study, students should have been at least in their second year of study and at least should have been working for more than six months on the work-study programme; that way it was believed that they had accumulated some experience of the programme.

4.8 Monitoring returns and response rates

For any researcher, the concern of whether participants will respond to the survey can be a very daunting one, especially when the data is not collected face-to-face. As a student who is conducting a study using an on-line survey, the concern was about the amount and quality of responses expected, especially since the participants were the students who might sometimes not even open their student emails. But, according to the literature reviewed for
the study, people do respond to surveys and they are likely to have a high return rate. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:260), one should monitor the rate at which the questionnaires get returned. What happened with the survey was that after sending out the survey, many students responded within the first hour.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:260) advise that when the questionnaires are returned, one should carefully record the varying rates of return by creating a ‘return rate graph’. They advise that, from the first day the questionnaires are sent out, they should be labelled day-by-day, then after that all have been returned, the questionnaires should be logged onto a graph. They further advise that, in order to avoid confusion, one should have two graphs. The first graph is to be used to report on the cumulative number of returned questionnaires, while the second graph will be used to show the number of questionnaires returned each day (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:260). It is very important that the dates when the questionnaires are sent out should also be noted, as they would help the researcher to know when to send out the follow-up questionnaires reminding those who have not replied to reply. For the study, the researcher took Babbie and Mouton’s (2001) advice to draw up a graph designed to monitor the response rate. This helped the researcher when she needed to send out follow-up questionnaires. The suggestion they had was effective and was implemented without any modifications. See below Graph 1 for the number of responses received each day.
Graph 1: Return of response rate

As the researcher has already alluded to earlier in the chapter, when it came to sampling, the goal was not to generalise the results of the study to all students who were in the work-study programme in 2011. Instead, she wanted to study individual experiences of participants. But the researcher realised that it was important to get generalities related to the study, hence the method was chosen that would allow the researcher to access the wider population. Due to the choices made and the method chosen, sampling became an issue of concern to ensure that the sample chosen by the researcher was representative.

### 4.9 Response rates

During the data collection process, the researcher found herself involved in the debate of what was a good response rate for an Internet survey. The ideal for the researcher is to have all participants respond, so that one may make generalisations and make claims based on evidence from a bigger group. Authors like Babbie and Mouton (2001:260); Tuten, Urban and Bosnjak, (2000); Van Selm and Jankowski (2006); Bandilla (2002) and Wright (2005), however, all point out that receiving a hundred per cent response rate is highly unlikely.
Tuten, Urban and Bosnjak (2000:8) state that response rates are of crucial interest since, when the responses are higher, it is more likely that the study will almost be representative of the parameters of the population sampled. Unlike mailed questionnaires in hard copy form, (Dillman, 2000) and telephone surveys (Frey, 1976), both cited in Tuten et al. (2000:8), the level of knowledge of activities that could improve response rates to Internet surveys is still limited. Researchers still have limited knowledge of prescriptive techniques that may improve response rate to Internet surveys.

Despite the limitations alluded to above, some researchers have shown that there are many variables that might make people respond to online surveys (Tuten et al., 2000). When Tuten (1998) conducted her study, she found that people or individuals “tend to open electronic mail messages based on familiarity of the name identified in the mailbox, and to delete those messages from individuals they did not know” (Tuten et al., 2000:8). Yet with this disadvantage towards online surveys, Bosnjak and Batinic (2000) continued to identify four categories of motive for participation in Internet surveys, namely: curiosity, opportunity to contribute to research, self-knowledge and material incentives.

In borrowing from the observations from the literature review, in order to enhance and encourage students to respond to the questionnaire online, the researcher addressed the survey by adding their names to the tool, as mentioned earlier.

In order to calculate the required sample needed in order to generalise data in regard to faculties, Cochran’s (1977) formula was used. There were 416 total responses to the survey. According to Cochran’s (1977) correction formula, in order for me to generalise the results in terms of gender, the researcher would need 201 female and 180 male students for the studies to be considered representative in terms of gender. When the study was conducted the researcher got 188 students indicating they were female and 150 indicating there were male, two students chose to not say and 76 skipped the question. Bartlett et al. (2001:46)
point out that, when a researcher has a captive audience, the (required) size of sample may be easily attained.

Since the study was carried out in an educational set-up, and like many social research studies, data collection methods such as surveys and other voluntary participation methods are often used. For some of those studies the response rates are typically well below 100%. Participation in the study was voluntary and this affected the response rate and as a result the researcher did not have 100% response rate in terms of gender, but had close representation. From the sample, 95% of the female and 80% of the male students returned their questionnaires. The researcher can assume that there is representation based on the number of students who responded, as their numbers were close to those needed in terms of gender within the sphere of the formula applied.

In order to calculate the required sample according to faculties, Cochran’s (1977) correction formula was used. According to Cochran’s formula, the researcher needed 72 students from the faculty of Arts, 45 from the Community and Health Science, 115 from Economic and Management Sciences, 20 from the Education faculty, 28 from Law, 100 from Science and four from those whose faculties were unknown. When the study was conducted 59(82%) from Arts, 31(69%) from Community and Health Sciences (CHS), 85(74%) from the Economic and Management (EMS), 33(60%) from Education, 19(68%) from Law and 112(89%) from the Sciences; 77(18.5%) chose not to reply to the question. The researcher can assume that in this area too there was representation, based on the number of students who responded, as they were once again close to those needed in terms of faculties. Presentation of the figures in percentile form added clarity for me and validated better the response and participation rates, hence the choice to do so.

There were 338 participants who responded to the questionnaire; when they were asked for their ages 76 of participants did not give any response in this section. When it came to gender there were 340 who responded against 76 of non-responses. To get the break-down in terms of gender, the researcher cross-tabbed the questions against gender.
From a total of 338 students, 131 indicated that they were females between the ages of 18-24 years old; 84 were male between the same ages. Forty students indicated that there were female and male. Forty-six indicated that they were 25 to 30 years. Eleven students indicated that were female and 12 were male of between 30 and 39 years. Five students indicated that they were female, five male and two students indicated that they were male and 50- years-old or older. Furthermore, two of the participants (1%) did not specify their gender.

The University of the Western Cape is an institution that has opened its doors to students from all countries. We asked the students who took part in the survey to indicate which countries they came from. We found out that the majority of students who replied to the survey (about 271) were from South Africa; 68 indicated they came from other countries.

Most of the studies by researchers like Moreau and Leathwood (2006) and Robbins (2010) have argued that students participate in part-time employment to pay for their fees. It was important that this issue was also explored, as it helped to give a picture of who pays for the students in the work-study programme in 2011. The students indicated that the work-study programme had the third highest contributor towards students’ fees, with 102 students indicating that the programme was responsible for contributing towards their fees.

This showed the programme was meeting its objective which was to address and assist “...severe financial constraints” that students experienced. The first most frequent choice was NSFAS with 117 response rate. The second most frequent choice was ‘scholarship’ with a response rate of 104. The third most frequent response rate was ‘my parent/other family members’ with 87 response rate. The fifth most frequent rate was ‘other employment’ with a response rate of 17. The sixth most frequent response rate was ‘savings’ with a 16 response rate and the last most frequent response rate was ‘bank/study loan’ with a 12 response rate.
Literature has argued that students who now take part in higher education are no longer traditional students. Institutions are now places where anybody who wishes to take part in higher education can do so. Because of this change, we can assume that because some of the students are no longer young and free of responsibilities, students who are partaking in work-study might have dependants, so the students were asked if they had any dependants who were financially dependent on them.

Two hundred and thirty-two (70%) of the students who replied to the survey indicated that they had nobody who was financially dependent on them, while 102 (30%) students indicated that they had dependants.

4.10 Survey data analysis

The researcher’s approach to data analysis at Stage One was informed by the observation that online surveys, due to their design, are time-saving, with special reference to the analysis stage. Most of the initial work would have been done at earlier stages, as observed by Wright (2005).

After the data collection time was closed, the survey was closed and the data was downloaded into Excel and SPSS. The data was analysed, using a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 software programme and also Excel. Results of this study include presentation by means of frequencies and percentages distributions, tables and graphs (to summarise data), correlations as well as cross-tabulations, together with a chi-square test for the association between the dependent and independent variables of the study. It was analysed using standard statistical analysis (mainly univariate and bivariate descriptive statistics), using SPSS.
4.11  Research Stage Two: semi-structured interviews

As stated earlier in the chapter, Stage Two was born out of the need to probe and elaborate on the inputs that emerged from the online survey. The second stage of the research involved in-depth interviews with eight students who used to be in the work-study programme at UWC. Interviewees were identified from students who had (1) participated in the online survey and (2) agreed to participate in follow-up interviews, as per survey questionnaire. For this purpose, a question had been included in the consent form, asking survey respondents if they would like to be contacted for a follow-up interview (see Appendix 2).

In this manner, the survey helped provide the quantitative baseline data, and acted as a diagnostic tool for identifying potential interviewees for the second, qualitative stage of the research.

The study aimed to make the interview process a conversation between the researcher and the participants of the study, as described by Babbie (2007:306). Fortunately, during the data collection, this was achieved. The approach to the interviews proved useful as it allowed the researcher to further explore some of the questions that were not answered, or not answered well, in the questionnaire, or arose from the analysis of the survey. Permission to use an audio recorder, together with note-taking, was sought from interviewees before the interview process. The students interviewed were also informed again about the purposes of the study and asked to sign consent forms to indicate that they agreed to participate in interviews. The form was the same as the one they had signed for the online survey.

4.11.1  Construction of interview questions and interview process

Before the start of the one-on-one interviews, respondents were contacted and a time and place for the interview was arranged. The respondents were send the information sheet
before the interview in order for them to familiarise themselves with the study. The general interview framework was adapted to the individual respondent (looking at his/her survey response), the basis of which was the survey questionnaire, and the student’s responses to it. Thus, ahead of each interview, the survey responses of the student concerned were printed out and notes for the researcher were done on the side-lines; this helped in terms of the areas for probing with each student. Key questions were flagged for probing and further elaboration in the interview.

During the interview the researcher went with the students through key questions emerging from her or his survey responses. The students were asked questions depending on each student’s responses; follow-up questions were asked accordingly to bring out the core of the matter and for clarification. For example, the researcher would listen to the response and refer to the response in the questionnaire and say to a student “Oh is that so? But I thought I remember you looked at the issue differently in the interview?” This helped the students to present what they meant with their response and more data was received in this manner. The researcher was also able to pick up contradictions and this gave her the opportunity to probe further in order to be certain about which one was the correct response. Thus, for the interviews, the researcher used the same questionnaire as indicated on the electronic survey and, depending on the specific points of clarifications needed, the author added or removed points to probe accordingly.

During all interviews, all participants were reminded of the purpose of the interview, together with ethical considerations involved. In readiness for the interviews, the interviews started off with general questions about students, their interests and plans for the future. As soon as the students relaxed, the researcher introduced the survey questions.

During the interview, the researcher compiled field notes which assisted with additional data; these became useful as interviews were transcribed and data was coded using themes. All the work that happened depended on the themes that informed the conceptual framework of the study. The data was categorised into the five aims of the study which
were also directly related to the framework of the study. Then each category was analysed, looking for commonalities and differences between students’ experiences. Representative quotes were selected, analysed, discussed and ultimately edited for conciseness.

4.11.2 Reasons for conducting semi-structured interviews
At the initial stage of the interviews the questions had initially been structured questions, but as the interview progressed it became apparent to the researcher that she would need to have semi-structured interviews; in this way respondents were allowed to have freedom in the interview and this yielded the researcher rich data. The interview process was like a conversation between the researcher and the students, as Babbie (2007:306) describes. This made the interview process less stressful and it allowed the researcher and the student to be relaxed. It also made the interviewed student, more open to be interviewed and this provided rich data. This proved to be useful as it allowed the researcher to explore some of the questions that could not be answered in a quantitative questionnaire or that arose from the analysis of the survey data. One-on-one interviews were held with about eight respondents.

The format of semi-structured interviews helps a researcher to explore new lines of inquiry; it further helps identify gaps, pickup on contradictions and, in the process, allows the researcher to ask for clarification, where there might be misunderstanding (Saunders et al., 2000:245-246).

The semi-structured interviews helped in the identification of gaps; contradictions picked up allowed the researcher to ask for clarification and pick up on areas that seemed to be difficult for interviewees to elaborate on. The semi-interview was also used to validate the responses from the survey; some of the questions were closed while others were open and this allowed the researcher to probe and ask questions.
4.11.3 Selecting respondents to the semi-structured interviews

Respondents were selected for the manner in which they had answered the survey questions. After receiving the questionnaires, the researcher selected students from those who said they were coping and those who said they were not. The second group were selected based on the various job categories students did: tutors, administrative assistant, lab assistant, and research assistant. Lastly, the group chosen was based according to whether they were South African citizens or non-citizens. In this manner, the researchers ought to achieve the widest range of variation from among the survey respondents.

Even though an email was sent and twenty students were invited according to the criteria mentioned above, only eight responded. This happened despite the offer to students that the interviews would take place where they would feel most comfortable, in order to make their participation easier.

In order to create a good rapport, the researcher offered drinks and snacks and the students chose the meeting places. The early moments of the encounter were about students being encouraged to talk about themselves and their interests, and this made the interviews easy for both of us, as witnessed by laughter. Though for interviews we had targeted 30 minutes per participant, the lengths of interviews ended up ranging from 45 minutes to one and a half hours.

