



GÖTEBORGS UNIVERSITET

Department of Social Work

**The Satisfaction of Master Students at Gothenburg University with Swedish Labour Market: A focus on International Students in relation to their Swedish counterparts, utilizing a Human Rights Approach**

International Master of Science in Social Work and Human Rights  
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## **ACRONYMS**

<b>EEA</b>	European Economic Area
<b>EMN</b>	European Migration Network
<b>EU</b>	European Union
<b>ICCPR</b>	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
<b>ICESCR</b>	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Office
<b>LO</b>	Swedish Trade Union Confederation
<b>LSAY</b>	Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth
<b>MMU</b>	Manchester Metropolitan University
<b>OHCHR</b>	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
<b>SACO</b>	The Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations
<b>SHRM</b>	Society for Human Resource Management
<b>TCO</b>	The Swedish Confederation of Professional Employees
<b>UDHR</b>	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
<b>VET</b>	Vocational Education and Training

## DECLARATION

I **JANEPHER TURYAMWESIGA** do hereby declare that to the best of my knowledge and belief, the work presented in this Thesis is original. The findings presented have never been submitted elsewhere for any award. Where other people's information has been used, references or quotations have been made.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_

Janepher Turyamwesiga

Date \_\_\_\_\_

This Thesis has been submitted with the approval of the Supervisor

Birgitta Jansson \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

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“The sky is the limit for us all”.

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## **DEDICATION**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Higher education has become more globalized and international students are increasingly faced with financial pressures due to changes in welfare states. As a student, working part-time is the only practical way to ease the economic limitations of life. In this study, the human rights approach is used to establish the satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts. In order to achieve this goal, the study aimed at assessing the involvement of international and Swedish students in paid work during their studies; to find out the kind of jobs both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University engage in while studying; and to investigate the level of satisfaction with Swedish labour market among both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University. It was hypothesized that: most international students at Gothenburg University are engaged in paid work; most international students at Gothenburg University engage in blue-collar jobs; and most of the international students at Gothenburg are less satisfied with Swedish labour market. A cross sectional quantitative study using a web based survey was conducted among master students at Gothenburg University, spring 2013, in seven selected departments within faculty of Social Sciences. In total, 118 students answered the survey; however, only 100 students completed all the questions. Collected data was analyzed using SPSS 21 software. Findings show four different groups. The first group (n=39) was working. They were mainly engaged in informal, low paid jobs, not related to their academic education. They did not find their jobs intellectually challenging. The second group (n=19) had been working but stopped because of bad working conditions and a wish to focus on their studies. The third group 34 per cent (n=34) was actively searching for jobs but they had not yet found any, only 8 per cent were not interested in working while studying. International students' level of satisfaction with Swedish labour market was different compared to Swedish counterparts. Majority of the international students were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their current/previous jobs in Sweden. This was especially due to the employers' demand for skills in Swedish language even though the job does not demand such a skill. The work related rights of the students, especially international students need urgent attention. Research and current debates have been largely focused on immigrants such as asylum seekers and the refugees. More research is needed since international students within Swedish labour market have remained invisible despite their economic contribution. Whereas this study has some limitations, a remarkable contribution has been made to the body of knowledge on the satisfaction of students with the Swedish labour market utilizing human rights approach and it has laid a cornerstone for advocacy for this group.

### **Keywords**

International students, Swedish students, Job satisfaction, Work related rights, Swedish labour market, Capability approach

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### 1. Introduction

This chapter spells out the background to the study, the problem statement, the research objectives as well as the significance of the study and definition of the key concepts.

#### 1.1 Prologue

In fulfillment of a two year Masters programme in International Social Work and Human Rights at Gothenburg University, I came up with a research topic entitled, *“The Satisfaction of Master Students at Gothenburg University with Swedish Labour Market: A focus on International Students in relation to their Swedish counterparts, utilizing a Human Rights Approach.”* This topic caught my attention because as an international student, I found it necessary to look for a job so that I could earn some extra income. The thought of working came into my mind when I was still in my country and I started asking my friends who had been in Sweden as students how the situation was in terms of finding a job. They told me that it was not easy to get a professional job in Sweden without the knowledge of Swedish language. However, they were quick to add on that with the good social network, one can easily find newspaper distribution jobs. As soon as I stepped in Sweden in August 2011, I started contacting my fellow countrymen and women living in Gothenburg. They connected me to one adverts distribution company and as soon as I submitted my application, I was offered a job instantly. My job was to distribute commercial newspapers to a number of households (300-600) regarded as a district. Unfortunately, I was not trained and the first time I went to distribute these papers, it almost took me the whole day and yet I was paid only 60 Swedish Kronas for the work done. With time, I got used and the work would take me 2-3 hours over the weekend. This means that I was working for only 60 Swedish Kronas within three hours and more over this money included the tax. At the end of the month, I earned so little but I did not give up. Instead, I asked for more districts to work on. I started working from 6:00am up to 8:00pm over the weekends, but at the end of the month I would earn less than 2000 Swedish Kronas tax inclusive. Deep in my heart I was like yes I am being exploited given the fact that there is no minimum wage in Sweden and yet I had no knowledge about trade unions where I could run since I was not a member of any trade union.

I tried another option of getting a job in a company distributing newspapers in the night by 6am. However, one of the conditions to get this job was Swedish language. Through my friend, I managed to get this job on the condition that I would attend Swedish classes. Oh My God! This job was not easy waking up in the night at 1:00am. Well, I was trained but on my first night of work, it rained cats and dogs and papers were so heavy. I was like No; I cannot manage this work. I gave out few papers and I decided to give up the same night. I went back home and slept at 3am. After sometime without work, I requested this same company to give me another chance, though they were reluctant. Finally, they offered me the job and since then I have been one of the best newspaper distributors in Gothenburg though I do not speak the Swedish language. So to me, Swedish language should not be a condition of getting some jobs especially where one is not interacting with the clients. One night as I was out distributing newspapers, I thought about writing on this topic since my work related rights are not fulfilled. Indeed this idea has developed into this thesis you are about to read.

## 1.2 Background of the Study

Education is now a globalized and a transnational issue. Working while studying is part of the students' life in higher institutes of learning. In 2011, there were 3.3 million students studying outside their own country (Bhandari and Blumenthal, 2011). Higher educational institutions in the United States of America (USA) had the largest number of international students worldwide in 2011. International students have access to a range of part time work opportunities in foreign countries while they are pursuing their degree programmes from foreign institutions (Mnemonic Education, 2013).

International students in institutions of higher education in English-speaking countries make valuable economic contributions (Andrade, 2006). Of recent, *“the importance of international students in terms of their impact on the economy, labour market and education systems within the European Union (EU) has often been emphasized by European institutions”* (Swedish Migration Board and European Migration Network (EMN), 2012:9). Students from outside the EU and the European Economic Area (EEA) are allowed to work for 20 hours per week during the academic year on the basis of a student visa in the following countries: Australia, Canada, Cyprus, Ireland, Slovenia, United Kingdom, and the United States. In Canada, the work may only be conducted on the University campus. In the United States, the student may only work on campus in their first year and can work “off campus” after that (Nuffic Knowledge and Innovation Directorate, 2008:7). In Slovenia students may work during the academic year, but exclusively in jobs which the student service has arranged (Mnemonic Education, 2013). In France students from outside the EU/EEA are allowed to work 8.5 hours per week during the academic year on the basis of a student visa. However, students who wish to work in France must obtain prior authorization from the French ministry of labour. In Germany, international students are allowed to do part time jobs for a maximum of 13.8 hours a week. In Denmark and Switzerland, students from outside the EU/EEA are allowed to work for a maximum of 15 hours per week during the academic year. In Finland, students from outside EU/EEA can work up to maximum of 25 hours per week during the academic year. It is only in Sweden where students from outside the EU/EEA can work full-time the whole year. However, there are countries including Belgium, Norway and Poland where a student cannot work during the year, but may work during the summer holidays (Nuffic Knowledge and Innovation Directorate, 2008:7).

The pace of change in higher education is accelerating worldwide where higher education institutions are increasingly being required to raise funds from students as opposed to relying on transfers from governments due to profound fiscal crises (Marcucci and Usher, 2011). According to Swedish National Agency for Higher Education (2012), Sweden was one of the few countries in Europe with a long tradition of free higher education, but in 2010, the Swedish Parliament passed a law outlining tuition and application fees for students outside the EU and the EEA (Vaskovich M., 2012). In June 2010 the Riksdag enacted a provision in the Higher Education Act, that means that higher education is free for Swedish citizens and for citizens of the EU/EEA countries and Switzerland. Citizens of other countries, “third country students”, have to pay an application fee and tuition fees for first and second-cycle higher education programmes as of the Autumn Term 2011 (Swedish National Agency for Higher Education, 2012; Swedish Migration Board and EMN, 2012). The new rules apply only to free movers from outside the EU/EEA studying at the bachelor's or master's level. PhD programs

will continue to be tuition-free. Exchange students are also exempt from fees, as their studies are regulated by agreements between Swedish and foreign Universities (<http://www.studyinsweden.se>).

Vaskovich, (2012) argues that the introduction of tuition fees has significantly affected the number of students studying at International Master Programmes in Sweden. The available Statistics Sweden (2011) demonstrates a rapid decrease in the number of applications (17500) for the 2011/2012 academic year in comparison with previous years 2008/2009 (54200), 2009/2010 (78,800) and 2010/2011(94,400). According to Swedish Migration Board, (2011) 14,188 first-time applicants were issued residence permits for studies in 2010. The following year, 2011, only 6,836 student residence permits were granted, displaying a decrease of 51.8 per cent. To a large extent, this decrease is assumed to be resulting from the introduction of tuition fee. However, according to Swedish National Agency for Higher Education (2012), there was the introduction of 120-credit Master's programmes in higher education in Sweden in 2007 and since then the numbers entering such programmes have risen each year. In the academic year of 2010/11 14600 students began 120-credit Master's programmes, which correspond to a rise of 18 per cent compared to the academic year of 2009/10.

Working while studying is a necessity for many students due to various costs associated with higher education (Simmons, 2009). Simmons, (2009) observes that while it is possible for international students to study and work in Sweden, they might find themselves at a disadvantage in the job search because most jobs require fluent Swedish. In Sweden, international students can work full time as long as they are registered with the tax office and have personal number (Nuffic, Knowledge and Innovation Directorate, 2008). International students are exempted from the requirement to have a work permit during the validity period of their residence permit (Aliens Ordinance, 2006) cited in Swedish Migration Board and EMN, (2012). Swedish Migration Board and EMN, (2012) assert that international students have full access to the labor market during their stay in Sweden; accordingly, *'third-country students who work during their studies have the same work-related rights as persons with permanent residence permits or Swedish nationals, even if their residence permit is only temporary'* (2012:31).

Unlike many other countries, Sweden has no legal minimum wage. Instead, wages are set by collective bargaining agreements between employers and unions. About 70 per cent of all workers in Sweden are affiliated to a trade union. The collective agreement applies to all workers at the workplace in question, not only trade union members. The agreement may be local and apply only to one company or nationwide and apply to a whole industry. Only trade union organizations are entitled to conclude collective agreements, not individual workers. However, a worker who is not union member has no explicit rights under the collective agreement. ([www.arbetsformedlingen.se](http://www.arbetsformedlingen.se)). Collective agreements and individual contracts are the only ways to define how much a worker should be paid for the work performed. Without a collective agreement, an employer can pay as low a salary as possible, as long as the employee accepts it. The Fundamental labour law in Sweden is laid down in legislation, for instance procedural rules for the right to negotiate and basic regulations for all who work in Sweden. Collective agreements usually contain regulations concerning: How pay is to be determined, both minimum pay and the level of pay for more experienced workers; The length and

scheduling of working hours; overtime, duty hours, and the compensation level; Holidays and holiday pay; schemes for occupational pension, group life insurance, sickness and work injuries insurances. Labour legislation is to a high extent of a collective kind, and lays down frameworks and procedural rules.

Whereas 60 per cent of international students in Sweden are engaged in part-time work (Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations (Saco) and Svenskt Näringsliv, (2009) cited in Simmons, (2009) , no research has been done to determine the percentage of international students at Gothenburg University engaged in part-time work while relating it to their human rights. It is against this background that the researcher set out to establish the satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts with the aim of promoting their work related rights.

### **1.3 Problem Statement**

Studying abroad is a common practice whether the experience is short-term for a few months in another country or long-term, relocating to a different nation to complete a degree (Andrade, 2006). However, the number of international students in countries varies. In 2009, there were almost 3.7 million students all over the world who had travelled abroad to study (Swedish National Agency for Higher Education, 2012).

Sweden is an open, multicultural society with a long tradition of welcoming international students. Currently, there are more than 40,000 international students enrolled in higher education in Sweden (<http://www.mastersportal.eu/countries/26/sweden.html>). According to Nuffic Knowledge and Innovation Directorate (2008), Sweden is the only country that allows students from outside EU/EEA to work up to 40 hours per week during the academic year as long as they have a valid residence permit. Students are also allowed to work fulltime during the holiday period. International students too are allowed to work part-time while studying in Sweden and recent changes in legislation have made it easier for non-EU students to remain and work in Sweden after graduation. Students studying in Sweden from the EU are also able to work during their study period without a permit. While part-time jobs are limited (especially if your Swedish language skills are lacking), nonetheless, as a student you always have the opportunity to work (Simmons, 2009).