The students who eventually took part in one-on-one interviews included four women and four men. All had been part of the work-study programme for more than six months. The students were also from different age groups. The first male student was over 50, married, a father, registered for a master’s course and an international student. The second male student was in his 30s, worked as a gym instructor in a supervisory position, was an ex-army officer, stayed with his grandmother and was single. The third male student also worked in the gym; he was an undergraduate, single, and stayed on campus. The fourth male worked in the library as a student assistant, was single, a PhD candidate, and an international student.
The first female student was in her early twenties and worked at the computer lab; she was single, an undergraduate who stayed at home with her parents. The second female had previously worked as an administrative assistant, was a Bachelor of Commerce student, and was repeating her study year. She stayed on campus. The third female student was in her 30s, a single mother, master’s student and an international student. The last female was a PhD candidate who worked as a tutor, was single, stayed on campus, and was South African.

In order to ensure confidentiality, the researcher gave the participants pseudonyms which were used during the interviews and even during the transcription of the audio tapes. Thus, the students’ actual names were changed in order to enhance their anonymity and to prevent them from being traced. In addition, since many of the students talked about other employees in their interviews, anyone mentioned by the participants was also assigned a pseudonym.

### 4.11.4 Semi-structured interviews – data analysis and representation

Since the researcher conducted one interview per day, this allowed her to note down some of the impressions observed in the interviews. During the transcribing there were some interviews that were not easy to understand on the tape and they had to be played repeatedly. After the tapes had been transcribed, the transcription notes were sent back to students to be verified. When it came to analysing the interview data, there was a very clear framework and that helped the researcher to know what questions to ask in the interview; it also helped the researcher to know what to look for in the interview transcripts. This was done on the basis of the concepts that had been identified in the conceptual framework and the empirical dimensions that informed interview questions.

The data was analysed according to the aims which informed the study. The process was made easier because the author had clear aims, a basic conceptual framework, and a survey questionnaire; all of these served as guides and thus were also used later when interview analysis took place. Thus, after the collection of qualitative data, the first step was first-level coding and then the data was roughly coded into research aims for analysis. The transcribed
material was later read over with close attention. As the researcher worked with the interview data, the similarities, differences and contrasts that emerged began to be drawn out. The transcripts were analysed using standard qualitative data analysis methods (e.g. coding, pattern-matching and interpretation) (cf. Banister, Burman and Paker 1991; Smith, Harré & Van Langehove, 1995).

In order to enhance the representation of the analysed data, the researcher decided to incorporate vignettes to highlight data that stood out for her during the analysis of interviews. Vignettes are described as “short stories about hypothetical characters in specified circumstances, to whose situation the interviewee is invited to respond” (Finch 1987:105). Finch’s definition does not fully fit with this study as the researcher is not trying to tell stories about hypothetical characters, but the characters are real (even though their names are changed to keep them anonymous). Hughes’ (1998:381) definition of ‘vignette’ fits better; he describes it as “stories about individuals, situations and structures which can make reference to important points in the study of perceptions, beliefs and attitudes”. The researcher used vignettes in data analysis because they provided evidence of the vast range of student experiences, by highlighting distinctive and non-conforming examples of individual students’ experiences.

4.12 Quality assurance of the study

Joppe (2000:1), as cited in Golafshani (2003:598) defines reliability as: “…the extent to which results are consistent over time.” The issue of consistency touches directly on the ability of the tool to maintain the precise account of the population that is being studied. An instrument that is able to perform in this manner is therefore accepted for its reliability. Due to the reliability of the instrument, the results of a study can therefore be comfortably reproduced, using a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be dependable. For this study, when the interviewer engaged with the interviews, she addressed the issue of ‘low-inference descriptors’ through the use of audio recorder to capture data, and to ensure that, as data was transcribed, she listened repeatedly so as to be able to carefully present the data (Silverman, 2001).
The extent to which the investigation concisely measures that which it is intended to measure and how honest the research results are, is what makes the study valid. Validity, for that reason, has to be a sign of how much the research tool allowed the researcher to explain the objectives and aims of the study. According to Joppe (2000:1), “Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others.”

The validity of the survey data was made certain by piloting the questionnaire to some students, lecturers and colleagues during the early stages of survey questionnaire development. Piloting of the questionnaire was done until the questionnaire was ready to be uploaded and distributed to students. The students were informed beforehand of the survey. An information sheet concerning the study was provided, by offering a summary of the research. The piloting of the survey ensured that any issues that might affect the relevant data were dealt with in order to ensure that the electronic survey would collect reliable data.

The validity of the interviews relied heavily on the validity and reliability of the survey data, as the interview questions were informed by seeking clarity from the survey data. Each interview was specially constructed for the specific participant. The great strength of qualitative research is validity in the sense of trustworthiness of the data obtained; individuals are interviewed in sufficient detail for their version to be taken as true, correct, complete and believable reports of the views and experiences. The view is echoed by the work of Hakim (1987:27). It is also important to note that different words are used to refer to validity; they may be truth or goodness of fit or others.

In order to furthermore ensure validity and reliability, data was collected from diverse obtainable sources. In other words, validity and reliability were enhanced by triangulation, as different methods for data collection were used. Triangulation is defined as “a method used by qualitative researchers to check and establish validity in their studies by analysing a research question from multiple perspectives” Guion, Diehl, and McDonald (2011:1).
Triangulation as used in this study represents multiple efforts to reduce the possibility of over-relying on a single way of data collection. Qualitative research engaged in this manner makes most of each method and minimises weaknesses that may be inherent in a single strategy. The questions of how to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire were addressed throughout the study.

### 4.13 Ethical considerations

It is imperative that at this juncture the researcher discusses the ethical considerations that were crucial for the study. The researcher’s justification is to observe and discuss the different processes engaged with the participants’ issues of ethics. Studies have a way of sharing information that may touch on sensitivities around people’s lives, hence the need to be ethical in approaching the study. The idea of ethics is to minimise any possible harm to the people who have given so much to the study by providing data (Olesen, 1994). It is important that participants are protected and none of their private information is disclosed to anyone (Neuman, 1997). The necessity of the observation became clearer when participants responded to certain questions and issues touching on colleagues or bosses.

In order to ensure that the participants were aware of the ethical measures that the researcher had put in place to protect them, the first page of the electronic survey had an information sheet explaining the study as well as a consent form. The idea was to ensure that the students knew that they would participate in the study on a voluntary basis. They were in no way coerced to do so. It is crucial to ensure that participation is voluntary (Trochim, 2002). The way the system worked was that there was an option of yes or no on the consent. If the students clicked on no on the consent form, the survey went to the last page and closed to show they were not participating, but if they consented to taking part in the survey they had to click yes and the rest of the document would unfold. Appendix 3 presents ethical clearance letter which was given by the Senate Research Committee of University of Western Cape.
Appendix 4 is a copy of the questionnaire that was designed using ‘survey monkey’ used in the survey. In addition, interviewees were informed of the purposes of the interview and requested to fill in the consent form before the interviews were conducted. The ideas are supported by the work of Banister et al. (1991) and Smith and Van Langehoven (1995). All students who participated in the survey were guaranteed that any information they provided to the researcher could not be traced back to the respondents.

The respondents’ names or identities were not disclosed to anybody. The students ‘actual job categories were also changed in order to enhance their anonymity and to prevent them from being traced. In addition, since many of the students talked about other employees in their interviews, anyone mentioned by the participants was assigned a pseudonym as well. Lastly, upon completion of the study, all data collected would be stored at the Education Faculty (HEMA programme) for five years and additional records would be deleted.

4.14 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the research methodology of this study, explain the sample selection, describe the procedure used in designing the instrument, collect the data, and provide an explanation of the statistical procedures used to analyse the data.

The formulation of the research questions, together with the aims, was informed by the literature review. The literature review guided the conceptualisation and operationalisation which, in turn, guided the type of research methodology suitable for the means to collect data and analyse it. The study made use of two-staged mixed methods to collect data, quantitative and qualitative. This chapter has outlined and discussed the methodology in detail.

The use of the ‘survey monkey’ was a learning experience for the researcher. The software helped in the design of the questionnaire by making suggestions. It helped the researcher to
validate the email addresses and eliminated students who stated they did not wish to take part in the study. Once the data was send out, ‘survey monkey’ helped keep a record of how many students responded and whether they responded to all questions. It also helped to give a descriptive view of the data collected. Lastly, ‘survey monkey’ was a good tool to use as it helped the researcher to contact many students at once without her having to go and physically find the students. It also saved the researcher money as she did not have to print out questionnaires.

The risk of using ‘survey monkey’ was at a time when the study was conducted. It was weeks before examination preparations and there was no guarantee that students would respond to the survey. Also, it was risky because the researcher was not sure of how many students actually had access to a computer and network.

The next chapter is titled data analysis; it provides us with an analysis of the data that was collected in relation to the aims that were used to gather it. It describes and discusses the experiences of students on the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape in 2011.
CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

5.1 Overview of this chapter

The previous chapter covered research design and methodology. This chapter presents general biographical data collected and provides different analyses of the results of the survey and the interviews. There were 416 work-study students who responded and started filling the survey. Of these, only 384 students completed more than 25% of the required information. All other students just filled their one or two starting questions. Then finaleight students were randomly chosen to take part in qualitative data collection which was collected through the semi-structured interviews. The chapter starts with the presentation of the demographic data of the participants.

The chapter goes further to present the descriptive data from the survey, which is presented in graphs, tables and in text. The discussion of the findings draws on the survey data itself, the interview material as well as the literature review and review of institutional documents. Interview material is also presented and analysed by use of vignettes, representing mini-case studies of the experiences and views of interview respondents in relation to a specific issue. The last section of the analysis summarises the discussions, and various suggestions and recommendations on how the work-study programme can be improved. This chapter focuses on the correlation between the biographical data and the different aims that guided the study.

5.2 Biographical data of participants

The analysis in this section will focus on questions separately, to show the different trends through the percentages; this will then present the mean and the standard deviation (SD) where necessary. Each presentation will demonstrate how the student’s choice fits in with the group.
Of the 187 females, 82.9% were South Africans while 17.1% were from other countries. From the 148 male participants, 75.7% were SA while 24.3% were from other countries. Of the females, 38.8% were between 18-24 years old, 11.8% were between 25-30 years of age, 3.3% were between 31-39 years while 1.5% were between 40-49 years.

5.2.1 Which category below includes your age?

Table 2: Age category of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 - 24 years old</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>64.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 30 years old</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>89.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 39 years old</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>96.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 49 years old</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>99.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 years &amp; older</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>340</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 illustrates that in terms of the response rate we had a total of 340 students who were part of the work-study programme responding to the survey questionnaire. Of those who applied, 218 were between the ages of 18-24 years old. The second highest category was those who were between the ages of 25-30 years old and the third group were those who were between the ages of 30-39 years old – 23 in total. The lowest response rates came from those who were between the ages of 40-50 years old with 12 responses.
5.2.2 Nationality

Table 3: Countries of origin of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 illustrates the countries of origin of the respondents. In the paper we had two options for students to choose from, South Africa and the other option was other with an option of naming the country. The majority of the students who responded to the survey indicated that they were from South Africa with a 79.6% and 20.4% were from other African countries.

5.2.3 Which faculty are you in?

Table 4: Faculties in which respondents indicated they were enrolled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty of Arts</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Arts</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Community &amp; Health Sciences</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Dentistry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Economic &amp; Management Sciences</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Education</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Law</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Natural Sciences</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 above shows that 17.4% of the students who responded to the survey were from the faculty of Arts, 8.8% were from the faculty of community and health sciences. It also indicates that 0.3% of them were from the dentistry department, while 25.1% were from
the economic and management sciences. The table also shows that 25.1% were from the education department. The table points out that 9.7% were from law faculty and 33% were from the faculty of natural sciences.

5.2.4 Are you currently a registered University of the Western Cape student?

Table 5 above shows that 90.8% of respondents indicated that they were registered students at the time of the study and 9.2% indicated that they were no longer students at the University of the Western Cape.

Table 5: Whether students were registered at the UWC at the time of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.5 Student accommodation

Table 6: Place of residence during studying

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, on campus</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not on campus</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>99.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather not say</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates whether student stayed on campus or not. 38.9% of respondents were staying on campus, 60.5% stayed off campus, and 0.6% indicated that they would rather not say.
5.3 Descriptive data presentation and interviews

This section presents an analysis of the answers that participants provided for different questions.

5.3.1 Time involved in the work-study programme

The students varied in their time/period of involvement in the work-study programme. They were asked how long they had been in the work-study programme.

Table 7: The period of involvement in the work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One year</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>39.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two years</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than three years</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 indicates that the number of students who had been involved in the work-study programme for two years formed the greatest group (34.1%) in the sample, while those who participated for more than three years constituted only 10.2%. The mean was found to be 2.82 which is between 2 (one year) and 3 (two years) with the standard deviation (SD) being 1.173.

5.3.2 Participants’ taking part in other paid work than work-study

Table 8: Participants taking part in work other than work-study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>79.2</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather not say</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 indicated that there were 79.2% of the participants who only depended on the work-study programme while 16.6% were taking part in the work-study programme and also had other paid work. A small group of 4.2% opted not to mention.

5.3.3 Type of work done in the work-study programme

Table 9: Type of work done in the work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tutor</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lab/Practical assistant</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Assistant</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Assistant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin Assistant</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>62.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Assistant</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two jobs</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three and more jobs</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

work that students were involved in in the work-study programme of the students. There were 28.2% who indicated that they worked as tutors and received the highest response. According to the table above, this is followed by 13.3% who indicated that they worked as Lab/Practical assistants. Those who had indicated they worked as Research assistants had a 2.1% response rate. Of the work, 0.3% indicated that they worked as community assistants. Admin assistants had a response of 18.9%. Those who worked as library assistants had a response rate of 4.5%. There were others who worked in other job categories that had not been provided as options, making up 6.4%. When the options were designed, the researcher realised that because of the nature of the work-study programme, students could move from one job category to another and so we had 10.4% indicating that they worked more than one job. There were others who had worked more than three jobs since they had joined the work-study programme; they made up of 16%. 
5.3.4 The reasons for taking part in the work-study programme

Table 10: The reasons why students partake in the work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay my academic fees</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To pay for my residence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To pay for food</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To help support my family members</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve my skills/knowledge</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To gain work experience</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To maintain my standard of living</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had no choice but to work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any two reasons</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three reasons</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>67.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four and more reasons</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 illustrates the reasons why students are involved in the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape. ‘To pay for academic fees’ comprised a 10.1% response rate. ‘To pay for my residence’ comprised a 0.5%, and ‘to pay for food’ was 2.1%, while ‘to help support my family members’ had 3.7%. ‘To improve my skills and knowledge’ has 5%, ‘to gain work experience’ has 3.7% response rate. ‘To maintain my standard of living’ had 1.3% and those who chose ‘I had no choice but to work’ had a response rate of 1.6%. This question was a multiple choice question; students were allowed to choose more than one reason. There was a group of students who indicated that they had two reasons and they had a response rate of 15.9%. Another group had more than three reasons, with a response rate of 22.2%. Those who had more four and more reasons had a response rate of 32.8%.

After the survey, interviews were conducted with eight students who were in the work-study programme, who had completed the survey, and who indicated that they were willing
to be interviewed as a follow-up to the survey. As noted in Chapter Four, they were purposely selected, partly on the basis of their demographic backgrounds, partly because of their responses to the survey. The interviewees were asked to elaborate on their reasons why they were in the work-study programme.

The reasons given by interviewees of why they participated in the work-study programme gave further insight into the results of the survey. David, Thomas, Zweli and Nosipho all cite financial reasons for being in the programme. Zweli said in his interview that “the first reason is, that I wanted to have money”. He came to UWC in 2007 without having a bursary to pay for his fees. He soon realised that “... I have to do this and pay that, and pay for my fees.”

When Thomas was asked for his reasons for being in the work-study programme, he stated “financial constraints”. Moreover, as an international student without a scholarship, work-study is one of the few opportunities open to him for gainful employment. This is further explored in David’s Vignette 1. David’s reasons for being on the work-study programme fit in to Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs where his needs can be described as physiological needs. David came from a socio-economic background where finances were in short supply and he needed to study and at the same time support his family for whom he was the bread-winner; this impacted on his student experience at the university.

**Vignette 1: David’s Goliath**

David is a refugee student from the DR Congo who studies for a master’s degree in the Faculty of Arts. He is in his fifties, married with school-going children, and the bread-winner of his family; his wife is a stay-at-home wife. Before he left the DRC to seek asylum in South Africa, David was a headmaster of a school in his country. Because of his status as a refugee, he indicated he was unable to get a job outside university and so he relied on the income he got from the work-study programme. For many refugee students and international students in general, the work-study programme offers the most accessible means to earn an income in South Africa while studying at UWC.
David further states: “If I had money I would not do work-study, I would be doing my own work. It’s mainly financial.” He is aware that his current financial constraints are only a temporary sacrifice, and sees his studies as an investment into the future: “For now I don’t mind my reasons for working as in the future I will earn more.”

While finances are an important reason to participate in the work-study programme, David and some of the other students interviewed cited other reasons, in some cases even more important. Mwalimu is perhaps the model case for that; his experience is explored in vignette 2.

**Vignette 2: For the love of teaching**

*Mwalimu is an international master’s student in Education from Tanzania. He is a single male from a middle class family background who has much support from his family and is on a generous scholarship that takes care of all his financial needs. He has been trained as a teacher but has never worked as one, as he continued with postgraduate studies immediately after gaining his professional diploma. Nonetheless he loves teaching.*

*When Mwalimu was asked why he was participating in the work-study programme, he indicated that it was only partly for financial reasons. “I cannot say I have financial difficulties but just to have some cash to have stuff. The main motive is that I am a teacher, so you know I have this passion to teach.”*

*Participation in the work-study programme is therefore not necessarily only about addressing a student’s financial needs; tutors especially are hired primarily on the basis of their academic performance. Other factors, such as suitability for, and perhaps a love of, teaching, may be important reasons for a student to participate in the programme.*
Mwalimu felt that teaching was his vocation. He loved teaching and acting as a tutor allowed him to do so. Similarly, when Nyaka was asked why he was in the programme he said: “It’s for the love of it, I love it and it’s what I am doing.” Even David, whose financial needs are most pressing, saw the programme as more than just a way to earn a living. For him it is also a tool for exchange; he exchanged his considerable professional experience and teaching skills for a basic income. Because ‘to gain work experience’ and ‘to improve my skills/knowledge’ were the most frequent choices of survey respondents, during the interviews students were specifically asked what skills they thought they had gained from participating in the work-study programme.

For Zweli, according to Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs, all his needs had been met and this made him fall under the self-actualisation section. He felt that because of the work-study programme, he had been able to have a good student experience and as a result it affected his university experience. He also falls in the future time perspective theory where he was aware that the programme was temporary but that it was contributing to his future. This is illustrated in Vignette 3 where Zweli’s situation is explored.

**Vignette 3 Skills, jobs, certificates**

Zweli is a PhD Candidate in Statistics, and he is very passionate about his studies. He is on an NRF scholarship which covers his basic financial needs. Zweli works as a tutor and as a computer lab assistant (statistics tutor) while pursuing his PhD. He feels that the job he does as tutor has deepened and refreshed his subject knowledge: “It gave me an insight to remember what I did when I did my first degree, because after I finished my first degree I could not remember that first year stuff. [Working as statistics tutor] made me go back to the beginning. It was indeed a nice experience”. Zweli also indicated that while he did not find the job difficult at all, he did learn valuable skills and experience.

On the day of the interview, Zweli told me that he was leaving for a job interview the next day and that he believed that work-study had given him the skills he needed to gain access into the world of work.
On the one hand, Zweli’s case illustrates that students value work-study as a chance to deepen their knowledge and gain skills that may be relevant in the labour market. On the other hand, there is currently no form of recognition or certification that the students were ever part of the programme. Considering the importance that students ascribe to work-study as a way to ‘gain work experience’ and ‘improve my skills and knowledge’ (see survey), some form of certification of attendance should be considered.

Zweli indicated that work-study had given him the skills he needed to gain access into the working world. When asked to specify the skills he said “exposure to the research environment” and having been given “major teaching and marking responsibilities”.

Lastly, there are also contrasting perspectives on the skills issue. Shira found the idea of ‘skills gain’ very funny and laughed heartily when I asked her about it. She said that her work had been “mostly admin” and that she was not sure if she was ever going to use these skills. Considering that she was now working towards a B.Com Degree in Finance, she might still realise how valuable the exposure to an administration workplace was in her professional development.

The implications of the findings of the survey and the interviews are that questions of skills development will need to be taken more seriously and thus take a more central place in the conceptualisation of the work-study programme. Currently, the work-study programme is administered by the financial aid office and through faculty-based work-study coordinators. One must ask: Is this location of the programme ideal for considering work-study as part of the holistic learning experience and career development of students?

Zweli’s, Nyaka’s and James’ cases provide us with proof of the importance of considering a certification of participation in the work-study programme, as these particular students stressed how much work-study was ‘a contribution to their CV’. All the students that were interviewed indicated that before and during the time they were in the work-study programme received training, (for example, those who worked for audio visual
services), they also received training when they got the job in order to familiarise themselves with different audio systems as they were responsible for all systems on campus. Whenever a new system came out, they received more training.

They believed that the training helped them positively contribute towards the jobs they worked in. Nosipho was one such student; she said: “We help out during conferences and sometimes they are international, so we have delegates from other countries and they don’t know how to use our computer system, so before conference we go in and show them how to use it”. Considering this, a further implication of the findings here is therefore that participation in the work-study programme should perhaps be noted on the academic transcript or certified separately (e.g. as certificates of attendance).

To summarise the findings related to the first aim of the study, to look into reasons why students take part in the work-study programme, it was found somewhat surprisingly in the survey that skills development reasons (seeking work experience, deepening academic skills, etc.) were the highest chosen reasons why students were in the programme and that financial reasons was the second reason.

The researcher used Statistics Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) to aggregate the reasons and, when aggregated, the reasons why students were in the work-study programme, in accordance with the concept map, showed that financial reasons (e.g. fees, cost of living) were altogether the most frequently chosen reason (80%) in the programme. Thus, participation in the work-study programme from a student’s perspective is not only about addressing students’ financial needs, but also about them gaining a platform where they can gain skills that will be used when they start working.

Vignette 4 provides us with a scenario where reasons are explored.

**Vignette 4: Pocket money**

*Nosipho is a South African female law undergraduate student. She is in her early twenties and very intelligent. She comes across as happy and stress free. She stays at home with her parents. Her fees have been paid up.*
When Nosipho was asked why she was in the work-study programme she said, “I wanted to make pocket money and a friend suggested that I get a job on campus as it was convenient because I would save on travelling cost. Because of work-study I have met a lot of people and seen places on campus I never thought existed.”

Thus, in Nosipho’s case, the work-study programme provides an opportunity for her to gain pocket money, meet people; it also helps her increase confidence and skills development. This proves that the work-study programme is not only providing financially but also contributing to student development.

5.3.5 The people who provide practical or personal support

Table 11: The people who provide support either practically or personally to students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No support</th>
<th>Some support</th>
<th>Great deal of support</th>
<th>No response</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students were asked who provided practical or personal support for them. Table 11 illustrates the students’ responses. When it came to the family, students indicated they got a great deal of support from family with a response rate of 69.7%; the second choice was those with a response rate of 20.7% who indicated that they got some support from family; the third option were those who indicated that they did not receive any support, with a response rate of 8.4%. The lowest response rates were those who chose not to respond and they had 1.2 response rate.
5.3.6 Other people who provide practical or personal support

Table 12: Other forms of support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boyfriend/girlfriend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sponsorship</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University staff</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-government organisations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>19</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were other options that were presented to students as providing practical or personal support. Table 12 illustrates the responses. Spiritual support had a response rate of 5.3%, boyfriend/girlfriend had a response rate of 10.5%, other sponsorship had a response rate of 26.3%, and university staff had a response rate of 52.6% making it the highest response rate in this category. Non-government organisations had a response rate of 5.3%.

5.3.7 The important things to participants

Table 13: The important things to participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work-study programme</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University study</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-study &amp; university studies are equally important</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>378</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this group of participants, 63.2% indicated that studying at the university is their important thing while 35.4% said both work-study programme and university studies were equally important to them. This item has a mean of 2.34 and SD of 0.502 which shows that the students choices were scattered closer to the mean.
5.3.8 The negative effects that work-study have on participants and their studies

Table 14: The negative effects that work-study has on participants and their studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have less time to study than I need.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I miss classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I miss my assignment deadlines.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not well prepared for exams or tests.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am always tired and this affects my studies.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have less time for social life/sport/meeting friends.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No negative impact</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more reasons</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked about the negative impacts that work-study has on their studies, 52.6% of the students indicated that they had no negative effects. 10.3% indicated that they had less time to study than they needed, while 14.9% indicated that they had less time for social life/sport/meeting friends. Those who had experienced two or more negative reasons had a response rate of 16.1%. According to Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs as adapted for this study, because of the negative impact of studying and work, some students might have felt isolated from the whole university environment and this might have impacted their student experience. Students in the work-study programme came from different countries; they might not have adjusted well to university life and this affected their student experience.
5.3.9 The positive effects that work-study has on students

Table 15: The positive effects that work-study has on students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It helps paying for my academic fees.</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>86.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It helps paying for food.</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It helps me to support family members.</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn more about my academic subjects.</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>70.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It improves my skills (e.g. organisational &amp; time management skills).</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I meet people and enjoy social contact.</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>62.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I gain work experience.</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It helps me maintain my standard of living.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have gained more self-confidence.</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more financially independent.</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Day shifts that students work during the week

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shift</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During daytime (Monday to Friday)</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the evening (Monday to Friday)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During the day on weekends</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night shift</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At different times during the week</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than one option</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the students did not recognise these statements as positive effects of the work-study programme except for the ‘gaining work experience’ which got 71% and ‘It improves my skills’ with 69.9% participants agreeing. The statement ‘It (the work-study programme) helps paying my academic fees’ received the lowest (13.6%) number of participants who agreed with it.
5.3.10 The time for participating in work-study programme

According to Table 16 above, the majority of students indicated that they worked during day time on Monday to Friday with a response rate of 53.3%. The statement of ‘At different times’ during the week got 27.6% and 14.8% indicated that some students chose more than one option per week. The statement ‘Night shift’ received the third lowest response, with second lowest response being ‘During the day on weekends’ with a response rate of 1.1%. The last lowest response rate was .9% statement that indicated that some students worked nightshift.