With the various costs associated with higher education, working part-time while studying is a necessity for many students. Working part-time is only a practical way to ease the economic limitations of life as a student (Simmons, 2009). Most international students who do find jobs however usually don't tend to find intellectually challenging work, but normally in call-centres, washing dishes or serving in restaurants, babysitting and so on (Tandon, 2011). Follis, (2011) observes that most international students are hired to work in the pubs, restaurants or cafes; however, this work is usually paid very little. She notes that students have different motives for working; some students want to make new friends while others want to learn the new language. According to Swedish Confederation of Profession Associations (SACO) and Svenskt Näringsliv (2009) report cited in Simmons, (2009), six out of ten University students work part-time in Sweden. However, what is unclear is the number of international students at Gothenburg University who are engaged in work while studying and the extent to which these students are satisfied with Swedish labour market. Therefore this study sets out to establish the

satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts with the aim of promoting their work related rights.

## **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

### **1.4.1 General Objective**

The overall objective of this study is to establish the satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts with the aim of promoting their work related rights.

### **1.4.2 Specific Objectives**

1. To assess the involvement of international and Swedish students in paid work during their studies.
2. To compare the kind of jobs that both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University engage in while studying.
3. To investigate the level of job satisfaction among both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University.

### **1.4.3 Hypotheses**

1. Most international students at Gothenburg University are engaged in paid work.
2. Most international students at Gothenburg University engage in blue collar jobs.
3. Most international Students at Gothenburg University are less satisfied with Swedish labour market.

### **1.4.4 Significance of the Study**

The issue of job satisfaction has been explored by many researchers while linking it to job performance, but no single study has been carried out among students at Gothenburg University while utilizing human rights approach. This study is important given its contribution in establishing the level of satisfaction with Swedish labour among both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University. The study further links job satisfaction with the work related human rights and the way forward.

The available literature indicate that despite hardship for international students in finding jobs, 6 out of 10 students are engaged in part time work (SACO and Svenskt Näringsliv, (2009) report cited in Simmons, (2009). However, no single research has been carried out in trying to unearth international students' level of satisfaction while relating it to their work related human rights. Therefore this study focuses on international students' human rights visibility in the Swedish labour market. This may enrich policy makers in designing appropriate policies targeting international students.

The study findings increases on the knowledge base for future researchers by providing literature to be reviewed and the gaps to be filled since research is an ongoing process and builds on each other. Therefore, the study findings may help other academicians intending to carry out more and related research.

## **1.5 Definition of Key Concepts**

### **1.5.1 Job Satisfaction**

Lawler and Suttle (1973) proposed that the level of job satisfaction is based on an employee's comparison of 'what is believed to be received' (input) and 'what actually is received' (output). Based on the difference between input and output, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can occur. Job satisfaction can be understood in terms of a discrepancy between the actual needs and wants of employees and how they are fulfilled (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction broadly refers to the degree to which people like their work (Millan et al, 2011). In this study, the latter definition of job satisfaction is used, that is, the degree to which master students at Gothenburg University like their jobs while studying.

### **1.5.2 International Students**

Nuffic, Knowledge and Innovation Directorate (2008) defines 'students' to mean persons who are enrolled in a recognized higher education institution where they study full-time. Andrade, (2006) defines the term international students as individuals enrolled in institutions of higher education who are on temporary student visas and are non-native English speakers (NNES). In this study, international students refer to individuals enrolled in a recognized higher education institution across the borders of their own countries who study full time.

### **1.5.3 Labour Market**

A labour market is the commercial environment in which people exchange their work for income and where employers and workers 'trade' on the demand for, and supply of, skills (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2013). In this thesis, this definition is used without altering anything.

### **1.5.4 Human Rights**

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) defines Human Rights as rights inherent to all human beings, regardless of nationality, place of residence, sex, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, language, or any other status. These rights are all interrelated, interdependent and indivisible. In the context of this thesis, the focus is on right to work aspect of human rights: Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work; without discrimination has the right to equal pay for equal work and has the right to just and favourable remuneration.

## **1.6 Disposition**

The rest of the study is laid out; Chapter two concerns earlier research related to the study and the knowledge gap.

Chapter three puts the study into the theoretical frame work. In this chapter, there are four theories: capability approach, human rights approach, split labour market, and discrimination theory; are all explained in detail and their applicability in the current study.

Chapter four presents an account of how the study was carried out. It describes research methods and procedures of data collection and analysis. Ethical issues are also addressed.

Chapter five presents the findings of the study, discussions and analyses. It also provides interpretation and explanation of the results which are related to the research hypotheses.

Chapter six presents a summary and conclusions of the main findings of the study, shortcomings of the study and the knowledge gap for future research. Finally, it also presents the recommendations.



## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This section has related literature reviewed that exists about the topic under study. Most of the earlier research reviewed is general. The area of international students and work has been a neglected area so far more specifically in Sweden. There is a gap in knowledge about this area that this research will fill. Literature is reviewed and guided by the research objectives.

### **2.2 An overview of Students and Work**

The concept of students engaged in part-time and sometimes full-time employment while studying is increasingly common in countries such as Australia and the UK (Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009). In the UK, a big proportion of students in full time education work in marginal, flexible part time service jobs which are classified as unskilled (Lucas, 1997:595). The proportion of college students doing part-time jobs has been increasing over time in Great Britain (Bradley, 2006; Broadbridge and Swanson 2006 all cited in Hongyu et al, 2010). Howieson et al, (2012) confirmed that British school students now work part-time. Paid part-time work was defined for the students as: “When we ask about any part-time jobs we mean any paid part-time employment that you have, or have had, outside of school. This includes such things as newspaper delivery jobs, shop-work, selling goods door-to-door, babysitting and office or factory work” (Howieson et al, 2012:325). Part-time employment is an essential element of the overall student experience given the increasing costs of becoming involved in higher education (Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009; Polidane and Zakirova, (2011). Employers’ demands for cheap and flexible labour are met by an increasing supply of students to the part-time labour market who have to work due to financial necessity during term-time (Curtis and Lucas, 2001).

#### **2.2.1 The Kind of Work Students Engage in while Studying**

As it was noted above, there is knowledge gap in the earlier literature. Although this section is about international students and work, general related literature about students and work is presented first. Howieson et al, (2012) found out that part-time work is a common experience among school students. This study was carried out among senior three, senior four, senior five and senior six students (equivalent to Years 10, 11, 12 and 13 in England and Wales) in both local authority and independent or private secondary schools across Scotland. Among those who were currently in a part-time job, three sectors predominated: retail (28 per cent); catering (28 per cent) and delivery work (18 per cent). The remaining students were employed across a range of job types: babysitting, hairdressing, office work, farm work, manual trades, cleaning, and a miscellaneous category. The type of work varied across the school stages. The data used in this were collected as part of a comprehensive study of school students in Scotland commissioned by the Scottish Executive. The survey was administered to students at school between January and March 2004 and the response rate was 89 per cent.

Howieson et al, (2012:325) also found out that there were gender differences in part-time work after senior three/Y10 and especially after senior four/Y11 with higher levels of part-time employment amongst young women. Delivery work was one of the main sectors of part-time employment in senior three/Y10 and senior four/Y11. This accounted for over a quarter of part-time employment and was male dominated. It was observed that after senior four/Y11,

supermarket work was male dominated (18 per cent male and 7 per cent female), while chain stores and other shops were female dominated (9 per cent male and 19 per cent). Female students have a higher level of part-time work than their male counterparts and Howieson et al, (2012:332) suggested that part of the explanation might be the type of the jobs on offer, especially after senior four/Y11, where employment is found in chain stores and 'other shops'. The employers in these areas of retail prefer to employ young women whom they may perceive to have better communication skills and to be more presentable.

Barron, (2006) cited in Barron and Anastasiadou, (2009:41) found that almost nine out of ten students studying hospitality and tourism management at an Australian university either worked part-time or were actively looking for employment. Barron and Anastasiadou (2009) study aimed at analyzing part-time working amongst a cohort of students studying hospitality management at a University in Scotland. The sample and setting for this research were all undergraduate students enrolled on courses offered by a tourism and hospitality management school at a Scottish University. Respondents were asked to indicate the type of employment undertaken while studying. It was found that majority of the respondents (62 per cent) were engaged in the hospitality related employment and 30 per cent of the respondents worked in the retail industry (Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009:146). Employers in these industries need cheap and flexible labour in order to remain viable (Curtis and Lucas, 2001 cited in Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009) and students wishing to work part-time fulfill this requirement; these students tend to work in industries such as retailing, hotels and restaurants (Incomes Data Services, 1999 cited in Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009:141).

In a study by Lucas (1995b:52-55) cited in Lucas (1997), she documented gender and occupational segregation in catering occupations including chefs, bar staff, waiters and waitresses. However, Lucas, (1997:602) found out that employment status was not strongly linked to age or gender with around 70 per cent of students working part time and 20 per cent working as casuals. Over all, majority of jobs (90 per cent) were located in the hotel, catering, leisure and retailing sectors. This study was carried out among full time undergraduate students in the five out of seven faculties of Manchester Metropolitan University (MMU). The data formed part of a four year project funded by MMU. Out of 1145 students surveyed, 345 students were currently working during University term and 800 students were not working. Age segregation of overtime pay was significant, with teenagers and females most likely to receive basic pay and least likely to receive a premium rate. Females also earned less than males although the picture was not absolutely clear cut since a significant minority of students reported gender segregation in the work place as a whole (Lucas, 1997:604-605).

Still in the same study, levels of participation in part-time work varied across students from different ethnic backgrounds. The percentages of students from Asian, Pakistani, Black and 'other' backgrounds who had never had a part-time job were 56 per cent, 51 per cent, 54 per cent and 56 per cent respectively compared with 41 per cent, 39 per cent, 40 per cent and 39 per cent among students from Scottish, other British, other white and gypsy/traveler backgrounds respectively. When the relationship between ethnicity and part-time work in the modelling was explored, students from a Pakistani background had a greater probability of being in paid part-time employment compared with students from all other ethnic backgrounds controlling for all other factors (Howieson et al, (2012:326-327).

International students at Universities always have openings in the bars, cafes and shops, as well as in administration, auditing, and even door security for events. These jobs are convenient and flexible (The Guardian, 2012). According to German Academic Exchange Service (2013), there are several student jobs in Germany including carriage ride across the island, taking inventory of birds; jobs in transportation such as bicycle taxi drivers, directing drivers to parking spots at big events. Other students work on student-run radio stations, working at University library, working in University dining halls. There are also Christmas jobs such as Christmas tree vendors and distributing Christmas gifts (German Academic Exchange Service, 2013). However, some countries have work restrictions for international students. In Japan, it is strictly prohibited by laws and regulations for foreign students to work in entertainment service establishments that may affect public morals. For example, the students cannot work at places such as bars (<http://www.studyjapan.go.jp/en/inj/inj03e.html>).

Similarly, Yuzhuo (2012) in his study, “*International graduates from Finland: Do they satisfy the needs of Finnish employers abroad?*” found out that international graduates from Finnish higher education institutions are rarely employed in Finland for a number of reasons, such as the language barrier and a relatively small job market. This study aimed at using employers’ perspectives in understanding the possibilities of Finnish-educated international graduates finding jobs in Finnish companies in their home countries, taking Chinese graduates as an example. The study utilized a qualitative approach based on open-ended interviews at 16 Finnish companies in China and among the interviewed companies; there were only a very small number of Finnish-educated Chinese employees. Based on the interview analysis, Yuzhuo, (2012) noted that there are two main reasons for this. One concerned with employers’ negative perceptions of the graduates and the other one included a number of factors constraining recruitment, among which the most critical is the lack of information exchange between the graduates and employers. Haan, (n.d) cited in Tandon K. (2011) noted that most international students who find jobs usually don’t tend to find intellectually challenging work. However, international students tend to work in call-centres, washing dishes or serving in restaurants, and babysitting. Follis, (2011) observed that most international students are hired to work in the pubs, restaurants or cafes; however, this work is usually paid very little.

### **2.2.2 Reasons why Students Work**

Barron and Anastasiadou (2009) in their study “*Student part-time employment: Implications, challenges and opportunities for higher education,*” identified the reasons for becoming involved in part-time employment. It was found that financial concerns were the most frequently indicated with 60 per cent of respondents identifying this as the main reason for becoming involved in part-time employment while studying. Gaining experience (12 per cent) and developing practical skills (9 per cent), developing career contacts (8 per cent) and developing personal skills (7 per cent) were also articulated reasons.

With the various costs associated with higher education working part-time while studying is a necessity for many students to cover living and academic expenses (Tandon K., 2011; The Editor Graduate Prospects UK, 2011; Polidane and Zakirova, (2011). Part-time work helps international students to earn a part of their living expenses to be incurred during their stay in that country (Mnemonic Education, 2013). Most students end up having to work to supplement their income, but balancing full-time study with part-time employment can be tricky (The

Guardian, 2012). By taking on a part-time job as an international student in Germany, one can earn some extra cash (German Academic Exchange Service, 2013). Working part-time while studying is the only a practical way to ease the economic limitations of life as a student, but also an ideal way to gain work experience (Simmons, 2009). Although financial rewards appear to be the main motivation for the majority part-time working amongst a cohort of students studying hospitality management at the University in Scotland, non-pecuniary reasons for part-time employment also appear important (Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009). Hongyu et al, (2010) in their study, "*The effects of doing part-time jobs on college student academic performance and social life in a Chinese society*" found out that most Western students who work out of a need to supplement their student loans, the majority of Macau students work to acquire work experience (57 per cent) or sustain a lifestyle (47 per cent). Only 13 per cent report that they work out of financial necessity and a sizable number (34 per cent) report that they work out of boredom or under peer influence (20 per cent). Most Macau students choose to work for reasons other than financial necessity (Hongyu et al, 2010: 85).

Polidane and Zakirova, (2011) in their study, "*Outcomes from combining work and tertiary study,*" used the 1995 and 1998 cohorts of the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth (LSAY) to investigate the motivations for and the education and employment outcomes from working while studying for both Vocational Education and Training (VET) and higher education students. They found that employment in the students' last year of study significantly improves the chances of finding full-time employment in the first year out from study (Polidane and Zakirova, 2011:9). Tandon K., (2011) notes that working while studying is very important since one can be able to get some experience in the field into which one wishes to go, demonstrating one's passion and getting an invaluable head start.

Although Polidane and Zakirova, (2011) noted that most students work in jobs unrelated to their field of study, they maintain that the magnitude of benefits depends heavily on the nature of the job while studying. The main explanation for why the initial employment benefits to higher education depend more heavily on the type of work performed is that employers of higher education graduates may not value general skills developed from working in a non-career job to the same degree (Polidane and Zakirova, 2011). Most part-time work that international students do does not count towards on their academic education. However, by carefully choosing the type of work, one can gain relevant industry experience which may boost one's employability upon graduation (The Editor Graduate Prospects UK, 2011). Regula and Uschi (2012) in their study, "*Earning while learning: When and how student employment is beneficial?*" found out that there is significant positive labour market returns of 'earning while learning' only for student employment related to the field of study. These returns consist of a lower unemployment risk, shorter job-search duration, higher wage effects, and greater job responsibility. They used data from a representative survey on Swiss graduates of tertiary education conducted by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office to do the analysis. They looked at graduates in 2000 and were first surveyed one year after graduation (in 2001) and again five years after graduation (in 2005). This panel design allowed them to analyze both short-term and longer-term labour market success of different student employment status (Regula and Uschi, 2012:18).

Aparecida et al, (2012) acknowledge that labor makes a major contribution to young workers'

financial status and social inclusion. Aparecida et al, (2012:955) in their study “*Effects of Working Full-Time and Studying in the Evening Hours Among Young Apprentices and Trainees*” found out that the personal and family financial needs were stated to be the main reason for those adolescents having started working at an early age. They also mentioned other aspects such as personal development, work experience, and parent pressure. This study was carried out in a Non Governmental Organization (NGO) with 40 young members of a first job program in the city of São Paulo, Brazil.

Working while studying helps international students to get international exposure while working in different countries; and also help in development of their personality and communication skills (Mnemonic Education, 2013). Part-time and casual work has obvious benefits for students. For instance, it boosts their transferable skills such as time management, organizational and teamwork abilities; and it gives them a day-to-day working life (The Editor Graduate Prospects UK, 2011).

International students who are trying to get a feel for the language and culture of their host country find working while studying very beneficial (Tandon, 2011). For example, by taking on a part-time job as an international student, you can get to know Germany better and you make friends (German Academic Exchange Service, 2013). Some students go to work to socialize and to meet new people and working is deemed as a way to maintain and enhance their social lives (Ford and Bosworth 1995; Curtis 2007 all cited in Hongyu et al, 2010). Students’ employment provides them with advantages other than money including the opportunity to meet people and to take on responsibility (Curtis and Lucas, 2001).

Muldoon, (2009) in her study, “*Recognizing the enhancement of graduate attributes and employability through part-time work while at University*” recognized that while it is understood that earning money is the primary for having a part-time job, she found out that 8 out of 13 students said that they valued work experience. All in all money was the primary reason, secondary was experience. They also mentioned part time work was the opportunity to develop work skills such as customer service, teamwork, management and communication skills. Three students mentioned having fun or a change from normal routines. In regards to voluntary work, employability and personal satisfaction were given equally as reasons by more than half the students ( $n = 15$ ) for why they did voluntary work. Nine students cited reasons such as wanting experience related to their course, resume building, and developing workplace skills such as decision making and leadership skills. This study focused on the institutional award for personal and professional development through extra-curricular activity: part-time work. It was carried among students at University of New England (UNE), Australia, data collection was via postal and phone surveys of students and their work supervisors/ employers.

Working part time while studying in Sweden helps international students to meet new people, and to become more familiar within Swedish society (Simmons, 2009). Follis, (2011) observes that international students have different motives for working; some students want to make new friends, others want to make money while others want to learn the new language.

## 2.3 Job Satisfaction

Many scholars have written extensively on job satisfaction and they all agree that it is difficult to come up with a universal definition of job satisfaction. For example Kanjana and Nuttawuth, (n.d) agree that there is no consensus among researchers on ways of defining job satisfaction.

Hoppock's (1935:47) cited in Green, (2000:6) defined job satisfaction as "*...any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job'*". In 1960s and 1970s Locke came up with different job satisfaction definitions. Locke (1969: 317) defined *job satisfaction* as "*a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values. Job dissatisfaction is the unpleasant emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's values.*" In 1970s, Locke gave another definition of job satisfaction in his book entitled "*Handbook of Industrial Psychology*" as "*a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences*" (Locke, 1976:300 cited in Green, 2000:6). Green, (2000) argues that people bring mental and physical abilities and time to their jobs. People work because they want to make a difference in their own lives and in the lives of others. Green's argument means that people work for different reasons in trying to achieve personal goals. This implies that when one's job meets or exceeds his/her expectations, the individual usually experiences positive emotions. Smith (1992) cited in Green (2000) considers these positive emotions to represent job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is also defined as a sense of completeness and accomplishment stemming from work, this feeling has nothing to do with money or features, or even permission to leave. Feeling of relief that the employee has is stemming from the work itself (Odwan, 1999 cited in Mohammed, 2011). Job satisfaction is considered as the key element of general satisfaction, which supplies the human with the necessary energy to give to perform and continue working. Job satisfaction contributes peace of mind, relaxation to the employee and this lead to increase his enthusiasm and focus in his work to innovate (Maher, 2004 cited in Mohammed, 2011).

Job satisfaction is referred as the extent to which individuals like or dislike their jobs, or simply individuals' feelings about their jobs and the different facets of their jobs (Spector, 1997). Weiss (2002:175) defined job satisfaction in his paper "*Deconstructing Job Satisfaction: Separating Evaluations, Beliefs and Affective Experiences*", as an attitude of a —positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or situation.

The above different definitions of job satisfaction add to the complexity of examining job satisfaction in the workplace (Weiss, 2002). Green (2000) compares job satisfaction as another source of life satisfaction—marriage. When people lack marriage satisfaction or experience dissatisfaction in their union, they often get a divorce. Although scholars define job satisfaction differently, they all agree that that job satisfaction is a job-related emotional reaction that reduces the gap between individual's job expectations and unmet needs.

### **2.3.1 Determinants of Job Satisfaction**

In trying to identify and understand the factors important to over all employee satisfaction and engagement, Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM, 2012) conducted an annual survey among U.S employees. This survey examined 35 aspects of employee job satisfaction and 34 aspects of employee engagement. The job satisfaction and employee engagement aspects are divided into seven topic areas including career development, relationship with management, compensation and benefits, work environment, engagement opinions, engagement behaviors, and conditions for engagement. Still in the same report, several internal and external factors were identified to influence employee job satisfaction and engagement and it was argued that these factors may change over time. According to this study, for example in 2012, 81 per cent of U.S. employees reported overall satisfaction with their current job, with 38 per cent of employees indicating they were “very satisfied” and 43 per cent “somewhat satisfied.” Employees’ overall satisfaction with their jobs is down five percentage points from its peak of 86 per cent in 2009 and four percentage points above its low in 2002 (77 per cent) (SHRM, 2012:3).

In general, Wadhwa D. et al, (2011) conducted a study in a cement plant in India entitled, *“Factors Influencing Employee Job Satisfaction – a study in Cement Industry of Chhattisgarh.”* This was a quantitative research that utilized descriptive research design. Primary data was collected using a questionnaire and the sample size was 150 employees working in the cement plant. The results from this study show that there are various factors behind employees’ job satisfaction. These factors were divided broadly into three categories, that is, behavioral, organizational and environmental factors. Additionally, Wadhwa et al, (2011) found out that job satisfaction can be influenced by the quality of one’s relationship with their supervisor, the quality of the physical environment in which they work, the degree of fulfillment in their work. They conclude that if the employees are treated equally and fairly and they are properly supervised, their level of satisfaction can be increased towards their job. Thus, Wadhwa et al (2011) found out that organizational factors are the most important aspect for job satisfaction of the employees in a company.

Choi and Sneed, (2006) in their study *“Factors to job satisfaction and intend to turnover for part-time student employees in University dinning services”* found out that employee job satisfaction is affected by many factors including work-related characteristics (supervision quality, orientation and training). These factors were found to have positive effect on job satisfaction. This study was conducted among part-time student employees working in dining services in three universities in Iowa: Iowa State University, the University of Iowa, and the University of Northern Iowa. It was quantitative in nature. The questionnaire was pilot tested at Iowa State University by six graduate students in Hotel, Restaurant, and Institution Management. Two were employed at dining services and three others had worked previously for dining services. Four of the six were international students. Comments about the questionnaire were used to modify and improve the clarity of each item and determine the time required to complete the questionnaire. Having modified the questionnaire, 657 questionnaires were distributed and the total response rate was 20 per cent. The low response rate was related to the fact that the researcher did not contact each respondent individually, but rather surveys were distributed by managers at each cafeteria. No follow up was used due to procedural

difficulty for anonymity, which also could contribute to low response rates (Choi and Sneed, 2006:4-5).

### **2.3.1.1 Organizational Factors**

Wadhwa et al, (2011) found out that fair rewarding was one of the organizational factors that increase employees' satisfaction. They argue employees are more satisfied when their works are fairly rewarded though they also argue that people work for different reasons. Promotion opportunities influence job satisfaction in different ways. However, Wadhwa et al, (2011) argue that employees promoted based on their work experience are less satisfied with their jobs than employees who are promoted on the basis of their work results. This implies that employees should be promoted based on their job results but not experience. According to SHRM (2012), 57 per cent of the employees were satisfied with job specific training. Employees view job-specific training as very important to their jobs. Aparecida et al, (2012:956) in their study "*Effects of Working Full-Time and Studying in the Evening Hours Among Young Apprentices and Trainees*" found out that both the apprentices and trainees reported having only basic guidelines directed to operational activities in the company, except for a trainee who also had safety training. Employers offer job-specific training to provide employees with the relevant skills to enable them to perform their duties efficiently. Job-specific training is also necessary to fill a newly hired employee's skills gap (SHRM, 2012).

### **2.3.1.2 Work Environment**

Society for Human Resource Management, (2009) conducted the job satisfaction survey with a sample of employees and a sample of human resource professionals. The objective of this survey was to identify and understand factors important to overall employee satisfaction from the perspectives of both employees and human resource professionals. This survey explored 24 aspects of employee job satisfaction which was divided into four topic areas-career development, relationship with management, compensation and benefits and work environment. The results from this survey show that 54 percent of employees and 52 per cent of HR professionals indicated that feeling safe in the work environment is very important to employee job satisfaction. Female employees considered feeling safe in the workplace and especially important job satisfaction factor compared with male workers (SHRM, 2009:13). Employee job satisfaction increases with sufficient work conditions (Ozdemir, 2009). Additionally, work conditions for instance work places must be in normal conditions to allow employees to do their job properly. In work places where there is not sufficient conditions, employees motivation level decreases and such a situation affects employee job satisfaction negatively (Wadhwa D. et al, 2011, Ozdemir, 2009).

### **2.3.1.3 Behavioral Factors**

SHRM, (2011) found that employees' autonomy and independence are very important job satisfaction factors that provide employees with increased freedom, flexibility and discretion to make decisions on the job. Employees rated their relationship with their immediate supervisor as more important to their job satisfaction than benefits and compensation. This was annual employee job satisfaction and engagement survey of U.S. employees that aimed at identifying and understanding the factors important to overall employee job satisfaction and engagement. This survey explored 35 aspects of employee job satisfaction, divided into four topic areas including career development, relationship with management, compensation and benefits, and



work environment. Wadhwa et al, (2011:110) also noted that giving more freedom to employees in their job increases their satisfaction. This relates to the employees' authority to make decisions. However, Millan et al, (2011:12) concluded that self-employed are more likely than paid employees to be satisfied with the type of work related to the independence and flexibility that self-employed enjoy as they are not working for a boss. Self-employment has advantages in providing autonomy as compared to paid employment.