5.3.11 The number of hours that participants spend on the work-study programme per week

Table 17: The number of hours a participant spends on the work-study programme per week

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 - 12 hours</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 - 20 hours</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>86.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 28 hours</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>92.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 - 36 hours</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 - 44 hours</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulltime</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 15, the majority of students indicated that they worked 10 to 12 hours per week with a response rate of 61.2%. The second highest number of hours students indicated that they worked was 13 to 20 hours with a response rate of 25%. The third chosen response rate was 21 to 28 hours with a response rate of 6.6%. The fourth choice was 37 to 44 hours with a response rate of 3.2%. The fifth lowest response rate was 29 to 36 hours with a response rate of 8%. The lowest statement chosen was ‘Fulltime’ with a response rate of 6%.
The work-study programme policy at UWC clearly states that “Flexible working hours can be arranged between departments and students. The hours are subject to 10 hours per week for undergraduate students and 15 but not more than 20 hours per week for postgraduate students”. The policy further claims that any hours that exceed the required amount will be considered excessive and a department has to motivate for approval from the work-study authorities.

The number of hours that students spent working is very important because Wang et al. (2010:92), whose study was conducted at a university in Macau China, found that the more hours students worked, the more likely it was that their academic work suffered. In agreement, Robbins (2010:104) argues that indeed the increased need for students to work long hours during the semesters impacts negatively on the quality of the educational experience.

The explanations given by interviewees about how many hours they work in regard to the work-study programme gives further insight into the results of the survey. This came up as an interesting area to cover in the interviews with students. When they were asked how many hours they worked, Zweli stated: “I work twenty hours per week”; his time was stable and did not change. James from the gym was supposed to work for two hours per day but he found himself working more hours at the gym as he indicated that he loved being at the gym. James said: “I am supposed to work 2 hours, every day, but work two hours in the morning and two hours in the evening”. He further pointed out that he does work his required hours, but the hours depended on him.

Nyaka who also worked in the gym had no set time; he worked according to how much he was in demand. From the interviews he indicated that he worked from seven in the morning till late when the gym closed. Both Nyaka and James working at their own time and they seem not to have been monitored. Mwalimu worked one hour per week, his time was set and it was monitored as he was a tutor. Nosipho worked an average of eight hours per week, while Thomas from the library also worked eight hours per week; this was because his time had been cut short and he had once worked too many hours.
David and Shira worked many hours and seemed to be okay with the number of hours they worked. When David was asked how many hours he worked he stated: “I feel like my time at the library is 24 hours, I am there all the time, for HR I am three hours per week and for work-study I must be permanent at the library every day. It is 24 hours per month and HR it is 12 hours per month”. Shira indicated that sometimes, when the office where she worked was busy, she worked sometimes for: “On average a month about eighty to ninety hours sometimes a hundred or even more, it depends”. She also indicated that she worked longer during the registration peak and according to the work-study policy this is the only time when students are allowed to work over required hours or when the department the students work in motivate for extra hours for students. The only problem with Shira’s case was that she claims that she was not paid for the extra hours; how true this is, the researcher cannot say. It seems that David was working in the required amount of hours as stated by the work-study policy; the only problem was that he was hired at work-study and HR and so he working many hours. Vignette 5 provides us with a detailed account of the number of hours that Shira worked.

Vignette 5: What a way to make a living

Shira is a South African female, full-time B.Com. undergraduate student who is currently in her last year of study. She comes from a middle class family. She is single, comes across as smart and articulate.

She started working on the work-study programme when she entered her second year of study at UWC. In 2009 and 2010 she worked in the Financial Aid Office and in 2011 she was transferred to the UWC Call Centre.

When asked how many hours she worked for the work-study programme she replied: “On average a month about eighty to ninety hours sometimes a hundred or even more, it depends.”

The work-study programme has specified the number of hours students are allowed to work as “A maximum average of 10 hours per week for undergraduate students and 15 but no more than 20 hours per week for graduate students. Yet there seem to
be students who work many more hours than allowed. This suggests that there seem to be holes in the monitoring system. Provided that Shira also claimed that she was not always paid for working extra hours, it means that the students may face the problem whereby they give up valuable time for work-study without compensation which they could rather use for studying or their social life.

For those students who worked more than the average hours required, if they got paid for the extra hours all the interviewed students denied getting paid, they indicated that this under-payment had become a norm for them. Shira had decided to quit working as this was negatively impacting her studies. She indicated that she had changed her majors twice already in order to accommodate her working hours.

From the interviews it seems that some students like Shira, James, David and Nyaka were working more than the required number of hours required of them. The hours they devote to working had somehow negatively impacted them but they had somehow managed to find ways of working around the issue of time. The work-study programme has specified the numbers of hours students are allowed to work; according to the policy: “A maximum average of 10 hours per week for undergraduate students and 15 but no more than 20 hours per week for graduate students”. Any claims of more than 40 hours for undergraduate and 80 hours for postgraduate per month would be considered excessive. Therefore any university departments which need students to work more than the stipulated hours were expected to motivate for approval from the work-study office. The work-study policy clearly states that extra hours should not be a monthly occurrence.

Among the students who were interviewed, students like Shira, James and Nyaka indicated that they were working more than the required hours but, according to the students, their departments were not motivating for the students to get paid for extra hours. This shows a crack in the work-study administration and monitoring system. The work-study policy states that rather than having students working more than required hours, the department should hire more than one assistant in order to make sure the students are not overworked.
5.3.12 The amount of money students earn per hour

Table 18: The hourly rate participants earn per hour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R 15.00</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R 19.50</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R 28.50</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R 35.50</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 illustrates the amount of money that participants earned per hour at the time of the study. R15 had the highest response rate with 48.6%. R19.50 had the second highest response rate with 26.5%. The third choice was R28.50 with a response rate of 14.8%. The fourth choice was R35.50 with a response rate of 10%.

The issue of how much money is enough will always be contested; literature indicates that full-time registered students are more likely to get paid low wages. The issue of wages is very important because the researcher hypothesised that respondents were working to gain finances in order to contribute to paying their fees. This is very important as Moreau and Leathwood (2006, p. 24) point out that respondents who came from working-class backgrounds were more likely to work. They would need to depend on other means of resources to survive. When Robbins (2010:109) conducted his study in Australia, he pointed out that most respondents were now being charged ‘a fee per subject’. They were asked to pay upfront and as a result many found themselves acquiring loans and gaining debts, so most of the respondents prefer to work in order to minimise credit costs.

Robbins (2010:103) described the money the respondents got paid as mostly low and the jobs undemanding, usually having little to do with ultimate career aspirations. He went further to indicate that ultimately the jobs assured enough income to cater for the meagre necessities of student life. What would be interesting was to have done a comparison on
how much students on work-study were paid in comparison to payment rates outside the university in the private sector, as it is known that some students also take employment outside campus, e.g., as waitresses or casual workers. But for this study no comparisons were drawn.

5.3.13 The fairness of the payment as considered by participants

Table 19: The fairness of payment as considered by the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, it is a fair pay.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, but it should be a bit more.</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, it is too little.</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, this is exploitation.</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know/no comment</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>348</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest response was category ‘Yes, but it should be a bit more’ with a response rate of 35.1%. This was followed by ‘No, it is too little’ with 34.1% responses. This finding was interesting to see as the researcher expected more students to choose the ‘No, it’s too little’ category. The third choice was ‘Yes, it is a fair pay’ with a response of 14.4%. The third response was ‘No, this is exploitation’ with 13.2% and the lowest chosen category was ‘Do not know’ with 2.9%. This is illustrated in Table 17.

This issue was interesting to investigate in the interviews with students. About 50% of the students interviewed felt that the money was enough. Zweli felt the money was too little at the beginning as he was reliant on it to pay his fees, but all this changed when he got his scholarship and the money he was earning stopped being an issue. Zweli was also employed by the department he worked in. When James was asked about the money, he said that it
was too little and in his situation it had become worse because work-study kept deducting money from him though his fees had been paid.

Nyaka also said the money was not enough but he realised that he might be getting paid more than his fellow gym assistant, partially because he was doing different types of jobs for the UWC sports federation and he was also the gym manager. Mwalimu also felt that the work he did was too much and the pay was too little. He said: “The negative was the payment or the financial reward of the programme was not sufficient”.

Shira had earlier indicated that she had sometimes worked extra hours but had never been compensated for those hours. She also felt that the money was too little and wished that her rates would go up.

David’s response was most interesting. He is dependent on money he receives from work-study and when asked if he thought the money was fair, this student said that he was not complaining as at least the university was paying him, though he did admit that the money was little and he and his family had to stretch it as much as they could. Nosipho also felt that the money was too little and she was aware that the students’ rates were not the same for all undergraduate students. During the interview she spoke of a friend who was in the same undergraduate level as she was, but got paid more money than she did. Thomas also seemed to support this issue about little money. He said the money was too little and this was because the students’ hours had been reduced and salaries cut down. He said: “We work longer hours but get little pay. Our wages were cut down last year”. He also said that they were not allowed to work more than 40 hours.

Only those students who were tutors received an increase, while every other job category was reduced to a lower amount, regardless of their academic year. This change might have influenced how students felt when it came to money. The researcher decided to do a statistical crosstab analysis to see which students in which job categories felt that payment was fair towards them. The results were not surprising especially with the change that had happened in payment rates. The types of jobs students were doing in the work-study programme were cross-checked with a question of whether they thought the payment
was fair. The tutors had the highest response rate, not surprising as they made up most of the students who responded to the survey.

5.3.14 Who do you think benefits more from the work-study programme?

Table 20: Who do you think benefits from the work-study programme?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The university benefits more than the students.</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students benefit more.</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>79.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest and most frequent response was 49.7% and it indicated that students felt that ‘The university benefits more’ than the students. The second highest response was the ‘Students benefit more’ had 30.2% and the last response rate was students who indicated that they did not know with a 20.1% response (Table 18).

Sekabembe and Bakkabulindi (2008), Curtis and Shani (2002), Lowe and Gayle (2007) and Moreau and Leathwood (2006) all found that employers benefited from having students work for them. Universities too, in both roles as employers and educators benefited from students. Despite the benefit, both off-campus employers and the university did not make many attempts to meet the needs of working students.

When the students were interviewed, Zweli said: “I have benefited from the work-study programme”. He said that work-study had given him skills that he was now using after his studies. The students had a positive experience on the programme with little negative impact. Zweli was grateful for having been part of the programme.

James also said that the university and he as a student had benefited. He said: “I enjoy working out so working is like a bonus, something like I said I can gym for free”. He felt that the university was benefiting also; he said: “They are getting people to do the work for
them, who would they have gotten to assist in the gym? UWC gym management they are
benefiting, because not only students are gyming here”.

Nyaka’s response to the question of who benefits was not different from James. Nyaka said,
“I think we all benefit, for me I think we all benefit, that’s how I see it because the people I
train they benefit from what I am doing, I benefit because I also train with them. I also get
to see myself growing more because, ever since I started at the gym with them, I have seen
another side to myself”. He went on further to say: “The university is also gaining more
because I also coach stuff and people from outside”. He goes on to say “In my view we are
all getting everything out of it.”

Vignette 6 provides us with a picture of students’ experience, when it comes to benefits.

**Vignette 6: Division of benefits**

Nyaka used to be in the army; he is concerned about health and fitness issues. He is
into all sports. James is a rugby player who has been side-lined because of an injury;
he is also concerned about fitness and health, Both work at the UWC gym. When it
came to the question of who benefited more from work-study, both students felt that
the university and the students were benefiting.

James said, “I enjoy working out, so working is like a bonus, something I like, and I
can gym for free”. But he felt that the university was also benefiting with having
students rather than other employees working at the gym.

Nyaka’s response was, “I think we all benefit. For me I think we all benefit. [ . . . ] The
people I train they benefit from what I am doing; I benefit because I also train with
them; [ . . . ] the university is also gaining more because I also coach staff and people
from outside”. He goes on to say, “In my view we are all getting everything out of it.”

Thus, while benefiting from work-study could be conceived purely in financial terms,
students see a range of benefits which balance the financial aspect with, for example,
the type and ease of work, job satisfaction, and accessibility of their work place.
When Mwalimu was asked who he thought benefited from the work-study programme, he said, “I can say I benefited because I gained skills”, but the student later changed his mind and said that benefiting should be calculated according to how long one worked and how much one got paid.

Shira’s experience on the work-study programme was both positive and negative. Her experience reminds of Robbins (2010:113) argument that students tend to be passive when it comes to determining the terms of condition concerning their employment. This is further explored in Vignette 7.

**Vignette 7: More taking than giving**

Shira’s experience on the work-study programme was mixed; when asked who benefited more, the university or the students, she said that “the university was benefitting more, as we are getting paid peanuts because we are cheap labour”.

David felt that he had benefited as he had been able to trade his vocational skills for financial compensation. Nosipho also indicated that she had benefited from being on the programme; she said, “I have met people because of work-study. I have had a wonderful experience. I have been to venues that I never thought it existed.”

One of the interesting answers the researcher got was from Bannert who had an interesting view on the work-study programme as a whole. He had many negative challenges about the programme. When he was asked who benefited, he said, “Yah! Looking holistically and not only this centre this is a kind of a privilege and it’s not our rights hence we kind of appreciate it. For example if I owe school R10 000 rand at the beginning of the year and I have to pay it off at the end of the year. “Work-study helped him pay off some of the money.

The issue of who benefits from having students take part in the work-study programme is very interesting. Smith and Patton’s (2011:18) study states that there were many parties that benefited from having students taking part in employment. Perold and Omar (1997) stress that Institutions of Higher Learning were the ones who had the most to gain as they
had come to rely on students to keep some part of the institutions functioning. The researcher explored the issue of benefits further by cross-tabbing to see whether South African students felt they were benefiting, whether students who worked in different job categories felt they were benefiting.