According to Wood et al. (1986), cited in Alam, and Mohammed, (2009) argue that employees are satisfied with their jobs depending on the information and guidelines they are provided with by their supervisors. Wadhwa et al, (2011) noted that satisfaction with Supervisors and managers are one of the main factors which affect job satisfaction. Managers interested in employees' work, assisting them in solution of their work related and personal life problems and also developing informal relations together with the formal ones are increasing employees' job satisfaction (Workers are more pleased when they work with leaders-managers. Leadership involves motivating employees' efforts for reaching a certain level (Ozdemir, 2009).

When a job does not correspond with employee's personal life, or is the source of anxiety and confusion, it's stressful. This stress is regarded as negative stress that reduces job satisfaction (Wadhwa D. et al, 2011:109). However, from this argument, it is clear that individuals are different and therefore maybe affected differently by stress that may in turn bring about job dis/satisfaction. Aparecida et al (2012) in their study, "*Effects of Working Full-Time and Studying in the Evening Hours Among Young Apprentices and Trainees*" found out that the majority of participants mentioned difficulties in dealing with the pressure and their share of responsibilities at work. This study was carried out in a nongovernmental organization (NGO) with 40 young members of a first job program in the city of São Paulo, Brazil. They filled out a comprehensive questionnaire focused on socio demographic variables, working conditions, and health symptoms. Individual and collective semi-structured interviews were conducted. The right balance between work and study is not easy and this may depend on a number of individual factors, such as the time spent in work, the type of work performed, course demands, academic ability, past experience in the labour market, intended future career paths, course fees, other time commitments and the availability of other forms of financial support (Polidane and Zakirova, 2011:11, SHRM, 2012). Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement survey found out that half of the employees rated flexibility to balance work and life issues as very important to their overall job satisfaction.

#### **2.3.1.4 Wage Benefits**

Compensation is considered as one of the most extrinsic indicators of job satisfaction (SHRM, 2009). In 2012 Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement survey, six out of 10 employees indicated that compensation was very important to their overall job satisfaction (SHRM, 2012). Compensation has consistently remained one of the top five job satisfaction aspects most important to employees (SHMR, 2009). This dimension determines the level of job satisfaction of employees by knowing how much they are satisfied with the pay or compensation (Alam and Mohammad, 2009). Alam and Mohammad (2009) study aimed at examining the level of perceived job satisfaction and intention to leave among Malaysian nurses. This was a cross-sectional survey of nurses in one of the public hospital in Perlis was carried out. The population of this study comprises registered nurses and those holding a valid Malaysian

Nursing Board license to practice nursing in public hospitals. A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed, and the response rate of the completed questionnaire was 77 per cent. According to Ozdemir (2009), material rewards are considered very important in job satisfaction. Money meets luxury needs and wants of people, along with their fundamental needs. Generally, employees accept salary as supervisors' reward for the work they have performed. Employees are more satisfied when their works are fairly rewarded (Ozdemir, 2009). Choi and Sneed, (2006) found out that student employees were less satisfied with work promotion opportunities, and pay than with supervision, people with whom they work, and flexible schedule. They recommended that supervisors should examine the work of student employees to determine if there are strategies to make the work more interesting and also developing opportunities for promotion, which could lead to pay increases. However, they maintained that providing incentives for student employees based on their performance may increase their satisfaction (Choi and Sneed, 2006:12)

### **2.3.1.5 Job Security**

Business dictionary defines job security as an assurance or lack of it that an employee has about the continuity of gainful employment for his/her work life. Job security usually arises from the terms of the contract of employment, collective bargaining agreement or labour legislation that prevents arbitrary termination and layoffs; and it may be affected by general economic conditions (<http://www.businessdictionary.com>). According to SHRM (2011), Job security for the fourth consecutive year, remained at the top of employees' list of most important determinants of job satisfaction.

Millan et al., (2011) in their study 'determinants of job satisfaction: a European comparison of self-employed and paid employees' they focused on job satisfaction in terms of type of work and also on satisfaction in terms of job security. They found out that the paid employees are more satisfied with their present jobs in terms of job security than self-employed employees (Millan et al., 2011). This job satisfaction of self-employed and paid employed workers was analyzed using the European Community Household Panel for the EU-15 covering the years 1994-2001. In the same study, with respect to demographic characteristics, Millan et al., 2011, found out that females (both the self-employed and paid employees) were significantly satisfied in terms of job security than men. However, SHRM, (2009) found out that job security was an aspect of job satisfaction was more important to male employees than to female employees.

Vézina et al. (2011) in their survey on "*Working and Employment Conditions and Occupational Health and Safety*" found out that there was a high level of employment insecurity among Québec workers. More than one-third of the workers (35.8 per cent) were in the category of individuals living with employment insecurity. This survey was carried out as part of Québec's Minister of Labour's responsibility for conducting a study of changes in working conditions in Québec every five years, in collaboration with the organizations concerned, with the ultimate aim of influencing the future course of public policy. Data was collected through telephone interviews between November 2007 and February 2008 and at the end of this period, 5,071 interviews lasting an average of 35 minutes had been completed, corresponding to a response rate of approximately 62 per cent.

Having an indefinite job contract is the strongest predictor of satisfaction with job security for paid employees. The probability of being satisfied with job security increases by approximately 64 per cent for paid employees with an indefinite contract. When self-employed individuals work longer hours, this increases job satisfaction with job security (at a decreasing rate) (Millan et al., 2011:12). Regarding employment characteristics, Millan et al., (2011) found out that workers in the construction sector are less likely to be satisfied with their jobs in terms of job security than workers in any other industry. Furthermore, those employees working in small firms (5–19 employees) are more likely to be satisfied in terms of job security than those in firms of a different size. Looking at firm size, it appears that employees who work in micro, small, and medium-sized firms are more likely to be satisfied with the type of work they do than those working in larger firms.

## **2.4 Knowledge Gap in the Reviewed Earlier Studies**

From the above reviewed literature, it has been clearly noted that there is scarcity of research on student employment. For instance, Yuzhuo, (2012) recognizes that there is scarcity of research on the employment of Finnish-educated international graduates. Many students working remain invisible because service sector jobs where most students employed are low paid and are not recorded in official statistics (Lucas, 1999:596). Moreover, no single study has been carried among Master students at Gothenburg University in establishing why some students engage in paid work. Therefore, it was important to find out the kind of work students engaged in while studying and the reasons why these students worked and associated benefits.

It is clear also that job satisfaction is influenced by many factors and employees are influenced differently depending on the situation at hand. And moreover, employees have different expectations in their jobs. This therefore calls for research to establish the level to which master students at Gothenburg University are satisfied with Swedish labour market.

Additionally, employees in different organizations are treated differently. Therefore, there is a need for research among Master students at Gothenburg University since they work for different employers and therefore their level of satisfaction may vary from student to student depending on where they work and how they are treated.

Lastly, from reviewed literature, many scholars have written extensively on job satisfaction in different settings. Most of these studies have linked employee job satisfaction to job performance but there is no single study that has been conducted to relate job satisfaction and employees' work related human rights. Therefore, this study set out to establish satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts with the aim of promoting their work related rights.

## CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter entails four theories that are relevant and appropriate for this study. These include: capability approach, human rights approach, split labour market, and discrimination theory. These theories are interlinked and complement each other in trying to explain the phenomenon at hand.

### 3.2 Capability Approach

The capability approach was first articulated by the Indian economist and philosopher Amartya Sen in the 1980s, and it has remained most closely associated with him (Wells, 2012). Wells, (2012) adds that Nussbaum and Sen collaborated in the late 1980s and early 1990s and since then, they are the most high-profile writers in the capability approach. Sen first introduced the concept of capability in his Tanner Lectures on *Equality of What?* (Sen, 1979) and went on to elaborate it in subsequent publications during the 1980s and 1990s cited in Wells, (2012). Sen acknowledges that his approach has strong conceptual connections with Aristotle's understanding of human flourishing, with Adam Smith, and Karl Marx (Wells, 2012). While Sen's approach is founded on enhancing individual freedom (Sen, 1999), Wells, (2012) observes that Nussbaum's theory is founded on respecting human dignity. The capability approach is defined by its choice of focus upon the moral significance of individuals' capability of achieving the kind of lives they have reason to value (Wells, 2012).

Sen's capabilities approach focuses on *positive freedom*, a person's actual ability to be or do something (Sen, 2001). He goes on to argue that what people can positively achieve is influenced by economic opportunities, social powers, political liberties and the enabling conditions of good health, basic education, encouragement and cultivation of initiatives (Sen, 2001:5). Sen discusses three concepts; that is, resources, capabilities and functioning (Sen, 2001; 1999). The concept of "functioning," reflects the various things a person may value doing or being (Sen, 2001:75) while a person's "capability" refers to the alternative combinations of functionings that are feasible for her to achieve. Capability is thus a kind of freedom: the substantive freedom to achieve alternative functioning combinations. The unfreedom can arise either through inadequate process (such as the inadequate opportunities that some people have for achieving what they minimally would like to achieve (Sen, 1999:17).

The capability approach is a theoretical framework that entails two core normative claims: first, the claim that the freedom to achieve well-being is of primary moral importance, and second, that freedom to achieve well-being is to be understood in terms of people's capabilities, that is, their real opportunities to do and be what they have reason to value. The core characteristic of the capability approach is its focus on what people are effectively able to do and to be; that is, on their capabilities (Sen, 1999; 2001 and Robeyns, 2003; 2011). These scholars agree that the capability approach has in recent decades emerged as a new theoretical framework about well-being, development and justice. Robeyns, (2011) notes that 'capability approach' and 'capabilities approach' are both used in literature to refer the same rather than capability theory. The capability approach is generally conceived as a flexible and multi-

purpose framework, rather than a precise theory of well-being (Sen 1992: 48; Qizilbash 2008: 53–54; Robeyns, 2005: 94–96) all cited in (Robeyns, 2011).

Although there are philosophical disagreements about the best description of the capability approach, it is generally understood as a conceptual framework for a range of normative exercises, including most prominent the following: (1) the assessment of individual well-being; (2) the evaluation and assessment of social arrangements; and (3) the design of policies and proposals about social change in society (Robeyns, 2011). Robeyns, (2011) asserts that amidst all these normative exercises, the capability approach prioritizes certain of peoples' beings and doings and their opportunities to realize those beings and doings.

The capability approach advocates that we focus on people's capabilities when making normative evaluations, such as those involved in poverty measurement, cost-benefit analysis, efficiency evaluations, social justice, issues, development ethics, and inequality analysis (Sen, 1999, 2001). Capabilities are people's potential functionings. Functionings are beings and doings. All capabilities together correspond to the overall freedom to lead the life that a person has reason to value (Robeyns, 2003). However, Sen (1999) stresses the importance of scrutinizing our motivations for valuing specific lifestyles, and not simply valuing a certain life without reflecting upon it. By advocating that normative evaluations should look at people's capabilities, Sen, (1999) criticizes evaluations that focus exclusively on utilities, resources, or income. He argues against a utility based evaluation of individual well-being because such an evaluation might hide important dimensions and lead to misleading interpretations. The capability approach rejects normative evaluations based exclusively on commodities, income, or material resources. Resources are only the means to enhance people's well-being and advantage, whereas the concern should be with what matters intrinsically, namely people's functioning's and capabilities. Resource-based theories do not acknowledge that people differ in their abilities to convert these resources into capabilities, due to personal, social or environmental factors (Robeyns, 2003).

Broadly speaking, Robeyns, (2011) looks at the capability approach not only evaluating the lives of individuals (as in the more narrow use), but also includes other considerations in its evaluations. For example, the broader use of the capability approach often pays attention to other normative considerations and other values than only well-being, such as efficiency, agency, or procedural fairness. The capability approach can be used for a wide range of purposes (Sen, 1993 cited in Robeyns, 2003). Sen, (1999) and Robeyns, (2005) argue that our evaluations and policies should focus on what people are able to do and be, on the quality of their life, and on removing obstacles in their lives so that they have more freedom to live the kind of life that, upon reflection, they have reason to value.

According to the capability approach, the ends of well-being, justice and development should be conceptualized in terms of people's capabilities to function; that is, their effective opportunities to undertake the actions and activities that they want to engage in, and be whom they want to be (Robeyns, 2005). These beings and doings are what Sen (1999, 2001) called functionings together that constitute what makes a life valuable. According to Robeyns, (2005:95) what is ultimately important is that people have the freedoms or valuable opportunities (capabilities) to lead the kind of lives they want to lead, to do what they want to

do and be the person they want to be. Once they effectively have these substantive opportunities, they can choose those options that they value most and this is what Sen, (1999, 2001) call freedom.

### **3.3 Human Rights-Based Approach**

According to Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, (2006:15-16), a human rights-based approach is a conceptual framework for the process of human development that is normatively based on international human rights standards and operationally directed to promoting and protecting human rights. It seeks to analyze inequalities which lie at the heart of development problems and redress discriminatory practices and unjust distributions of power that impede development progress. A human rights-based approach identifies rights holders and their entitlements and corresponding duty-bearers and their obligations, and works towards strengthening the capacities of rights-holders to make their claims and of duty-bearers to meet their obligations. This approach focuses on the realization of the rights of the excluded and marginalized populations, and those whose rights are at risk of being violated.

The right to work and work related rights can be conceptualized within human rights-based approach.

*“The right to work was first addressed in Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (right to work, equal pay for equal work, and just and favourable remuneration). Article 24 provides for the right for everyone to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation for working hours. In article 6 and 7 of the International Covenant on economic, social and cultural rights, the right to work was further developed and which is legal binding. Article 6 stipulates right holders and their entitlement while article 7 points at duty bearers-state parties recognize the right to work of everyone to the enjoyment of just and favourable conditions of work”* (Symonides (ed), 2000:141).

*“Under part one of the European Social Charter, states recognize that everyone shall have the opportunity to earn their living in occupation freely entered upon, that all workers shall have the right to just conditions of work, the right to safe and healthy working conditions and to fair remuneration sufficient for a standard of living for themselves and their families”* (Symonides (ed), 2000:141).

*“Part two contains specific commitments of states, article 1 expresses commitments to be taken by states as: to accept as one of their primary aims and responsibilities the achievement and maintenance of as high and stable level of employment as possible; to protect effectively the right of the worker to earn his living in an occupation freely entered upon and to establish or maintain free employment services for all workers. Article 2 deals with the undertaking to limit the working hours and ensure as a minimum two weeks of holiday with a pay. Article 3 deals with the right to safe and healthy working conditions and article 4 provides for right to fair remuneration”* (Symonides (ed), 2000: 142).

*“Under article 5(e) (i) of the International convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial discrimination, state parties undertake to guarantee the right of everyone,*

*without distinction to race, colour or national or ethnic origin, to equality before the law in the enjoyment of the rights to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favorable conditions of work, to protection against unemployment, to equal pay for equal work, and to just and favorable remuneration. Under article 11 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, state parties shall take all appropriate to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure equality of men and women including the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service” (Symonides (ed), 2000:142).*

Finally, there are instrumental rights found in Article 22(1) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and Article 11 (1) of the European Convention on Human Rights that provide that everyone shall have the right to freedom of association with others, including the right to form and join trade unions for the protection of his interests. Article 8 (1) (a) of International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights provides that the States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to ensure: The right of everyone to form trade unions and join the trade union of his choice, subject only to the rules of the organization concerned, for the promotion and protection of his economic and social interests. No restrictions may be placed on the exercise of this right other than those prescribed by law (Symonides (ed), 2000). Sweden is a signatory of the above International Conventions.

The right to work demands the creation of a social, economic and physical environment in which all people have fair and equal opportunities to prosper by virtue of their own endeavour and in a manner consistent with their dignity. Thus, the right to work carries with it the responsibility to promote the personal capabilities and expand the opportunities for people to find productive work and to earn a decent livelihood (OHCHR, 2006)

### **3.4 Split labor Market Theory**

Split labour market theory was originally proposed and developed by sociologist Edna Bonacich in the early 1970s. Bonacich, (1972) proposed this theory in an attempt to explain racial/ethnic tensions and labour market segregation by race or ethnicity in terms of social structure and political power rather than individual level prejudice. To be split, a labor market must contain at least two groups of workers whose price of labor differs for the same work, or would differ if they did the same work (Bonacich, 1972). The concept "price of labor" refers to labor's total cost to the employer, including not only wages, but the cost of recruitment, transportation, room and board, education, health care (if the employer must bear these), and the costs of labor unrest (Bonacich, 1972: 549). Bonacich (1972) argues that this split labour market can result into ethnic antagonism since two or more racially/ ethnically groups are treated different for the same job. However, she maintains that the degree of ethnic and racial antagonism differs in societies.

According to Martinez, (2008) a split labor market is a situation in which wages for similar jobs are different for members of two or more distinct ethnic and racial groups. The theory of split labor market was developed to explain ethnic and racial antagonism as the consequence of class conflict and competition for finite resources, mainly jobs. A split labor market occurs because racial and ethnic groups have different levels of resources, and employers engage in

efforts to maximize profit by paying as little as the market will bear for a particular job. When a group has fewer resources, members may be willing to accept lower wages for the same kind of job than are members of a more economically advantaged group. Employers prefer to hire cheaper workers and this creates an antagonism between higher- and lower-priced groups. Differences in the price of labor are sociological and political in nature, rather than personal preference. For example unionized workers, who enjoy full political rights will demand higher wages and be more likely to resist employer prerogatives than immigrant non-union workers from poorer countries (Bonacich, 1972).

Bonacich (1972:549) argues that labor markets that are split by the entrance of a new group may in turn affect the price of labor. She further discusses two broad factors that affect the initial price of labor as resources and motives. She clarifies on three types of resources are important price determinants. These include: Level of Living, or Economic Resources, Information and Political Resources. Firstly, the ethnic groups forming the labor market in a contact situation derive from different economic systems, either abroad or within the new country.

Secondly, Bonacich (1972:550) discusses information as one of the price determinant resource that may push immigrants (international student inclusive) into signing contracts out of ignorance. They may agree to a specific wage due to ignorance. In general, the more people know about conditions obtaining in the labor market to which they are moving, the better can they protect themselves against disadvantageous wage agreements.

Thirdly, Bonacich (1972) discusses political resources as yet another determinant of the labour price. This relates to benefits to a group in question. Organization can exist at the level of labor, or it can occur at higher levels, for instance, in a government that protects them. These levels are related in that a strong government can help organize its emigrants. Bonacich, (1972) acknowledges that governments vary in the degree to which they protect their emigrants. Japan kept close watch over the fate of her nationals who migrated to Hawaii and the Pacific coast; and the British colonial government in India tried to guard against abuses of the indenture system (for example, by re-refusing to permit Natal to import Indian workers for their sugar plantations until satisfactory terms had been agreed to (Ferguson-Davie, 1952:4-10 cited in Bonacich, 1972:550). In contrast Mexican migrant workers to the United States received little protection from their government, and African states were unable to intervene on behalf of slaves brought to America. In general, the weaker a group politically, the more vulnerable it is, hence an unfavorable wage bargain.

According to Bonacich (1972), the second broad factor that affects the price of labor is the motives. There are two motives that are both related to the worker's intention of not remaining permanently in the labor force. Firstly, temporary workers tend to cost less than permanent workers for two reasons. First, they are more willing to put up with un-desirable work conditions since these need not be endured forever. If they are migrants, this tolerance may extend to the general standard of living (Bonacich, 1972:550). Bonacich argues that very often migrant temporary workers are males who have left the comforts of home behind and such workers tend to be willing to accept a lower standard of living since it is only short term. This



relates to International students since they are full-time students and therefore maybe regarded as temporary workers.

Secondly, temporary workers avoid involvement in lengthy labor disputes. Since they will be in the labor market a short while, their main concern is immediate employment (Bonacich, 1972:551). Bonacich (1972) notes that temporary workers have little reason to join the organizations and unions of a permanent work force, and tend not to do so. The main reason being some temporary workers enter the market either to supplement family income, or to work toward a specific purchase. Thus, the worker's standard of living does not depend on his/her earnings on the job in question, since his/her central source of employment or income lies elsewhere.

### **3.5 Discrimination Theory**

The discrimination theory was advanced by Kenneth J. Arrow in 1971. According to Arrow (1971), "*Discrimination in the labour market*" exists when there are two groups of workers who are perfect substitutes in production. Arrow based his argument on the fact that different groups of workers be they skilled or unskilled, black and white or male and female receive different wages that calls for an explanation that the different groups must differ according to some characteristics valued on the market (Arrow, 1971:1). Moorthy (2003) in her view, workplace discrimination occurs for a variety of reasons and consists of unfair and biased treatment onto some employees while preference is given to others. This practice is prevalent around the world. This discrimination is often disguised and the victim may never know the real reason behind the bias. To Arrow, discrimination begins to surface when personal characteristics of the worker that are unrelated to productivity and not properly relevant are also valued on the market. These personal characteristics include race, ethnic background and sex. Discrimination theory is well analyzed when neoclassical tools are used and the basic neoclassical assumption of utility and profit maximization are always maintained (Arrow, 1971:2).

According to Payne (2005:272), discrimination means "*identifying individuals and groups with certain characteristics and treating them less well than people or groups with conventionally valued characteristics.*" Discrimination and oppression are extensively embedded in history; on the grounds of race and ethnicity across the world (Payne, 2005). This was however accelerated by changes in 1980s (Pilkington, 2003 cited in Payne, 2005). Payne argues that these changes were brought about as global travel and communication became quicker and more comprehensive; cultures and ethnic groups came into contact more extensively. Consequently, minority groups with different physical appearances and cultures formed in many countries. The concern about discrimination first focused on inequalities in housing and employment markets and this has continued to be the case globally. This proposes that much of indirect discrimination arises because of patterns of structure of organizations (Payne, 2005:273).

Discrimination in employment and occupation takes many forms, and occurs in all kinds of work settings in all economic sectors; regardless of whether the work takes place in the formal or the informal economy. But all discrimination shares a common feature. Discrimination in the labour market entails treating people differently and less favourably irrespective of their

merit or the requirements of the job. Discrimination limits the freedom of individuals to obtain the type of work to which they aspire. It impairs the opportunities of men and women to develop their potential, skills and talents and to be rewarded according to merit. Discrimination at work produces inequalities in labour market outcomes and places members of certain groups at a disadvantage (ILO, 2003).

As it was mentioned above that there are many forms of discrimination, statistical discrimination is one of them. Statistical discrimination theories have been advanced by Arrow (1972), Phelps (1972), Aigner and Cain (1977), and Lundberg and Startz (1983) all cited in Dickinson and Oaxaca (2009). Aigner and Cain (1977) used economic discrimination and statistical discrimination interchangeably. Economic discrimination is said to exist when workers do not receive pay or remuneration commensurate with their productivity-equal productivity is not rewarded with equal pay (Aigner and Cain, 1977:177). Anderson and Hauptert, (1999:3) describe statistical discrimination in the labor market as:

*“it occurs when employers are screening job candidates and use group characteristics such as race or sex that they have come to believe are correlated with worker productivity. Since the employer has imperfect information about a potential employee's actual productivity, and since the costs of screening job candidates are high, an employer may use group characteristics to determine productivity”.*

Dickinson and Oaxaca, (2009) also discuss statistical discrimination within labour markets and they elaborate that statistical discrimination occurs when distinctions between demographic groups are made on the basis of real or imagined statistical distinctions between the groups.

Blank et al (ed) (2004:39) use a social science definition of racial discrimination that includes two components: (1) *differential treatment on the basis of race* that disadvantages a racial group and (2) *treatment on the basis of inadequately justified factors other than race* that disadvantages a racial group (differential effect). The first component of the definition of racial discrimination occurs when a member of one racial group is treated less favorably than a similarly situated member of another racial group and suffers adverse or negative consequences. Each component is based on behavior or treatment that disadvantages one racial group over another (Blank et al (ed), 2004).

Discrimination at work can either be direct or indirect (ILO, 2003). Discrimination is direct when regulations, laws and policies explicitly exclude or disadvantage workers on the basis of characteristics such as political opinion, marital status or sex. Prejudices and stereotypes are normally at the heart of direct discrimination. “Stereotyping” is the process that assigns people particular attitudes and talents or lack of talent, by virtue of their membership in a group, be it racial, sexual, religious or other, irrespective of their skills and work experience (Noon, and Ogbonna, (eds.), 2001 cited in ILO, 2003: 19). Blank et al (ed) (2004) observe that most people’s concept of racial discrimination involves explicit, direct hostility expressed by whites toward members of a disadvantaged racial group. However, they argue that discrimination may include more than just direct behavior (such as the denial of employment); it can also be subtle and unconscious (such as nonverbal hostility in posture or tone of voice). Furthermore, discrimination against an individual may be based on overall assumptions about members of a disadvantaged racial group that are assumed to apply to that individual (i.e., statistical

discrimination). Discrimination may also occur as the result of institutional procedures rather than individual behaviors (Blank et al (ed), 2004:56).

According to ILO (2003), indirect discrimination may occur when apparently neutral rules and practices have negative effects on a disproportionate number of members of a particular group irrespective of whether or not they meet the requirements of the job. For instance, the requirement of knowledge of a particular language to obtain a job, when language competence is not indispensable, is a form of indirect discrimination based on national or ethnic origin.

Also, indirect discrimination may occur when differential treatment is accorded to particular categories of workers. Less favourable treatment of part-time workers relative to full-time workers is an example of indirect discrimination against women, who constitute the majority of part-time workers. Workers belonging to ethnic minorities, migrants and elderly workers are disproportionately represented in these types of work and therefore suffer the most from this type of discrimination (ILO, 2003). In recent decades, this unfair treatment is either individually perpetuated or systemically perpetuated in the labour market. However, according to Green, (2003), this unfair treatment is more enhanced by individuals or a set of decision makers who are motivated by racial reasons to refuse a person of her/his promotion, or salary increase. More importantly, unfair treatment maybe perpetuated systematically within organizations where there are certain hidden rules that do not permit people of certain race or ethnicity to either be remunerated with better salary or promoted (Green, 2003: 113-4, 119).

Although there has been persistent inequalities in the labour market in many societies (Payne, 2005), Dickinson and Oaxaca (2009) assert that gender-based labor market discrimination is illegal, for example when female workers are offered lower wages because females are perceived to be less productive, on average, than male workers (Dickinson and Oaxaca 2009). Smith, (2008) recognizes that equality is relevant to the right to employment where by discrimination is prohibited. He asserts that “*realization of the right to work implies equal access to employment, equal opportunities for promotion and equality in terms and conditions of work*” (Smith, 2008:306-307). The elimination of discrimination at work is central to social justice, which lies at the heart of the ILO’s mandate. It underpins the concept of decent work for all women and men, which is founded on the notion of equal opportunities for all those who work or seek work whether in the formal or the informal economy.