The Work-Study programme is one of the few work opportunities open to non-South African students. The researcher decided to determine if there is a difference in the prescribed benefits between South African and international students (including refugee students). The students who indicated that they were from South Africa had the highest response rate, with 131 participants (50.4%) indicating they felt the University of the Western Cape benefited more from having students work for them. From the group of students who were not South African, a response rate of 29 participants (47%) indicated they felt they benefited more from having students' work at University of the Western Cape. When it came to the option of whether students benefited, the highest response rate came from students who were not South African with a response rate of 21 (40%), while South African had the second highest rate with 77 (30%).

5.3.15 The students’ perception of the degree of difficulty of the work they do for work-study

Table 21: The students’ perception of the degree of difficulty of the work they do for the work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very hard</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither easy nor hard</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 illustrates that 4.0% of participants choose ‘Very hard’ as the second lowest response rate while the lowest chosen rate was ‘Do not know’ with a response rate of 3.7%.
The highest response rate was ‘Neither easy nor hard’ with 64.3%; it was followed by those who chose ‘Easy’ with 16.4%, and lastly those who chose ‘Hard’ with a response rate of 11.6%.

Students were asked if the job they did was easy or difficult, whether it contributed to skills development. Many of the students indicated finding the jobs they did to be very easy; they did not require much training. Some students received training which made the jobs easy. As for skills, some students who were interviewed felt that they had gained skills that they would use in the future when they joined the working world. Other students had gained skills but they indicated that they would not be using the skills in the future.

Literature shows that different students who work and study face numerous challenges; students from the work-study programme faced their share of challenges. The challenges were both positive and negative. Most of the students who replied to the survey found both positive and negative effects, while students who were interviewed showed little negative effect except for three. Most of the students interviewed seemed to not experience any challenges. They seemed to be able to cope and balance out the negative impacts.

5.3.16 The different kinds of challenges that participants face due to taking part in the work-study programme

Table 22: The challenges students’ experience because they are in the work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do not have time for consultation with lecturers</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>84.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not have time to access the library and computer labs</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I miss lectures.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I miss assignment deadlines.</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not well prepared for tests and exams.</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>95.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often feel stressed and tired.</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>65.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have no time for social life / sport / meeting friends.</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>76.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The money from work-study programme is not enough.</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find it difficult to balance work, academic demands and life outside the university.</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>85.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An almost equal number of students agreed with the statement that the money earned from the work-study programme was not enough and was a great challenge for them. The lowest number, 2.4% of participants, noted missing lectures as a challenge while the feeling of stress and tiredness received 34.9% (Table 20).

The work-study programme at UWC is not a full-time job; its purpose is to aid and help students to gain financial means that go towards their fees. According to the work-study policy, the programme was also intended to provide a “shift from bursary hand-out system to the benefit of both the institution and individual student.” The policy states that it is the responsibility of the departments to make sure that students are not ‘overworked’ and the challenges they face are minimised.

It is not surprising that the ‘The money from work-study is not enough’ was the highest most frequent choice by the students. There seems to be a miscommunication between the students and the work-study programme. From the data collected, it seems that students are not aware of the objectives of the programme, which is not to support students’ lives but to assist them. The work-study policy clearly states that students should not exceed the number of hours they are working in order to make sure they are not overworked. But, from the data gathered in aim one, we have seen that some students are working more than the hours required of them. It is also assumed that students, after work, visit the library to study and this might explain why ‘I often feel stressed and tired’ was the second most frequent choice.

In the literature review some students reported that their social lives were affected. Some reported having a hard time sleeping; several even reported that they were usually tired, ill or depressed. Fjortoft (1995), cited in Cheng (2004:3) points out that one part that was affected was ‘The amount of time available’ and that the students tended to reduce leisure and socialising time rather than study time. Data collected from the work-study survey support Fjortoft (1995). The students in the survey had ‘I have no time for social life/sport’ as the third highest frequent choice. Previous research has shown that students were willing
to sacrifice leisure and sports time and spend that time working or studying, as they saw the sacrifice to be worth it, as they hoped to gain in the future.

In order to have a balanced student experience, students are encouraged to have a rounded experience. They should be able to participate in sports if they want to, they should be able to access and have time to visit the library, computer labs and administrative offices. They should also have time to consult with lecturers or tutors. So it is a little disturbing when the fourth most frequent challenge was students on the work-study programme indicating that they ‘Did not have time for consultation’. More research needs to be done to find out why students were not able to consult – if it really had to do with working hours or students not having time management skills.

After the survey, interviews were held with students and they were asked what kind of challenges respondents faced while participating in the work-study programme. When Zweli was asked, he said that he was isolated from other students because he was in charge. He said, “I was very strict because I had to respect my job and people hated me and I remember I made a lot of enemies in that lab, so as soon as I realised that I stopped.” This suggests that managing students in the lab was a challenge for him and he felt that he could not continue as he made enemies and wanted to fit in. He also brought up the issue of money not being enough and this was not surprising.

James from the gym cited tiredness as a challenge for him. He said that “I am always tired”; that when he opened the gym in the morning, he did not stay around, but went back to his room and slept. He went further to say all he did was go to classes and gym for work, and afterwards was tired. When asked if he used the UWC library he said that he didn’t use it unless he was using the Internet for personal reasons. The money for him was a major challenge. He indicated that the money was not enough. He said that his fees had been paid but work-study was still deducting money from him; when he went to the work-study office to correct the deduction of his money, the office had promised to stop deductions but still, by the time of the interview, they had not done so. According to the work-study policy the programme is only allowed to deduct money if a student still owes fees.
Mwalimu’s challenges were time-related. He said, “Sometimes you have a class to tutor and at that time you are supposed to meet a lecturer, but then at that time you can’t meet him because have to shift your time, sometimes it becomes a challenge. Either you have to choose or you are going to tutor and miss consultation or are you going to consult and miss tutoring.”

Thomas’s challenges were time-related as with Mwalimu. He said, “Not enough time to study as I have to work.” Nosipho, on the other hand, experienced no challenges at all; her job was flexible and allowed her to work and study at the same time.

David’s challenges were not so different from that of James and Zweli. The only difference between them was that David was a father of three children who were still in school and he was the only one in his family who was working. While James and Zweli had nobody who depended on them financially, David said, “I am a full-time student and as a result I have to support my family on my salary I make on work-study”. Vignette 4 provides us with more depth about David.

Though students like Mwalimu, James and Thomas reported that they had challenges ranging from feeling tired, to not being able to consult with lecturers, their academic performance was not negatively impacted. Thomas was able to maintain his credits, and submit his PhD for examination, James was in his last year of study and he indicated that he was passing. Mwalimu didn’t report any negative impacts, though one wonders if his studies would have improved if he had had a chance to consult with lecturers, but that can be explored further in another study. Vignette 8 provides us with more depth into David.

**Vignette 8: This burden I carry**

I am father, husband, in my fifties, a full-time student and I am the only bread-winner in my family” – this is how David describes himself. He is a full-time Masters student in the faculty of Arts. He is the only breadwinner in his family. He is also a father of
three children who are still in school. He is a refugee student who stays outside campus, relying solely on the money he gets from the HR and work-study.

He said, “I work three hours HR am per week . . . I must be permanent at the library every day. It is 24 hours per month and here it is 12 hours per month.”

This particular student’s challenge was that the money was not enough, though he was working two jobs both situated on campus. Financially, he felt that he was challenged and he said his wife made sure that the money he earned was stretched, so they could pay for his kids’ school fees and support his family. Universities find themselves with many kinds of different students, who have different need and wants. Both students and the university need to get together to make sure that nobody suffers.

5.3.17 The strategies students use to balance working, studying, and social life

Table 23: The coping strategies students use to balance working, studying, and social life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I ask for time off from work to study.</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>87.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I skip a work shift.</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I swap shifts with another student.</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>89.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I organise with my fellow students to take notes for me in lectures/tutorials.</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do my homework / assignments with other students.</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes copy from other students (and hope not to get caught).</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I arrive late and leave early during classes.</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>98.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I choose modules/courses that allow me to work and study.</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I reduce the time I spend on academics e.g. less reading, miss classes.</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>91.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I stay up late studying.</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I reduce leisure and socialising time.</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have no more social life.</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cope because I have good time management skills.</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can't cope. I feel very overwhelmed by having to balance work, study and social life.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the sample, 46.4% think the strategy of coping with work-study programme is to reduce leisure and socialising time while 45.1% confirm that actually they totally had no social life. There are 48% of participants who feel overwhelmed by having to balance work, study and social life (Table 21).

After the survey, the coping strategies were also explored in the interviews but they were not explored according to the work, study and social lives categories; they were dealt with as a whole. The students’ responses in the interviews were very interesting though not much different from those that had been chosen in the survey. Zweli was asked how he cope and balanced everything. He said, “I was not really working I would spent the whole day on the computer since I was doing my research for my Masters”. He went further to stress during the interview that he had excellent coping skills and was able to manage just fine.

James also cited good time management skills. He said, “I have time management skills because sometimes when I work I would gym as well so I am supposed to work two hours, every day, two hours in the morning and two hours in the evening”. He combined his time at work for his own personal benefit. But as the interview progressed, it became apparent that because of his negative experiences on the program, he had stopped caring about his work, though he continued to work. He said: “That’s why I am saying once again I don’t care anymore, when I am supposed to work I don’t work anymore, officially in the morning we open at 7 but I am not going to sit from 8 to 9.I just open up and go back to my room and sleep and I come back later”. This student coped by avoiding problems at his work and working when it suited him.

Nyaka coped by moving everything and doing everything during his spare time. He also had a good coping strategy; he said, “I ask God to help me, He is always with me, I ask for His guidance and ya He does.” He repeated this many times by stressing that for him to even study, he had asked for God to guide him and He had guided him to UWC and his job. The student stressed that there was nothing big or small that he could not cope with. Though as
the interview progressed, he pointed out that he slept around 2 a.m. and was awake at 6 a.m. But, when speaking to him, he came across as happy and balanced.

David and Nyaka had the same coping strategies – they both believed in prayer. Unlike Nyaka, David was married and he said: “My wife helps me balance and my big support is God. For any problem I go to God. I don’t panic”. He said that if things got really bad, most of the time his wife was the only one who could calm him down and kept him motivated. Nyaka and David’s coping strategies are explored further in Vignette 9.

**Vignette 9: In God I trust**

*Nyaka is an ex-military and now an undergraduate theology student. He is in his 30’s. He stays with his grandmother, stays outside campus in a Cape Town township. He is passionate about fitness.*

*Proverbs 3: 5-6 “Trust in the Lord with all your heart and lean not on your understandings, in all your ways submit to Him, and He will make your paths straight.” This is the scripture that two students interviewed for this study referred to during their respective interviews.*

*Nyaka says he juggled the multiple demands of working, studying and family life by reducing his spare time and sleep. He pointed out that he slept around 2 a.m. and was awake by 6 a.m. every day. How does he cope? “I ask God to help me. He is always with me. I ask for His guidance and He does.”*

David had similar coping strategies, and he also believed in prayer. Unlike Nyaka, David was married and considered this a further source of support. “My wife helps me balance and my big support is God, for any problem I go to God. I don’t panic” When things got really bad, his wife was the one who would also keep him motivated.

*What the interviews therefore indicated is that students have multiple ways of balancing studying, working and social life. While many students indicated that they*
are coping (even if it is on the wing of a prayer), there are those who are not, who would need that extra help from the university.

Mwalimu felt that he was coping very well. He said, “I am a dedicated person and it’s easier to balance. I only had tutoring, school and sport”. He went on further to say that coping for him was not impossible as “I always try to have morning classes”. This agrees with the literature that showed that students were making their academic choices in order to balance working.

Nosipho says she coped by being very highly organised. She said, in order to maintain and stay ahead in her studies when she went back home, “I go home and read the work that I did that day or even file it or put it in my folders, so when I look for it I can easily find it”. She did this so she could cope with her university load. Her working hours were based around her classes, so she could visit the library, and consult with lecturers or tutors. Mwalimu and Nosipho illustrated management skills they used to cope and balance all areas of their academic, work and social lives.

Respondents who work experience many challenges that inhibit them from visiting the library, administration office. They do not submit on time and it is debatable whether the lecturers are aware or not of their predicament [Curtis and Shani (2002); Metcalf (2003); Moreau and Leathwood (2006)]. During the literature review, different strategies were mentioned such as visiting the library after hours or organising time with lecturers when it comes to assignments.

What was most interesting was Shiras’s coping strategy. She said, “I normally study in the evening; I can’t study during the day. So it was a matter of I was not going to do anything productive during the day after class anyway. . . . But at times when we are really busy, I am like Oh my God I am too tired to study…”, so the student was not coping very well. During the time that she worked on the programme, she had changed her majors twice and her school work had suffered because she could not balance working and social life.
Shira’s coping strategies are supported by literature that suggests that some students choose modules that fit in with their employment pattern. Some students change modules to fit the work demands and others either arrive late or leave early during class, which is exactly what Shira did. This is explained in Vignette 10.

**Vignette 10: The cookie crumbles**

Overworked, tired and underpaid Shira (also see Vignette 8) has an interesting coping strategy.

She said, “I normally study in the evening; I can’t study during the day. So it was a matter of I was not going to do anything productive during the day after class anyway. . . . But at times when we are really busy, I am like Oh!! My God I am too tired to study…”

As it turned out, Shira was not coping very well overall and, during the time that she worked on the programme, she had changed her majors twice and her university work had suffered.