### **3.6 Contextualizing the above Theories**

Different scholars (Sen 1992: 48; Qizilbash 2008: 53–54; Robeyns 2005: 94–96) all cited in (Robeyns, 2011) acknowledge that the capability approach is a very flexible and multi-purpose framework, rather than a precise theory of well-being. This means that it can be applied in different situations. The researcher looks at capability approach as being appropriate and relevant to her study. Generally, Sen’s capability approach focuses on people’s freedom, that is, people’s capabilities and more specifically to a person’s actual ability to be or do something.

This study uses Sen’s approach to critically analyze the satisfaction of Master students at Gothenburg University with the Swedish labour market. Ideally, these students have a right to work while studying as long as the work they do does not interfere with their studies. Students work for different reasons depending on their backgrounds and the situation in which they find themselves. Basing on Sen’s capability approach, international student have capabilities which

may be regarded as possibilities or opportunities of performing some kind of functioning in the Swedish labour Market. For international students' functioning to be realized, there must be resources and capabilities in place. In the context of this thesis, resources maybe seen in terms of jobs that students need as a practical way to ease the economic limitations of life as students. However, such students need to be having skills (such as Swedish language) necessary to perform these jobs effectively which is functioning. According to capability approach, we should focus on what people are effectively able to do. This implies that international students have other capabilities even though they may not be fluent in Swedish language. Thus freedom involves both the processes that allow freedom of actions and decisions, and the actual opportunities that people have, given their personal and social circumstances.

The capability approach focuses on the information that we need to make judgments about individual well-being, social policies, and so forth, and consequently rejects alternative approaches that it considers normatively inadequate, for example when an evaluation is done exclusively in monetary terms (Robeyns, 2003:8). This relates to human rights where favourable remuneration for work is not enough to conclude that someone's work rights are respected. But rather we have to focus on holistic freedoms such as everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work; without discrimination has the right to equal pay for equal work and has the right to just and favourable remuneration.

The freedom of human beings to develop their capabilities and to choose and pursue their professional and personal aspirations is restricted, without regard for ability. Skills and competencies cannot be developed, rewards to work are denied and a sense of humiliation, frustration and powerlessness takes over (ILO, 2003). The researcher critically analyzed this by considering whether the paid work that students engaged in was related to their academic education and this had far implications in terms of job satisfaction and work human rights. This relates to job satisfaction where someone maybe be dissatisfied with the wages for example but doesn't have a better alternative. Thus employees (students) look at fairness of the whole Swedish Labour Market system for example within the recruitment process, rewards and conditions of work to determine their level of job satisfaction.

Having looked at capability approach, the focus is shifted on to split labour market theory as developed by Bonacich (1972). She elaborates that to be split, a labor market must contain at least two groups of workers whose price of labor differs for the same work, or would differ if they did the same work. In the context of this thesis, two groups of workers whose price of labour differs for the same work may include international students and native Swedes whose price for labour maybe considerably different for same jobs. Bonacich (1972) argues that this split labour market can result into ethnic antagonism since two or more racially/ ethnically groups are treated different for the same job. As Bonacich notes that employers prefer to hire cheaper workers with the aim of maximizing their profits, International students may be victims of this unfair market regardless of their capabilities. This problem may be compounded by the fact that there is no minimum wage in Sweden. To be protected from this kind of exploitation, International students need to join trade unions in Sweden which can negotiate for fair wages on their behalf. Therefore, a researcher asked students who were working whether

they had ever heard about trade unions in Sweden and more specifically whether they were members of any Swedish trade unions.

However, Bonacich (1972:550) discusses information as one of the price determinant resource that may push Immigrants (international student inclusive) into signing contracts out of ignorance. Here, the researcher asked these students whether they had signed job contracts. Once, an employee does not have a job contract, then there is no legal basis and therefore the employer can exploit such employee. Bonacich (1972) argues that such employees may agree to lower wages due to ignorance. Swedish language being the official language used in Sweden, the researcher asked international students whether they spoke Swedish language. This can have far implications on the quality of information these international students have on Swedish labour market. However, Swedish language should not be a basis of excluding international students from Swedish labour market since not all jobs require Swedish language. Students were also asked whether the work they engaged in was related to their academic education. As a result, this may affect the level of satisfaction among international students within Swedish labour market.

Bonacich (1972) argues that the worker's standard of living does not depend on his/her earnings on the job in question, since his/her central source of employment or income may lie elsewhere. In the context of this thesis, international students were asked whether they were paying their tuition fees and also why they worked.

As it was noted above, discrimination can be direct or indirect. This means that discrimination theory is not easy to be conceptualized though it put more insight in the discussion of the research findings. The above theories were considered appropriate and relevant for this study since they are related and interlinked. The capability approach and human rights approach are seen as broad frameworks that include split labour market theory and discrimination theory. These theories were used in analyzing and discussing the findings of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents an account of how the study was carried out. It describes the research design, study participants, sample size and selection, methods and procedures of data collection, data management and analysis. It also includes ethical considerations and the challenges in study execution and how they were overcome.

### **4.2 Study Design**

This research study was cross sectional and quantitative in nature. It was considered appropriate since the researcher did not intend to follow up respondents at different intervals. The study employed descriptive study design with the purpose of establishing relationships between dependent and independent variables. This research design employed hypotheses which proposed the existence of relationship between the variables such as international students at Gothenburg University, blue collar jobs; and job satisfaction.

### **4.3 Study Participants**

The study population was Gothenburg University master students regardless of year of study in the faculty of social sciences. These students were currently (2013) doing master programmes in International Social Work and Human Rights; Strategic Human Resource Management and labour Relations; European Studies; Global Studies; International Administration and Global Governance; Communication; and Political Science. These programmes were considered appropriate since they are for two years and all students have Swedish personal numbers which is one of the requirements for one to join Swedish labour market. Also, within the period of two years, an international student may have the possibility of learning Swedish language which is also a key factor for one to enter Swedish labour market. And lastly, these courses are taught in English language.

### **4.4 Sample Size and Selection**

The researcher used purposive sampling to select the above mentioned seven departments in the faculty of Social Sciences at Gothenburg University. Having identified the target population, the next question was how to reach out to these students. The emails were sent to all programme administrators requesting for students' emails, but most of these administrators did not give positive response. It was until when she knocked on their doors that she got feedback. Most of them advised her to contact Ladok (University database for documenting study results and personal data) administrators saying that it was illegal to provide her with the students' emails. Then the researcher sent an email to Ladok administrators and lucky enough; they contacted her supervisor to confirm whether she needed the students' emails.

Ladok administrator sent the hard copy of all the Gothenburg University Students' (GUS) email addresses that the researcher wanted. Although the researcher's primary focus was on international students, Swedish students doing the same master programmes were also included for comparison purposes. They were 515 students' email addresses in total. The web survey was sent to all 515 students. However, nine emails were not delivered due to errors in their email addresses. At this level, the researcher did not do random sampling because she was not sure of how the response rate would be, since it was a web survey. There were 118 students

who answered the questionnaire. However, 18 responses were eliminated because they were incomplete; only 100 responses were complete, representing 20 per cent response rate.

## **4.5 Methods and Procedures of Data Collection**

In order to get reliable data, two methods were used. These methods include: questionnaire and documentary review.

### **4.5.1 Questionnaire**

A job satisfaction questionnaire was designed to collect primary data from the respondents. There were four principles that were observed when designing the questionnaire and these principles included question content, question wording, question order and close ended questions. The questionnaire had eight one questions. Section A of the questionnaire was on demographic characteristics of participants-gender, age, country of birth, nationality, tuition fees payment, speaking Swedish language, duration of stay in Sweden and work status. Section B of the questionnaire meant for students who were currently working in Sweden while studying. Section C was for students who were not currently employed but had worked in Sweden before; and section D was for students who were not currently employed and had never worked in Sweden. In summary, the questionnaire covered respondents' demographic characteristics, job satisfaction and work related human rights. See appendix B

### **4.5.2 Pilot Study**

Pilot studies are conducted to pre-test a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule and conducting a pilot study increases the likelihood of success (Teijlingen and Hundley, 2002). Therefore, the final part of the questionnaire design was pre-testing. The questionnaire was pre-tested at Gothenburg University on four students. Three out of the four students were international students and the fourth student was Swedish. Four students were considered appropriate since the questionnaire had different sections and therefore each student filled one relevant section. Comments about the questionnaire were generated and later used to modify and improve the clarity of each item. In this regard, the pilot study helped the researcher to test if at all the items in the research instrument were measuring what they were intended to. This in turn helped the researcher to note any inconsistencies or problems with the items. This way, corrections were made to the questionnaire, thereby increasing validity and reliability of the research instrument. In summary, the pilot study helped in identifying errors, improper wording, and vague questions; double barreled questions in the questionnaire and adjustment were made accordingly. It was also determined that it would take about 5-10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

### **4.5.3 Web Based Survey**

Having modified the questionnaire, a web based survey was designed using textalk web survey. The survey link was created and sent out to all students doing selected master programmes at Gothenburg university faculty of Social Sciences. The web based survey was preferred since the researcher was able to design it with the help of her teachers at Gothenburg University and it was very simple to complete given the fact that students at Gothenburg University are computer literate. This was cost effective in terms of time and finances on the side of the researcher. It would have been very difficult for the researcher to find these students

and hand delivers them questionnaires and be able to collect them back too. On the side of the respondents, it was very convenient to fill, since it took short time to be completed. This survey was run for six weeks and students were given reminders each week. The response rate was very low in the first week but with reminders, more and more students started answering.

#### **4.5.4 Documentary Review**

This method was used as a secondary source of data by reviewing related literature of other previous researchers. The knowledge gaps which were left by other researchers were identified and filled in the due course of this study. According to Creswell (2002), literature review means locating and summarizing the studies about a topic. The researcher followed very important steps recommended by Creswell (2002:29). These steps include: indentifying key works that are useful in locating materials in academic library; use computerized databases- such as proQuest, Google Scholar, ERIC and Sociological databases to locate relevant literature. This was done by locating about 100 reports on the topic and the current literature of 2005-2013 was preferred. Journal of Studies in International Education were so resourceful in generating related literature to this study. The next stage was skimming through the obtained literature to see whether it made sense. After summarizing this literature, it was assembled systematically. The last step in literature review was summarizing the major themes; and suggested how the present study would extend on the knowledge and literature on the same topic. Gothenburg University library was so resourceful during the whole process of writing this thesis.

### **4.6 Data Processing, Analysis and Presentation**

The raw data from the field may quite be unrevealing. Data analysis therefore helped in unlocking the hidden information in raw data and transformed it into something useful and meaningful to the topic of the study. Quantitative data analyses were done using SPSS 21 with which the raw data from questionnaires was processed. Data processing involved editing, coding, and tabulating.

#### **4.6.1 Editing**

Data editing involved checking for errors and omission in the research instrument used for data collection so as to ensure accuracy, uniformity and completeness. The purpose of editing was to check for gaps, errors and incompleteness. It was easy to detect the element of inconsistency through careful study of answers given in the same research instrument. The questions in the research instrument were interpreted in the same manner to ensure uniformity.

#### **4.6.2 Coding**

Coding involved classifying answers to the questions into meaningful categories so as to bring out their essential matter. The coding frame was developed by classifying the answers to the questions into mutually exclusive, exhaustive and representative categories. This means that corresponding answers to particular question had to fit within the predetermined code. Coding was done to some of the open ended questions and it involved assigning specific codes to various variables. Coding answers was done for close ended questions since the alternative answers to each question were predetermined at the initial stage of designing the research instrument. The answers to open ended questions were coded after the coding frame was



developed. This however proved tedious since it was necessary to look at verbatim answers to make decision on which codes to be assigned to different answers.

### **4.6.3 Tabulation**

This was the last stage of data processing. It involved allocating individual respondents to a particular question under the guidance of the appropriate code as found in the coding frame for that question. The process also involved establishing the frequency distribution of the codes and then calculating numbers and percentages for the different codes. The researcher compiled statistical tables from the coded answers by taking the number of respondents for each code and their percentages out of the total sample. The major purpose of tabulation was to give clear representation of various responses and the significance of each response depending on the magnitude of the corresponding numbers and percentage of the total respondents.

### **4.6.4 Data Analysis**

Collected data from online survey was analyzed using SPSS 21 software. Variables were created in variable view and thereafter data was entered in the data view of SPSS. Levels of measurement of independent variables analyzed were: nominal, ordinal and scale measurements. The independent variables were sex, age, nationality, year of study, Swedish language, the kind of work, job contract, job relevancy to one's academic education, trade union membership. The dependent variable was job satisfaction.

The first stage in the analysis was descriptive where frequency distribution was done. The "first thing a researcher would do with the data from the questionnaire is to run some frequencies" (Greasley, 2008:8). This helped in understanding the data very well. Here univariate analysis was done. The second stage was bivariate analyzes. Having examined frequencies for the categorical data, it was important to examine variables containing interval data: age, number of hours worked, and salary. This was done to obtain basic, descriptive information about these variables. Thus, measures of central tendency for interval variables were done to obtain mean, median, mode, minimum and maximum values.

The real analysis started when cross tabulation of variables was done. Here categorical variables were cross tabulated to establish the relationship between variables. According to Greasley (2008:61), "*cross tabulation is one of the most frequent used methods of analysis for questionnaire data*". Cross tabulation analyzes enabled the researcher to examine the relationship between categorical data in greater detail than simple frequencies for individual variable.

To examine the associations between variables of categorical data and to test the hypotheses, Chi-square statistical tests were done. Greasley (2008:63) asserts that "*Chi-square applies a statistical test to cross-tabulation by comparing the actual observed frequencies in each cell of tables with expected frequencies. Expected frequencies are those we would expect if data is randomly distributed*". We reject the null hypothesis if 2-sided significance reported in the last column and in the row corresponding to the Pearson Chi-Square is less than the significance level selected (5% or 10%) as Greasley, (2008); Gaur A. and Gaur S., (2009) put it.

To examine relationships between interval data, correlations were done. According to Gaur A. and Gaur S., (2009:99-100), “*correlation is a measure of relationship between two variables. The correlation coefficient gives a mathematical value for measuring the strength of the linear relationship between two variables. It can take values from -1 to 1 with:1. +1 representing absolute positive linear relationship (as X increases, Y increases)*”. However, the researcher had to first check whether interval data was normally distributed and with a linear relationship. Both bivariate and partial correlation tests were done. Bivariate correlation tested the strength of the relationship between two variables without giving any consideration to the interference some other variable would cause to the relationship between the two variables being tested. However, the researcher found it important to run partial correlations to examine the correlation between two variables while controlling the effects of one or more of the additional variables.

#### **4.7 Practical Challenges and how they were overcome**

At the very initial stage of this study, especially data collection, it was challenging to reach out to master students at Gothenburg University. However, with the help of the supervisor, seven departments within faculty of Social Sciences were purposively selected on the master programmes level. The web survey was designed since the target population was literate and the method was cost effective in terms of finances and time.

Having designed the web survey, it was so challenging to get the email contacts of selected students. The programme administrators of selected master programs were contacted though they responded negatively that it's illegal to give out students' emails. Later, Ladok administrator was contacted who gave a positive response. They were 515 students' email addresses in total.

All the student email contacts got from Ladok administrator were Gus emails. It was only Social Work and Human Rights programme administrator who gave in personal students' email. However, most students rarely check their Gus mails. The web survey was sent to all 515 students though most students rarely check their Gus mails. Nine emails were not delivered due to errors in their email addresses. This survey was run for a period of six weeks and the respondents were given reminders each week. Although several survey reminders were sent to the students, they were only 118 students who answered this online survey. However, 18 responses were excluded from the analysis because they were incomplete; only 100 responses were complete, representing 20 per cent response rate.

#### **4.8 Ethical Considerations**

According to Bulmer (2008: 145), “ethics is a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others”. Researchers ought to uphold the dignity of the human subjects during the research process (Bulmer 2008: 147). There are quite a number of ethical issues that must be adhered to by researcher in the process of acquiring data and they include but are not limited to: informed consent, attending to the consequences of publication, safeguarding the confidentiality of data, respect for privacy, harm to subjects and researchers, deceit and lying in the course of research (Bulmer 2008:150-4). According to Kivale and Brinkmann (2009:68), “four of the traditionally discussed ethical guidelines for researchers” include the first three identified above and “the role of the researcher”.

Firstly, informed consent means that the subjects of the study know that they are being studied and freely choose to part-take in the study (Bulmer 2008: 150). Before sending out the online survey, the appointments with the selected programme administrators were made requesting them for the students' email contacts. On the appointment days, self introduction was made and the purpose of the study was explained. The consent form from Social Work Department Gothenburg University was presented to the programme administrators. Having got the students' email contacts, the online survey was sent to 515 students. Voluntary participation was emphasized to the respondents and that they could withdraw from answering the questionnaire at any time without giving any reason. The researcher explained to the respondents that the exercise would last approximately 5-10 minutes. The researcher(s) have a duty to inform the subjects about the "nature and purpose" (Bulmer 2008: 150), study period, the role of the respondent and data usage including publication, "the arrangements for maintaining the confidentiality of the data", "including any risks to which they personally would be exposed" (Bulmer 2008: 150). The respondent should therefore be free to stop participation whenever need arises (Nosek and Banaji 2002: 164). The respondents were provided with the email addresses in case they had further information or queries regarding this research.

Secondly, the ethical concern for confidentiality was addressed during this study process. Confidentiality was ensured to the respondents, their names were not used anywhere in this research report. In regard to safeguarding the confidentiality of data, the researcher handled and managed her dataset alone. During data collection, analysis, reporting and dissemination, the anonymous identities of respondents must be maintained (Bulmer 2008: 152, Nosek and Banaji (2002: 164-5) unless otherwise the respondents agree to the publication of their identifying information. Whereas it is vital to grant confidentiality to the respondents, a dilemma can arise when very useful data is collected yet the respondent strictly refuses for their information to be used in analysis and publication. This has potential of causing stress to the researcher though confidentiality is paramount.

## **4.9 Validity, Reliability and Generalization**

According to Gaur A. and Gaur S., (2009:31), "*reliability and validity are two important characteristics of any measurement procedure*".

### **4.9.1 Validity**

Validity means that the measuring instrument actually measures the property it is supposed to measure (Gaur A. and Gaur S., 2009:31).

*"The objective of assessing validity is to see how accurate is the relationship between the measure and the underlying trait it is trying to measure. The first step in assessing validity is called the face validity test. Face validity establishes whether the measuring device looks like it is measuring the correct characteristics. The face validity test is done by showing the instrument to experts and actual subjects and analyzing their responses"* (Gaur A. Gaur S., 2009:31).

Validity is about whether the right concept is measured (Gilbert, 2008:217). Face validity was assessed through pre-testing the questionnaire; and by discussing it with the supervisor.

Internal validity regards the degree to which conclusions about causal relationships can be made. This concept seeks to establish confidence in the ‘truth’ of the findings. From this argument, no doubt the current study findings make sense. The findings fulfill the research objectives that this study set out to investigate. Concerning the concept of external validity, this study provides a detailed portrait of the setting in which the research was conducted to give readers enough information to judge the applicability of the findings to other settings. However, it should be noted that the sample was purposive in nature. There are other two important aspects of validity including content validity and construct validity Gaur & Gaur (2009). Content validity refers to the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content (Gaur A. and Gaur S., 2009:31). To establish content validity, the key concepts are defined in this study. The current study measures job satisfaction of students who were currently working, those who had stopped working, and those who were searching for jobs but had not yet got them. All these groups of students had different human rights issues in as far as Swedish labour market is concerned. To establish content validity, the entire domain of the study was defined and assessed to make sure that the instrument truly represents this domain.

Construct validity is one of the most commonly used techniques in Social Sciences. It looks for expected patterns of relationships among variables. Construct validity thus tries to establish an agreement between the measuring instrument and theoretical concepts (Gaur A. and Gaur S., 2009:33). The researcher established a theoretical relationship and examined the empirical relationships. Empirical findings were then interpreted especially in terms of how they clarified the construct validity.

#### **4.9.2 Reliability**

Reliability on the other hand is about whether a measure works in a consistent way (Gilbert, 2008: 217). According Gaur A. Gaur S., (2009:31) “*reliability refers to the confidence we can place on the measuring instrument to give us the same numeric value when the measurement is repeated on the same object.*” Reliability is the degree to which one may expect to find the same result if a measurement is repeated. It includes two concepts: stability and consistency. Stability is usually measured by administering the same instrument twice to the same respondents, the time interval being chosen so as to minimize the effects of memory while avoiding the likelihood that real change may have taken place (Gilbert, 2008: 218). Consistency is generally considered more significant. One way to ideally measure reliability is by the test-retest method. It is done by measuring the same object twice and correlating the results. If the measurement generates the same answer in repeated attempts, it is reliable. The researcher tried as much as possible to describe how the analysis was done in methodology chapter. This implies that after running the tests, same results may be derived at. However, establishing reliability through test-retest is practically very difficult.

#### **4.9.3 Generalization**

According to Shuttleworth M., (2008), generalization is an essential component of the wider scientific process. In an ideal world, to test a hypothesis, you would sample an entire population. Generalization is applied by researchers in an academic setting. It can be defined as the extension of research findings and conclusions from a study conducted on a sample population to the population at large. This is what Sturgis P., (2008) calls statistical inference

from the sample to the population. The underlying motivation of sampling is to make statistical inferences from the sample to the population. In reality, it is not possible to sample the whole population, due to budget, time and feasibility (Shuttleworth M., 2008). "Populations are often extremely large; it is usually impossible- for cost and practical reasons, to make measurements on every element in the population. For this reason, we draw a sample and generalize from the properties of the sample to the broader population" Sturgis P., (2008:167). In context of this study, the concept of generalization is very relevant. It was impossible to cover all the students at Gothenburg University therefore the sample was selected. Seven departments within the faculty of Social Sciences were purposively selected that represented other students within the same university; this was because of limited resources available to the researcher. Although, the response rate was low, (20 per cent), all students (515 in total) within seven selected departments were given equal chances to participate in this study. However, the findings from this sample cannot be generalized to the entire population since the sample was not randomly selected and given low response rate. The findings only give us a clear picture about the sample.

#### **4.10 Preference of Web Based Survey**

According to Sedwick (2004:35) cited in Albrecht A. C., and Jones, D. G., (2009:337), "*the internet is gaining in popularity as a research tool through the use of e-mail and the World wide Web*". Numerous researchers including Siah (2005) cited in Albrecht A. C., and Jones, D. G., (2009), have noted several advantages of using internet to collect research data. These include the following: it is very easy to reach larger population; ease to completion by research participants, it saves time, it is popular among college students, rapid access to participants and easy to administer on the side of the researcher.

Despite the number of advantages cited for using the internet to collect research data, several researchers have expressed concerns related to using this approach. For instance, initial development time or costs, issues related to data security, and technical troubles experienced by users are all highlighted by several scholars in Albrecht A. C., and Jones, D. G., (2009:339). Based on these concerns, other methods of data collection such as administered questionnaires, face to face in depth interviews, focus group discussions, and stakeholder analysis may be thought about.

However, the advantages of using web based survey in this study outweighed its disadvantages and thus the method was preferred. For detailed international students' work experiences within Swedish labour market, future researchers may carry out qualitative studies using in-depth interviews and focus group discussions.

The study findings, analyses and discussions are presented in chapter five.

## CHAPTER FIVE: STUDY FINDINGS, ANALYSES AND DISCUSSIONS

### 5.1 Introduction

This section presents the findings of the study and the analyses. The section also provides an interpretation and explanation of the results which are related to the research hypotheses. It also includes critical reflections on the study (Gleasley, 2008:106). Findings are mainly presented in text form and a few simple tables. Students are categorized according to their countries of origin; and countries at the same level of development are clustered together. These include: Western Europe USA and Canada; Eastern Europe; and Africa and Asia. Students are categorized either nationals or international students for comparison purposes. In the findings also, we have different groups of students; the first group includes those who were currently working at the time of the online survey (n=39), the second group were those who had stopped working in Sweden (n=19) and the rest were those who were not working but had never worked in Sweden (n=34) and those who were not interested in working in Sweden while studying (n=8). The researcher makes a presentation of the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents who answered the online survey before presenting the findings. The rest of the findings are presented and discussed according to the research objectives and hypotheses while integrating them into earlier research and theoretical framework.

### 5.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The socio-demographic characteristics of respondents are viewed as some of the variables. Table 1 below presents these characteristics.

**Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents**

<b>Socio-Demographic Characteristics (n=100)</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	34	34
Female	66	66
<b>Age Group</b>		
20-24	28	28
25 - 29	46	46
30 - 34	13	13
35- 39	7	7
40+	6	6
<b>Year of study</b>		
First year	58	58
Second year	42	42
<b>Course of study (Master Programme)</b>		
Social work and Human Rights	31	31
Global Studies	17	17
International Administration and Global Governance	15	15
Communication	13	13
Strategic Human Resource Mgt and Labour Relations	10	10
European Studies	7	7
Political Science	7	7
<b>Country of origin</b>		
Sweden	30	30
Western Europe, USA and Canada	22	22
Eastern Europe	21	21
Africa and Asia	27	27

From table 1 above, it is clear that majority of the respondents were females (66 per cent). Almost half of the respondents (46 per cent) were in the age group of 25-29 years. Focusing on the variable ‘age’, the mean and median age was 28 and 26 years correspondingly. The ages ranged from 22 years to 67 years.

Almost a third of the respondents (30 per cent) were Swedish students and the rest were international students from Africa and Asia, Western Europe, Canada and the US; and Eastern Europe as seen in table 1. All the respondents were pursuing their Masters programs in the different fields of study. A higher number (31 per cent) were undertaking Master programme in Social Work and Human Rights.

Majority (58 per cent) of the respondents were in their first year. Almost all the respondents (90 per cent) were not paying tuition. More than a third (40 per cent) of international students had been living in Sweden for less than a year. More than half of the respondents (52 per cent) speak the Swedish language. However, further analysis showed that majority of respondents who did not speak Swedish language were international students from Africa and Asia (45 per cent).