Shira’s coping strategies are commonly reported in related literature that suggests that term-work affects what students choose to study in order to fit their employment pattern and work demands. Moreover, literature often points out that academic work may suffer, e.g., students arrive late for class or leave early, and marginalise time for academic work to make time for work, which is exactly what Shira did.
5.3.18 The awareness of lecturers that students are on the work-study programme

Table 24: The awareness of lecturers and university staff are in the work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My lecturers are aware that I am on the work-study programme.</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My lecturers allow for special arrangements when my work clashes</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with studying.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university library, computer labs, etc. are convenient and</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make provision for students who work and study.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The student administration, HR administration etc. are</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convenient and make provision for students who work and study.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most students (34.8%) disagreed with the statement about the university making any resources such as library and computer laboratories convenient for them (Table 22). That the university resources need to be convenient for all students participating in the work-study programme was of great concern. The researcher knows that the library is open until 10 pm and during exams it also opens on Sunday and hours are extended. It makes one wonder if the students themselves do not access and make use of the resources because they choose not to.

The question of lecturers investigated: ‘Lecturers are aware that I am in the work-study programme’ and ‘My lectures allow for special arrangements when my work clashes with studying’. These were combined because they both deal with students on the work-study
programme and their relationship with lecturers. From all the participants, 42.2% indicated that they agreed that the lecturers were aware and made special arrangements for them.

Lowe and Gayle (2007:234) argue that

*The most significant scope for institutional change to support a successful work/life/study balance therefore lies in the less tangible aspects of institutional culture and ethos. This is related to the organisational flexibility of the college and to the climate of the learning environment. In particular we suggest that the attitudes, values and priorities of staff and available resources (e.g., guidance and counselling) will all contribute to a suitable ethos and culture.*

During the interviews the above issues were not investigated and this was an oversight on the researcher’s part. It would have been interesting to see if the students who were interviewed agreed or disagreed.

**5.3.19 Does working have an impact on your studies?**

**Table 25: Does working have an impact on your studies?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of Working</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No impact</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative impact</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive impact</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both positive and negative impact</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 23 illustrates the impact that working has on students’ studies. In the survey this was not a multiple choice question. The survey question had four choices for students to choose from. The choices ranged from ‘Negative impact’ to ‘Both positive and negative impact’. The choice that had the highest most frequent response was ‘Both positive and negative impact’ with 47.8%; the second most frequent response was ‘Positive impact’ with 24.8%; the third was No impact’ with 23% and lastly was ‘Negative impact’ with 4.4%.

Literature by Lowe and Gayle (2007), Cheng and Alcantara (2007) and Curtis and Shani (2002) all found that students experienced different impacts. What this study had in common was that some of the participants indicated that most jobs were available during daytime and sometimes this clashed with their academic schedules, which can be considered a negative impact. Some indicated that they had quit working in order to continue studying, also a negative impact.

In the progression of the survey, during the interviews, the students were asked what kind of impact working had on their studies. Zweli said no impact at all; he was no longer attending classes as he was a master’s full-thesis student conducting his research and he was able to study during work. Nosipho also felt the same way; she said ‘No impact’. She felt that the impact was minimal; she felt that because of the job her studies had been positively impacted as her job required that she keep her grades up. Lowe and Gayle (2007), Cheng and Alcantara (2007) and Curtis and Shani (2002) agree, saying that students indicate that they benefit from working, without reference to any challenges.

James and Nyaka felt that the impact was both positive and negative. James was always tired while Nyaka worked during the day and found time to sleep around two in the morning. This was also found in a study by Cheng (2004:3), who found that students in his research reported that their social lives were affected. Some reported having a hard time sleeping; some reported that they were usually tired, ill or depressed. James and Nyaka reported being tired and not having any social lives. They spent many hours at work.

Shira’s case was interesting as she had enjoyed her time on the work-study programme; she loved meeting people. With all this enjoyment there was a downside to her working. She
had a negative outlook, she indicated that she had been overworked and during her time as a student assistant she had worked more hours than required. She had changed her majors twice and had quit the programme as she was unable to balance all areas. This was not a strange finding as Metcalf (2003) also showed in her findings that some students in her study were experiencing difficulties juggling employment and educational demands.

The work-study policy clearly states that students should not be overworked but it seems that some students suffer as there is nobody to make sure that the policy is implemented. Shira had experienced a negative impact and her case is highlighted in Vignette 11.

**Vignette 11: Priorities change**

*When Shira came to UWC, her main aim was to complete her studies in the prescribed time and find a job. Instead she got a job through the work-study programme at UWC, and worked many hours at little pay. Before she knew it, her studies were suffering. She says: “I changed my majors twice; I forgot my priority, so I finally decided to quit working [for the work-study programme] and concentrate on my studies”.*

The work-study policy clearly states that students should not be overworked; but it seems that some students cannot balance work and studying with ease, which may have a negative impact on studies. Monitoring the academic performance of work-study students and creating specific interventions of academic and career counselling for students at risk might help students like Shira.

This study was about individual student experience, and it would be interesting to find out how many students shared a similar experience to Shira’s and if the university is aware of the impact working has on certain students. This can be further investigated in another study.

The data collected pointed out that some of the challenges that students were facing were both positive and negative. Most of the students who replied presented both positive and negative impacts, while students who were interviewed mostly, except for three, found
little negative impact. Most of the students interviewed seemed to not experience any challenges. They seemed to be able to cope and balance out the negative impacts.

The researcher further explored the issue of coping skills; she wanted to see which job categories of students coped better than the others. Responses were cross-tabbed and the answers were interesting. The researcher cross-tabbed responses to see which job categories were coping and balancing work/study/social life. The results showed that students who worked as research assistants had the highest response rate, indicating that they were coping very well (56%), while those who worked as laboratory assistants had the second highest coping skills with a 45% response rate. The third group of students who were coping were tutors with 43%. The majority of students who responded indicated they were tutors whose job requirements were to prepare for classes they were going to teach and to mark assignments.

Students who worked as research assistants had the highest response rate, indicating that they were not coping well and had great difficulty balancing all, with a 15% response rate, while 8% of students who worked as laboratory assistants indicated that they had difficulties coping. Though the response rate for those with difficulties is small in comparison with those who are coping, one must keep in mind that not all students participated in the study and the number might have been higher, had they all participated. The question that remains is what the university authorities do now to make sure that those who are coping continue to do so, while those who are having difficulties are assisted to help them.

The University of the Western Cape has opened its doors to students from all over the world. As a result, students from outside South Africa also participating in the work-study programme. Though the issue of whether nationality influenced students’ experience on the work-study programme came up during the interviews, the more the researcher talked to students who were from outside South Africa, the more they brought up the issue.
5.4 Analysis of overall finding

In Chapter One, the first aim of the study was to look into reasons why students take part in the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape. The researcher discovered that students work for many reasons. When data from students was analysed, it indicated that some of them worked with finances, others worked as a step towards their careers. In this way, they gained work experience and this set them apart from other students. Robbins (2010:109), Richardson et al. (2013:9), Metcalf (2003), Moreau and Leathwood (2006), Curtis and Shani (2002) and Cheng and Alcantara (2007) also investigated reasons why students take part in part-time employment while pursuing studies.

The above authors’ results are similar to findings of this study. To support the financial assumption, Robbins (2010:109) points out that, in Australia, most students are now being charged ‘a fee per subject’ and they are asked to pay upfront. As a result many find themselves acquiring loans and gaining debts, so most of the students prefer to work in order to minimise credit costs. Though Robbins makes such a statement in his paper in 2010, it should be noted that his statement is not entirely true, as Australia has a deferred tuition fee policy, but those who can afford can pay upfront.

Richardson et al. (2013:9) state that the price placed on education affects the sacrifice students are willing to make. Metcalf (2003) and Moreau and Leathwood (2006) seem to be in agreement with Richardson et al.’s (2013) view. To prove that finances were not the only reasons, studies by Curtis and Shani (2002) and Cheng and Alcantara (2007:305), conducting their studies at Columbia University, found that the reasons for students working ranged from the students’ desire to become more independent, gain confidence and earn money to pay for leisure activities. They found that more students indicated that they preferred working as it gave them confidence and they were able to maintain their social life. They also felt that working gave them an edge over their peers, due to the experience they had gained, as they had to compete for work later in life.
When it comes to reasons why students participated in part-time employment while pursuing full-time study, McInnis and Hartley (2002: 31) also found that students who were involved in their study were working for four major reasons; these were: “financial need, career and employment preparation, independence and to supplement other income”.

The second aim of the study was to find out how much time students spent on the work-study programme. This was investigated by looking at issues that had to do with time spent on the programme, how long students had been part of the programme, when they worked and, lastly, what type of work they did and if they found the jobs to be difficult or easy. The issue of the number of hours is very important though none of the literature available for review in this study gives a guideline to the number of hours.

It is therefore not possible to comment on the matter due to a lack of baseline of what are considered acceptable or ideal working hours for students in the work-study programme of the UWC. Students from the work-study programme work different hours, the hours are influenced by when students’ classes are, and by the number of hours they are allowed to work. The work-study programme also has strict hours depending on whether you are postgraduate or undergraduate. However, there seems to be no monitoring as some of the students indicated that they had worked more hours than allowed. What was interesting was that they were not paid for the extra hours they were working.

When it came to the issue of type, ease or difficulty of the job students were working, the majority of students who answered the survey were tutors. This was not surprising as the university is too big and there are too many students, which makes it difficult to reach each student individually.

Students were asked if the job they did was easy or difficult, whether it contributed to skills development. Many of the students indicated finding the jobs they did to be very easy, they did not require much training and some students received training which made the job seven easier. Regarding skills, some students who were interviewed felt that they had
gained skills that they would use in the future when they joined the working world. Other students had gained skills which they indicated they would not be using in the future.

Literature shows that different students who work and study face numerous challenges; students from the work-study programme faced their share of challenges. The challenges were both positive and negative. Most of the students who replied to the survey found both positive and negative impacts, while students who were interviewed showed little negative impact, with the exception of three. Most of the students interviewed seemed to not experience any challenges. They seemed to be able to cope and balance out the negative impacts.

The fourth aim of the study was to investigate what coping strategies students were using to balance working, studying and social lives. In order for a positive student experience to happen, there needs to be balance in academic and personal lives. Universities that hire participants need to be made aware of the positive and negative challenges that students experience. Lowe and Gayle (2007:234) give a good reason why it is important to be aware of the overall experience. They argue that the most significant scope for institutional change to support a successful work, life and study balance therefore lies in the less tangible aspects of institutional culture and ethos.

This is related to the organisational flexibility of the college and to the climate of the learning environment. In particular we suggest that the attitudes, values and priorities of staff and available resources (e.g., guidance and counselling) will all contribute to a suitable ethos and culture. The researcher also advises this for the University of the Western Cape. From the research, the researcher suggests that it is very important that institutions of higher learning change their policies and give support to the respondents, especially those who take employment while studying.

The fifth and last aim of the study was to investigate the advantages and disadvantages of participating in the work-study programme. In the survey, the highest response rate was that the university was benefiting more than the students. When interviews were
conducted and students were asked who they felt was benefiting, most of the students interviewed indicated that they thought everybody was benefiting. A few students indicated that both the students and the university were benefiting. Some students put it quite plainly by saying the work-study programme was created to help students and it was a privilege to be able to take part. Instead of feeling entitled to the work-study programme, they saw work-study as an exchange for their time. The students got financial compensation, gained skills and some were able to pay off part of their fees. Furthermore, some noted that the university gained cheap labour.

At the end of the survey there was space for students to comment and say what they felt about the work-study programme. The majority of the responses were very positive, ranging from students being grateful to the work-study programme, to them being aware that the programme is there to assist, to students who become wholly dependent on the programme. Both in the interview and in the survey, students kept bringing up the issue of the work-study office not paying or sorting their issues on time.

The students also seemed to have been shocked by the new rates that took place in 2012; some indicated not being aware of the change until they got paid, suggesting that there is miscommunication between the programme and the students. The students indicated that they had worked extra hours but had not been paid for them. Some students also brought up the issue of certification to acknowledge the students on the programme. They brought up the issue of how work-study jobs were advertised. They felt not enough advertising was done for the programme. In the interviews the students were asked how they gained jobs. Most of those who were interviewed indicated that they had gotten jobs by word of mouth.

The next section present the typology for students on the work-study programme, based on data created.

5.4.1 Typology of student experience

Capecchi (1968:9) defines typology as “the selection of a certain number of combinations of groups of variable”. This definition fits perfectly with this study because, for the purpose of
designing a typology of students’ experiences, the researcher had to look at data and see if there were any combinations that could be formed. Though most studies designed a typology at the beginning of their studies, in the present study it was created at the end. The reason was that this study had a lot of stories to tell and the researcher wanted to bring the stories together and tell one story.

To design a typology for this study, the researcher based it on the definition of student experience which is defined in the conceptual framework chapter. De Silva and Garnaut (2011), Harvey, Burrows and Green (1992) and Mclins (2001) all similarly define student experience as an experience that takes place in categories, namely the academic experience and the non-academic experience. The academic experience would have to do with the learning experiences that students go through while pursuing higher education; the non-academic experience would have to do with what students learn outside the formal curriculum.

Table 26: Typology of students’ experiences based on study data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Experience</th>
<th>Type of work</th>
<th>Support services / Community Assistants / Admin assistants / Library assistants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic experience</strong></td>
<td>Academic-related work (Tutorial Assistants / Laboratory/Practical Assistants, Research Assistants)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of work on studies</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers are aware</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work and social experience</strong></td>
<td>Sense of inclusion in the university community</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work flexibility</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall experience</strong></td>
<td>Overall sense of fulfilment from participating in WS programme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall sense of fulfilment from</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participating in WS programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance between work, studies and</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Coping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Though this typology was created, the researcher would like to point out that it is not an ideal typology from research finding and by ideal types. The researcher means generalisations are based on interpretations of the findings but also an interpretation of information, and the typology is grounded in the data that was collected for this study.

For the purpose of collecting data both in the survey and the interviews, there were concepts that were defined and questions devised in order to answer questions relating to the study. This study had three concepts, namely: participation, challenges and support. When it came to creating a typology, the researcher went through the data and looked at sections of response that were either similar or very different from each other.

When collecting data, the one thing that seemed to shape students’ experiences was the types of jobs students did. The most similarities and differences could be found under the concept of participation; they were more prominent regarding the question that dealt with the types of jobs students did. Hence, the researcher classified the jobs as academic-related (this would be the tutorial assistants, laboratory/practical assistants, research assistants) and the non-academic jobs were those considered to be working categories and where one could consider support services (those working as community assistants, admin assistants, library assistants, gym assistants).

According to Kuh (2009:3), student experience has its roots in student development theory. Some researchers believe that such topics find their roots in student engagement and theory. Student engagement argues that, for students to be fully engaged, they should experience both academic and non-academic experiences, so that they have positive and balanced student engagement. If the students are fully engaged in their colleges, it is believed that this affects their student experiences positively.

Regarding the types of work, students were grouped according to academic-related and support services. The data showed that that those who were working in academic-related jobs felt a sense of fulfilment and this came out in interviews as well. When it comes to sense of fulfilment, Cheng and Alcantara’s literature (2007:306) concluded that some
students felt a sense of fulfilment and benefited from working, especially if the type of job the students were doing was not everyday monotony but engaged the students’ minds. If students worked as mentors, they felt good as they saw themselves making a difference to others’ lives.

While those who were working in support services experienced a sense of boredom, one student who was interviewed did not see any value in the job she did. When the researcher asked Shira (for more information on Shira see Vignette 5) about the skills gained, she laughed and said she was not going to use them. This gave the impression that she did not experience a sense of fulfilment.

Keeping in mind the definition of student experience used in this study, the researcher found that students who worked in academic-related jobs indicated that working part-time had a positive impact on their studies, which is not surprising as the jobs they did were related to the subjects they had done or were enrolled in. Those who were working in what the researcher considers support services felt that working did impact their studies and the data response to this question was mixed.

When it came to the work and social experience, those who were working in academic-related jobs had a poorer experience. They felt isolated from the overall community. In the interview a student who worked as a tutor said he felt isolated from university life, that all he did was go to the library, class, and tutor and go back home. But, while those who worked in academic-related jobs felt excluded, the lecturers were aware they were working, while those who were in the support services indicated that some lecturers were not aware they were working. Lecturers knowing that students work on campus can help the students, especially when it comes to their coping strategies. They can then go to the lecturers and ask for an extension if they cannot submit on time, while those who work in support services are somehow disadvantaged in this regard.

Those who worked in support services had a medium sense of inclusion; they worked in departments that were mostly small in number and this made interaction between them
easy. Those who worked in academic-related jobs were many. This can be seen in terms of those who took part in the study – they were from the academic category. When we asked the students the types of jobs they were doing, the question presented as an open multi-choice and students could choose from more than one category. What was interesting was that students either moved among jobs that were academic-related, while those who started in support services moved to jobs related to jobs of the same category. Only a few students crossed between the two.

Students who worked in support services had more flexibility in terms of work. They could exchange shifts while those who worked in academic-related jobs found their jobs not to be flexible.

In terms of demographics, students who worked in academic-related jobs were inclined to be slightly older, more international, and more male, while those who worked in support services were slightly younger, more likely to be South African, and female.

To conclude from the analysis discussed above, the researcher can see that the work-study programme is fulfilling its mandate towards the students in terms of finances and student development. Though the programme is having a positive impact on students, there are those few students who seem to be struggling and may need extra help. The programme also needs to change in order to accommodate the growing needs of students. There also needs to be strict monitoring rules to make sure that all parties benefit.

The next chapter is titled discussion, conclusion and recommendations. It summarises all the previous chapters.
CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this research, as given in the introductory chapter, was to understand students’ experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape and how students balance working part-time, studying and maintaining a social life. In order for the objectives to be met, the following questions were used to guide the study:

- Why do students take part in the work-study programme?
- What are the benefits of partaking in the work-study programme?
- What are the challenges that students taking part in the work-study programme face?
- How do students balance working part-time, studying and maintaining a social life?
- What are students’ experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape?

This chapter discusses, summarises and makes recommendations based on the data generated from the study. The study employed a survey and interviews for data collection. The main finding of the study showed the main reasons for students taking part in the work-study programme and the different challenges they face.

6.2 Discussion

The purpose of this section is mainly to discuss the key findings related to the research questions. Therefore, the discussions were divided into five categories: 1) the reasons for students taking part in work-study programmes; 2) students’ benefits from the work-study programme; 3) the challenges that students involved with the work-study programme face; 4) students’ strategies of balancing work and academic work; and 5) topology of students’ experiences of the work-study programme.
6.2.1 Students’ reasons for taking part in work-study programmes

The reasons for students’ participation in the work-study programme varied. These findings were in line with the findings of previous studies on the subject, such as Wang et.al (2010) and Callender (2008). The greatest number of participants (32.8%) present more than four reasons while 22.2% present three reasons for participating in the work-study programme at UWC. Furthermore, 15.2% presented two reasons, while the rest of the participants (84.8%) presented the following reasons in their order of preference:

- Pay for the fees;
- Support family;
- Gain work experience; and
- Pay for food.

David’s (Vignette 1) reasons for being in the work-study programme were similar and supported by Metcalf (2003) and Moreau and Leathwood (2006), who concluded that the main reason students were working was for financial help. These authors point out that the price placed on education affects the sacrifice students are willing to make. Students were willing to sacrifice their study time in order to make money, to pay for fees as students believe that education is an investment. Students believed that, when they have finished studying and start working, they will earn enough to make up for the sacrifices.

Nosipho is among the more privileged students on the work-study programme. She has no pressing financial need; her fees have been paid already. Rather, she is in the programme to make pocket money. Thus, her reasons are in agreement with Robotham (2009:326), who found that some students indicated that working allowed them to maintain a desired standard of living.

6.2.2 Students benefits from the work-study programme

This group of students noted different benefits from the work-study programme ranging from personal gain to academic gain. Generally, 63.2% of the participants noted the importance of the work-study programme, while 35.4% said both the work-study
programme and the academic work are equally important. In rank order, the benefits identified were:

Work-study programme:

✓ Provided work-integrated experience for the students;
✓ Provided a platform where students could develop their personal skills;
✓ Developed students’ personal self-confidence;
✓ Provided general financial independence (i.e. food, accommodation and support to the other family members);
✓ Provided platform for students to meet people from different backgrounds and hence extend their networking beyond their classroom colleagues or residence neighbours; and;
✓ Provided a further learning platform for specific academic content.

The findings in here are similar to what Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) have noted in the USA. They found that work experience of college students had positively influence on their personal skills they required for their careers.

6.2.3 The challenges that student involved with the work-study programme face

From the study, 52.6% of the students did not think that the work-study programme posed any challenge to them personally or their academic work, while 16.1% were affected in more than one way. Under the challenges that work-study students faced, the following challenges in their rank order were identified:

✓ The money received is not enough;
✓ Personal effect – stress and getting tired;
✓ No time for socialisation, sport;
✓ Lack of time for consultation with lecturers;
✓ Not able to balance work, academic study and social demands.

While Metcalf’s (2003) study reported that paid employment had negatively affected students’ studies, specifically their attendance at lectures and seminars and production of assignments, some of the interviewees also had little time set aside for studying and this
increased stress. This study found that while the majority of students did not experience such challenges, some students utilised much less time to study than what they really needed and this affected their academic performance.

Robotham (2012B) states that the issue of length of service was one of the most important areas to investigate further, due to the effect it may have on the students’ academic performance. Further research has to be done on how being on the work-study programme affects students in terms of their academic achievements.

6.2.4 Students’ strategies of balancing work and academic work

Students identified different strategies of coping with these challenges. The following were their coping strategies in ranking order:

- Reduced leisure and social life;
- Request other students to take notes and other materials given from lectures;
- Depend on other students by copying assignments and other academic work;
- Regularly ask other students to cover for them when they are not able to attend the academic study and prepare for examinations.

Generally a greater number of students agreed that they coped with their work-study and academic studies by reducing their social life. Socialising and belonging have been discussed – a third important part of Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs. Therefore, reducing socialising and belonging is actually sacrificing one of the basic needs in favour of financial needs. This could have a great impact on their social being as professionals, in the future. This was not the focus of the study and hence more research has to be done in this area.

The fourth aim of the study was to find the strategies that students used to balance working part-time, studying and maintaining a social life. Generally, the strategies used by students were the same – taking leave from work in order to find time to study and choosing jobs that required them to work in shifts so they would be able to arrange to work when there were no lectures (also reported by Sekabembe & Bakkabulindi, 2009).
6.2.5 Typology of students’ experience of the work-study programme

Lastly, the study developed a typology to capture the various ways in which students experience work-study. Students who felt that their work-study was aligned with their studies felt a sense of fulfilment, compared to students who worked in areas that could be categorised as support services and were not related to the studies. Some of these students generally felt that their jobs were just to pass time and make money. The students who were working in academic-related jobs had a stronger view of gaining both work and social experience. They all felt isolated from the overall community. In terms of demographics, students who worked in academic-related jobs were inclined to be slightly older, more international and largely male, while those who worked in support services were slightly younger, mainly local students, and tended to be mostly female.

6.3 Recommendations

The discussion has demonstrated that students are able to participate in more than one type of work and this is due to different personal reasons that they have. The consequences of the work-study programmes have an impact on students, their family members, their lecturers and the university at large. The study presents the following recommendations:

- UWC must present strict rules on the following, and find strategies of enforcing these rules:
  - Time per week for each student;
  - Number of work programmes per year per student;
  - Type of work given to students in order for them to attain financial relief while also gaining the necessary skills.
- UWC should consider providing a platform for discussion with students who are involved with the work-study programme;
- UWC must determine students’ individual reasons for participating in the work-study programme and provide advice, also taking into account their academic performance.
• UWC should consider providing recognition for the students who participated in work-study programme and in order for them to benefit from the activity.

• Lastly there is a need to disseminate learning experiences of students taking part in work-study programmes in order to have the broader student community learning and avoiding certain things.

This study has proved that employment on campus provides students with the financial support they need while they still have access to academic support services (e.g. meeting with a lecturer or retrieving a book from the library during a break in between classes) and chances to work in a setting that is suitable to their study major or career/academic goals.

It is recommended that the study be conducted on a large scale using different institutions that have work-study programmes, so that comparisons might be drawn between the student experiences.

6.4 Limitation of the study

Gay, Mills and Airasin (2011:115) describe limitations to the study as the different aspects of the research that would affect the results and could not be controlled. The study was a case study research and it was limited to the University of the Western Cape, mainly to those students who volunteered to participate. The results of the study, therefore, cannot be seen as representative for all students who take part in the work-study programmes either in South Africa or anywhere else in the world.

6.5 Conclusion

This study aimed at understanding the students’ experiences on the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape. The study particularly intended to understand the students’ challenges and how students balance life and study while working on campus.
The researcher can finally conclude from this study, through the literature reviewed as well as from the empirical study carried out, that individual students who were on the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape did benefit from the programme. Some of the students struggled with balancing studying, working and social life; many of them were influenced by variables that ended up having either a positive or negative impact on them as students.

While the individual students from the work-study programme were grateful for the programme, many students indicated a need for a monitoring system that checked on students in the programme, also co-ordinators who were in charge of the students and, lastly, the work-study office itself. The lack of acknowledgment for students in the programme in terms of proving that they were part of the programme seems to be considered as a negative aspect of the programme and this has negatively affected some students’ experience.

The study has shown that the students benefited from the work-study programme in different ways. The programme provided financial assistance even though most were not satisfied with the financial gain. This study further demonstrates that the experiences of this group, with reference to the work-study programme, varied.
REFERENCES


Wright, KB (2005). Researching Internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring packages, and web survey....

APPENDIX 1: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT UWC

Ms Refiloe Mohlakoana
Student No. 2238270

2238270@uwc.ac.za
Dr Ingrid Miller
Registrar of the University of the Western Cape

28 February 2012

Permission to Conduct Research at UWC

Dear Dr Ingrid Miller

I am writing to ask for permission to conduct a research study at the University of the Western Cape. I am an M.Ed. student in the UWC Higher Education Masters in Africa (HEMA) programme, supervised by Dr Gerald Ouma (Senior Lecturer in Higher Education Studies, Faculty of Education) and Dr. Thierry Luescher-Mamashela (HEMA Coordinator, Faculty of Education and Extraordinary Senior Lecturer in Political Studies, EMS Faculty). The HEMA programme is a joint initiative of the University of Oslo (Norway), Makerere University (Uganda), the University of the Western Cape and the Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the Students’ experiences of the work-study programme at UWC. In particular, the focus is on students’ motivation to participate in so-called ‘part time-work’, their experiences and how they balance academic life, working, and social life. Considering that conducting ‘term-work’ is increasingly normal even for full-time students and that the UWC work-study programme is a pioneer and in many respects an exemplary model for providing opportunities for term-work for poor and working-class students, the UWC experience will be of great significance. I hope to make a relevant contribution to the literature on ‘part-time work’ and provide new empirical data on the topic in the context of this university.

My research proposal was accepted on the 22 November 2011 by the Education Faculty (EHD) at the EHD 2011/9M meeting and Senate in 2011. The Ethics Clearance will be
granted on condition that I officially receive permission to conduct my research at UWC and with UWC students who participated in 2011 in the work-study programme. In particular I would like to ask your permission for the following:

To be given access to the email addresses of students who were on the work-study programme in 2011 to ask them to participate voluntarily and with guarantees as to the confidentiality of their identity, to complete the electronic survey (questionnaire enclosed).

Given the design of the study, I hope to interview certain students who give explicit consent to be allowed to approach them individually.

As noted above, the Education Faculty (EHD) and the Senate approved the research proposal, design and methods, and the Education Research Committee (EDR) has satisfied itself that, aside from a number of minor matters to be addressed to the satisfaction of the Deputy Dean (Research), Prof Beverley Thaver, the methodology, collection methods and instruments (including the questionnaire) all adhere to the Ethics Guidelines and Standards set out for research with human subjects.

So far, my supervisors and I have consulted a number of officials on campus to ensure that the study is widely supported and addresses relevant questions. These include Dr Colleen Howell (Director: Institutional Research); Mr Ncedikaya Magopeni in Prof Tshiwula’s office; Ms Birgit Schreiber (Director, CSSS); and Ms Lucille Teegler from the Work-Study Office (all of whom have received copies of the questionnaire for comment). Now, the Education Faculty (EDR) has advised me that I should ask you officially for the specific permissions mentioned above as part of completing the preparatory process.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated. I am happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have at any time. Alternatively, please contact my supervisor and coordinator of the HEMA programme, Dr Thierry Luescher-Mamashela, at: tOkuescher@uwc.ac.za; 021 959 3278; 083 350 5959.

Best wishes

Refiloe Mohlakoana
APPENDIX 2: LETTER FROM MY SUPERVISOR AND ETHICAL CLEARANCE

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Dean of Research
Prof Renfrew Christie
University of the Western Cape
Bellville, South Africa

Dear Sir

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT UWC:
REFILOE MOHLAKOANA

Refiloe Moratua Mohlakoana, student number 2238270 is a fully registered student of the University of the Western Cape. She is enrolled in the NORAD-sponsored Master of Education (Higher Education Studies) programme i.e. the HEMA programme, which is a collaborative programme involving UWC, University of Oslo, Makerere University and the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET).

Refiloe’s research proposal was approved by the Faculty of Education (EDR 24 February 2012) and subsequently by Senate and she was given Ethics Clearance for her research by the Faculty of Education (EDR 24 February 2012) and at the last Senate SRC of 30 March 2012.

I am therefore writing to kindly request that you grant her permission and support to collect data for her dissertation research at UWC. I wish to assure you that the data shall be collected strictly under my supervision and utilised only for the study, with utmost confidentiality and other consideration to research ethics as committed to in her proposal.

Should you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me at: tluescher@uw.ac.za or telephone no. +27(0)21 959 3278 or (0)83 350 5959.

Thank you.
Yours sincerely

Dr Thierry Luescher-Mamashela
Co-ordinator, Master of Education (Higher Education Studies) programme (Jan-June 2012)

I hereby grant permission for this research project (number 12/3/13) to be conducted on UWC Campus.

Renfrew Christie
UWC Dean of Research
4 April 2012
OFFICE OF THE DEAN
DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

04 April 2012

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape has approved the methodology and ethics of the following research project by: Ms RMC Mohlakoana (Education)

Research Project: Students' experiences of the work-study programme at the University of the Western Cape.

Registration no: 12/3/18

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

[Signature]

[Stamp: UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE]

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21 959-2948/9
Fax: +27 21 959 3170
Website: www.uwc.ac.za

Professor Pam New Christie
Dean of Research

9 April 2012

[Stamp: UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE]
APPENDIX 3: INFORMATION SHEET

Welcome to the work-study programme interview!

**Purpose/Benefit:**
This interview is part of my master’s study of students’ experiences of the work-study programme at UWC. I would love to hear what challenges you experience and what benefits the work-study programme brings for you. Participating in the interview brings no direct benefits for you. Hopefully, your answers will help me to understand the programme better, make good recommendations, and thereby help to make the work-study programme better.

**Anonymity:**
You have been selected for this interview as one of the students who has completed the work-study survey and has indicated that you would be prepared to participate in a face-to-face interview. Thank you for that. As with the survey, your responses in this interview will be kept anonymous unless you give me permission otherwise. I will probably quote some of what you are saying in this interview in my final research report, but it will not be possible to identify you as the person who said it, unless you tell me that you do not want to remain anonymous.

**Confidentiality and data safety:**
All students who participate in the survey are guaranteed that any information they provide to the researcher will not be traced back to the respondents. Your name or identity will not be disclosed to anybody who is a non-researcher. All the details that may identify you will be removed from the records. Records will be kept safely. At the end of the study, all data collected will be stored in the Education Faculty (HEMA programme) for five years.

**Length/Structure**
The interview is structured loosely along the five aims of the study. They include: the challenges you face in the work-study programme; how you balance working, studying, and social life; and some basic demographic questions. The interview should take less than one hour. If you agree, I would like to tape the interview for future reference when I write up the dissertation.

**Consent:**
Participation is voluntary. Please note that you can withdraw from participating in the interview by not signing the consent form. You can also participate but tell me when I ask a question that you don’t want to answer.

Best wishes Refiloe
Contact details:
Student researcher: Refiloe Mohlakoana. +27 766489760, mohlakoana@gmail.com.
Thesis supervisors: Dr Thierry Luescher-Mamashela, Extraordinary Senior Lecturer in Political Studies, + 27 21 969 3278, thierryluescher@hotmail.com.
Dr Gerald Wangenge Ouma, Senior Lecturer in the Faculty of Education, +27 21 969 9360, gouma@uwc.ac.za
APPENDIX 4: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSENT FORM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- I agree to participate in this research project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I noted the information on the project and had an opportunity to ask questions about it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I agree to my responses being tape-recorded and used for research purposes on condition that my privacy is respected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this project and that I have the right to withdraw at any stage.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**I want to remain anonymous.**

YES

NO

Please circle your answer.

X __________________________
Signature of Participant
Notes to Self

Before interview
- Contact participants, send info sheet, arrange time and place.
- Adapt the General Interview Framework to the individual respondent (looking at his/her survey responses).
- Flag key questions for probing in the interview.
- Remember: Conduct the interview as semi-structured, depth interview (e.g. Kvale and Brinkman 2009; Wengraf 2001)

During the interview
- I must introduce myself to the participants and explain the purpose of the interview; its structure, etc. (see Info Sheet).
- Ask for use of audiotape (check batteries!) and take handwritten notes.
- Guarantee anonymity unless she/he indicates otherwise. Ask him/her to sign the consent form before the start of the interview.

Interviewing strategy
- Avoid asking hypothetical questions.
- Ask follow-up questions/ask for examples to get depth.
- Reflect back/use "tell me more"/use silences.
- Does anyone think differently?
- Do you have anything to add about the work-study programme?
GENERAL INTERVIEW FRAMEWORK

Theme 1: The reasons why students partake in the work-study programme
1. Why are you involved in the work-study programme?
2. Since you started working, have your reasons changed?
3. Is it what you expected?
4. How important is work? (Instrumental? Professional?)
5. How do you fit work/studying together?
6. Do they impact on each other? How?

Theme 2: The type, extent, and intensity of student employment
1. What type of work do you do for the work-study programme?
2. How easy or hard is it?
3. What is required of you?

Themes 3 and 4: Challenges students face while participating in the work-study programme and the strategies students use, in order to balance working and studying
1. What impact of study on domestic life and vice versa?
2. Discuss balancing work/study/family. What is it like? How difficult is it? Why did you choose your pattern?
3. Would you like it to be different? Why? How?

Theme 6: Students’ perceptions of how they benefit/lose out by participating in the work-study programme
1. Have you benefited from the programme?
2. If not, have you thought about quitting the programme?
   If yes, why have you not quit?

Round Up
1. Thank you for participating.
2. Explain that the tape will be transcribed but that individuals will not be identified by name.
APPENDIX 6: RESPONDENT CONTACT SHEET

RESPONDENTS’ PERSONAL INFORMATION AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Interview date and time: ......................................................................................

Interview place: ..........................................................................................

Respondent name: ..................................................................................

Student number: ..............................................................................

Survey response number: .............................................................

Postgraduate or Undergraduate: ..............................................

Type of work you do for work-study programme: ........................................

Commencing Time: .................................................................

Time finished: ....................................................................................

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE
APPENDIX 7: CONCEPTUAL MAP TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE
HIGHER EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT: THE WORK-STUDY PROGRAMME PROJECT
REFILOE MORATUOA MOHLAKOANA (2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Survey Question</th>
<th>Response categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Students’ participation on the work-study programme | Participation | A: What type of work do you do for the work-study programme? | a. Tutorial Assistants  
b. Laboratory/Practical Assistants  
c. Research Assistants  
d. Community Assistants  
e. Administrative Assistants |
| | | B: Why are you involved in the work-study programme? | a. To pay my academic fees  
b. To pay for my residence  
c. To pay for food  
d. To help support my family members  
e. To learn more about my subject  
f. To improve my skills/knowledge  
g. To meet people and enjoy social contact  
h. To gain work experience  
i. To maintain my standard of living  
j. I had no choice but to work  
k. Other  
l. Don’t know |
| | | C: How long have you been involved in the work-study programme? | a. One year  
b. Two years  
c. Three years |
| **G: When do you work?** | a. mainly during daytime (Monday to Friday)  
b. mainly in the evening (Monday to Friday)  
c. mainly during the day and weekends  
d. mainly during the evening (Saturday and Sunday)  
e. Night shift  
f. At different times during the week |
|---|---|
| **H: How much do you earn per hour?** | a. R 15.00  
b. R 19.50  
c. R28.50  
d. R35.50 |
| **I: How many hours do you spend working per week?** | a. 10-12 hours  
b. 13-20 hours  
c. 21-28 hours  
d. 29-36 hours  
e. 37-44 hours  
f. 45+ hours |
| **K: Do you do any paid work other than work-study?** | a. Yes  
b. No  
c. Rather not say |
| **F: So far, do you think the work-study is meeting your expectations?** | a. Meet expectations  
b. Exceed expectations  
c. Fall short of expectations  
d. Don't know |
| **J: How would you rate your work?** | a. Hard  
b. Not hard  
c. It’s okay.  
d. So so |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges students face</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>L: What kind of challenges do you face because you are in the programme?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Don’t have time to consult lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Don’t have time to access library and computer labs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Increased stress and tired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. No social life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e. Hard time sleeping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>f. Missed lectures, and handing in assignments late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>g. Difficulty balancing employment, educational demands and living outside university</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| M: How do you balance working, studying, social life? | a. | I take leave from work in order to find time to study. |
|                                                      | b. | I organise with my fellow students to take notes for me. |
|                                                      | c. | I work in shifts and this makes it easier to study. |
|                                                      | d. | I choose modules that allow me to work and study. |
|                                                      | e. | I arrive late and leave early during classes. |
|                                                      | f. | I don’t attend classes. |
|                                                      | g. | I stay up late studying. |
|                                                      | h. | I have time management skills. |
|                                                      | i. | Other ................................................................|
|                                                      | j. | Don’t know |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive and negative impacts of working</th>
<th>D: What kind of negative impact does working have on your studies?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>g.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| E: What kind of positive impact does working have on your studies? | a. | It will improve my employability after graduation. |
|                                                                  | b. | Working on campus has helped improve students’ grades and |
degree completion.
c. The work is related to my course; as a result my academic performance has improved.
d. It has improved my personal development because it has increased my confidence and social skills.
e. It has improved my organisational skills and time management skills.
f. Work-study has helped me to become more independent, gain confidence, and earn money to pay for leisure activities.
g. Other
h. Don’t know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Any type of support students receive</th>
<th>U: Could you please indicate if you receive practical or personal support which helps you to be able to study?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Financial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Childcare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Shopping/Domestic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Lift/Car sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e. Coursework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Options</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **W: From whom do you receive practical or personal support?**          | a. From family members  
b. From friends  
c. From fellow students  
d. From none of the above  
e. Other (please say) |
| **X: Who is paying for your fees?**                                     | a. NASFAS (no pay back)  
b. NASFAS (some pay-back required)  
c. Myself  
d. My employer and myself  
e. Full scholarship  
f. Partial scholarship  
g. Bank/Study loan  
h. My parents  
i. Don’t know |
| **Y: Who is responsible for your living expenses?**                    | a. Myself  
b. My parents  
c. NASFAS  
d. Work-study programme  
e. Salary/Personal funds  
f. Spouse or partner support  
g. Other (please specify):......  
h. Don’t know |
### N: Which is more important to you?
- a. Work-study programme
- b. Studies
- c. Both the studies and work-study programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics of Respondent</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic faculty</td>
<td>Faculty of study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic year of study</td>
<td>S. Number of years at university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial status</td>
<td>X. Main source of financial support for studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Q. (a. b. c.) Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B (Male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C (rather not say)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family circumstances in terms of who they stay with</td>
<td>T. Living arrangements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living expenses</td>
<td>Y. Who is responsible for living expenses?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>R. Nationality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place where they stay</td>
<td>Z. Do they stay on campus or off campus?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>