## 5.2 The Involvement of International and Swedish Students in Paid Work

The overall objective of this study was to establish the satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts with the aim of promoting their work related rights. One of the objectives was to assess the involvement of international and Swedish students in paid work during their studies.

The findings show that 39 per cent, (n=39) of the respondents were currently working while studying. Further analysis is seen in table 2 below.

**Table 2: Country of Origin \* Are you currently working in Sweden while studying: Cross tabulation (n=39)**

			Origin			
			Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>Are you currently working in Sweden while Studying?</b>	Yes	39	53.3	22.7	30	44.4
	No	61	46.7	77.3	70	55.6
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

In an earlier research, SACO and Svenskt Näringsliv (2009) report cited in Simmons (2009), it was indicated that six out of ten university students work part-time in Sweden. This means that the number of international students working while studying in Sweden and Gothenburg University in particular was not known. The findings of this study show among students who were working, 59 per cent were international students and the rest were Swedish students.

It was found out that Swedish language was one of the conditions necessary for international students to enter the Swedish labour market. More than half of the respondents (52 per cent) spoke Swedish language. However, further analysis showed that majority of respondents who did not speak Swedish language were international students from Africa and Asia (45 per cent), 28 per cent were from Eastern Europe, and 23 per cent were from Western Europe, US and Canada. This mirrors Simmons, (2009) observation that while it is possible for international

students to study and work in Sweden, they might find themselves at a disadvantage in the job search because most jobs require fluent Swedish.

It was hypothesized that most international students at Gothenburg University are engaged in paid work while studying. Table 3 below summarizes these findings.

**Table 3: International students currently engaged in work while studying (Chi-Square Tests)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.029 <sup>a</sup>	3	.100
Likelihood Ratio	6.186	3	.103
Linear-by-Linear Association	.333	1	.564
N of Valid Cases	99		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.88.

A null hypothesis is rejected if 2-sided significance reported in the last column and in the row corresponding to the Pearson Chi-Square is less than the significance level (5% or 10%) selected (Greasley, 2008; Gaur A. and Gaur S., 2009).

The Chi-square value was 6.029 with a significance *p* value of .100. The *p*-value of .100 is exactly same as the commonly accepted level of .10. So the researcher confidently rejects the null hypothesis. This means that there is a significant relationship between current students working and their countries of origin though the significance is not high. It can therefore be concluded that most international students at Gothenburg University are currently engaged in paid work while studying with reservation since the sample obtained was small.

Youth Unemployment has become a global problem although the magnitude differs. Whereas it has been increasingly necessary for international students to find work in order to ease on their financial limitations of life, they find it hard to find jobs. For example 33 per cent of the international students from Africa and Asia who were working had searched for their current jobs for the period of more than six months. This means that international students almost spend their first year of the study searching for their first jobs in Sweden. However, results show that 81 per cent of Swedish students who were working had searched for the current jobs within a period of less than one month.

It was interesting to find that majority of the respondents who got their current jobs through their friends were international students from Africa and Asia (47 per cent) while 47 per cent of the respondents who got their current jobs through application procedures were Swedish students. This may be one of the explanations why international students take long to find jobs. It depends on how one easily makes friends who will in turn help him/her to get a job. The social network is very important for international students to find jobs. Most of the job websites in Sweden are in Swedish language and international students cannot ably compete with Swedish students within the Swedish labour market. The Swedish language must be one of the factors that disadvantage international students in finding jobs.



In relation to this matter, the capability approach stipulates what is ultimately important is that people have the freedoms or valuable opportunities (capabilities) to lead the kind of lives they want to lead, to do what they want to do and be the persons they want to be (Robeyns, 2005:95). Once they effectively have these substantive opportunities, they can choose those options that they value most and this is what Sen, (1999, 2001) called freedom. International students' lack of good command of Swedish language endangers their freedom to engage in the kind of work that is well paying. This however does not explain why some international students even after learning the Swedish language cannot find those jobs.

The explanation may only be embedded in the split labour market and discrimination theories. Arrow, (1971) based his argument on the fact that different groups of workers be they skilled or unskilled, black and white or male and female must differ according to some characteristics valued on the market. However, Moorty (2003) in her view, workplace discrimination occurs for a variety of reasons and consists of unfair and biased treatment onto some employees while preference is given to others. Whereas this practice is prevalent around the world, the discrimination is often disguised and the victim may never know the real reason behind the bias. Some of the international students felt that they were discriminated against based on the language though they showed a need to work.

### 5.2.1 Reasons why Students Work (n=39)

International students work for different reasons depending on their backgrounds and the situation in which they find themselves. There were only two reasons that respondents gave as to why they were currently and previously engaged in paid work while studying. For example, it was found out that out of students who were working (n=39), 90 per cent were working to earn extra income. Further analysis is presented in the table 4 below.

**Table 4: Country of Origin \* Why do you work while studying? Main reason: Cross tabulation (n=39)**

			Origin			
			Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>Why do you work while studying? main reason</b>	Extra Income	89.7	75	100	100	100
	Work Experience	10.3	25	0	0	0
<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

From the table 4 above, it is clearly seen that all the respondents who worked to gain work experience were only Swedish students; however, all the international students who were working only wanted to earn extra income. It was found out that all the students who were working to gain work experience spoke Swedish language. Out of students who were working to earn extra income, 63 per cent spoke Swedish language. This implies that Swedish language is a very big key for one to join Swedish labour market.

Ideally, international students have a right to work while studying as long as the work they do does not interfere with their studies. Swedish Migration Board and EMN, (2012) assert that International students have full access to the labor market during their stay in Sweden; accordingly, *'third-country students who work during their studies have the same work-related rights as persons with permanent residence permits or Swedish nationals, even if their residence permit is only temporary'* (2012:31). Working while studying is a necessity for many

students due to various costs associated with higher education (Simmons, 2009). Higher education has become more globalized and international students are increasingly faced with financial pressures due to changes in welfare states. Part-time employment is an essential element of the overall student experience given the increasing costs of becoming involved in higher education (Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009; Polidane and Zakirova, 2011).

The current study findings extend on earlier research by different scholars (Follis, 2011; Hongyu et al, 2010; Barron and Anastasiadou, 2009; and Muldoon, 2009). For example, Barron and Anastasiadou (2009) identified the reasons for becoming involved in part-time employment. It was found that financial concerns were the most frequently indicated with 60 per cent of respondents identifying this as the main reason for becoming involved in part-time employment while studying. Also, the current study findings find support in Muldoon, (2009) and Hongyu et al, (2010) who recognize that earning money is the primary reason for having a part-time job, she found out that 8 out of 13 students said that they valued work experience. All in all money was the primary reason, experience was secondary.

Contrary to the current findings, Hongyu et al, (2010) found out that a sizable number (34 per cent) of students reported that they work out of boredom or under peer influence (20 per cent). Most Macau students choose to work for reasons other than financial necessity (Hongyu et al, 2010: 85). Similarly, Follis, (2011) observes that international students have different motives for working; some students want to make new friends, others want to make money while others want to learn the new language. Although Polidane and Zakirova, (2011) noted that most students work in jobs unrelated to their field of study, they maintain that the magnitude of benefits depends heavily on the nature of the job while studying.

In relation to this matter however, Regula and Uschi (2012) found out that there is significant positive labour market returns of 'earning while learning' only for student employment related to the field of study. These returns consist of a lower unemployment risk, shorter job-search duration, higher wage effects, and greater job responsibility. Although earlier research showed many different benefits for students involved in part time work while studying, the current study found out that the international students who were working only wanted to earn extra income. This is contrary to Simmons, (2009) findings who found out that working part time while studying in Sweden helps international students to meet new people, and to become more familiar within Swedish society. Having known the reasons why students work while studying, it is important to understand the kind of work they engage in.

### **5.3 The Kind of Work both International and Swedish Students Engage in while Studying**

The second objective of this study was to compare the kind of jobs that both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University engage in while studying. It was hypothesized that most international students at Gothenburg University engage in blue collar jobs. The findings show that students who had stopped working (n=19) were previously engaged in blue collar jobs (75 per cent). Further analysis showed that only Swedish students had previously been engaged in white collar jobs. All the international students who had stopped working were previously engaged in only blue collar jobs. Similarly, majority of the respondents who were working (n=39) were engaged in blue collar jobs (58 per cent). These Blue-collar jobs include:

Newspaper distribution, sorting newspapers, cleaning, baby-sitting and carrying cartons. Further analysis showed that 81 per cent of respondents who were engaged in white collar jobs were Swedish students. The white-collar jobs include: social work jobs, administration, Human resource jobs, Elderly care, coordinating projects, and logistics. Table 5 below presents the kind of work Swedish and international students engage in while studying.

**Table 5: Specifically what kind of work do you do \* Country of Origin: Cross tabulation (n=39)**

			Origin			
			Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>Specifically what kind of work do you do?</b>	White collar	42.1	81.2	40	16.7	0
	Blue collar	57.9	18.8	60	83.3	100
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Noteworthy, from the table 5 above, none of the respondents engaged in white collar jobs was from Africa or Asia. This means that all the international students from Africa and Asia who were working were engaged in blue collar jobs. Utilizing Sen’s capability approach (1999, 2001), this may imply that such students do not have freedom to do the kind of work they want given their level of education. Does it mean international students from Africa do not have capability to do white collar jobs within Swedish labour market? Once they are given an opportunity to take part in white collar jobs, they can contribute much better in the economic development.

## Hypothesis Two

*Most international students at Gothenburg University engage in blue collar jobs.*

**Table 6: The Kind of work and students’ countries of Origin (Chi-Square Tests)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.659 <sup>a</sup>	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	24.149	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.671	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	38		

a. 5 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.11.

It was hypothesized that most of the international students at Gothenburg University engage in blue collar jobs and after testing the hypothesis, the Pearson Chi-square value was 19.659, with the significance or probability (p) value of .000. This means that according to the Chi-square calculation, the probability of this distribution of values occurring by chance is less than .000. This means that the researcher can confidently reject the null hypothesis. In other words, there is perfect significant relationship between variables. The researcher accepts these odds as statistically significant and concludes that there is a relationship between the kind of work done by students and their countries of origin. Therefore, most international students at Gothenburg University (n=39) were currently engaged in blue collar jobs while studying. International students are forced to do blue collar jobs by the conditions at hand. They are aware that blue collar jobs are less paying but they have no better alternative choice. This relates to Sen’s capability approach where he argues “*un freedom can arise either through inadequate process (such as the inadequate opportunities that some people have for achieving what they minimally would like to achieve (Sen, 1999:17).*”

Results from students who were working (n=39) and those who had stopped working (n=19) show that most of them 82 per cent and 81 per cent respectively were in private sector employment. What is cross cutting also is that majority of the respondents who were working/stopped working in public sector were Swedish students. The findings are summarized in the table 7 below.

**Table 7: Which employer do you work for \* Country of Origin: Cross tabulation (n=39)**

			Origin			
			Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
Which employer do you work for?	Public	17.9	37.5	0	16.7	0
	Private	82.1	62.5	100	83.3	100
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Similarly, more than half of the students (67 per cent) who previously worked in public sector were Swedish students, 33 per cent were international students from Africa and Asia. This means that public sector was dominated by Swedish students.

This implies that almost all the international students were working in private sector. Very often, employers in the private sector engage in all efforts to maximize profits by paying as little as the market will bear for a particular job. Here, a split labor market occurs because racial groups have different levels of resources such as language skills. When a group has fewer resources, members may be willing to accept lower wages for the same kind of job than members of a more economically advantaged group. As Bonacich, (1972) notes in her split labour market theory that employers prefer to hire cheaper workers with the aim of maximizing their profits, international students may be victims of this unfair market regardless of their capabilities. This is compounded by the fact that there is no minimum wage in Sweden and this creates an antagonism between higher and lower-priced groups.

One of the possible explanations why employers could have tried as much as possible to maximize their profits is that majority of the respondents (69 per cent) who were working were engaged in jobs not in line with their educational background and/or program of study. Analysis of origin and job relevance to one's academic education indicates that majority (63 per cent) of the Swedish students sampled were working in jobs related to their education background and/or the academic program of study. On the contrary, almost all the international students were currently engaged in jobs not considered relevant to their educational background and/or academic program of study.

Similarly, concerning students who had stopped working (n=19), it was found out that all the respondents who had been previously engaged in jobs relevant to their academic education were only Swedish students. It is very clear that all the international students who had ever worked in Sweden but had stopped were only engaged in jobs not relevant to their academic education. The main reason why international students find it hard to find jobs related to their education is lack of good command of Swedish language. This result finds support in the work of Haan, (n.d) cited in Tandon K. (2011) who notes that most international students who find jobs usually don't tend to find intellectually challenging work. Most part-time work that international students do does not count towards their academic education. However, by

carefully choosing the type of work, one can gain relevant industrial experience which may boost one's employability upon graduation (The Editor Graduate Prospects UK, 2011).

Basing on Sen's capability approach, international student have capabilities which may be regarded as opportunities of performing some kind of functioning in the Swedish labour Market. Sen's approach is founded on enhancing individual freedom (Sen, 1999). Sen's capabilities approach focuses on *positive freedom*, a person's actual ability to be or do something (Sen, 2001). The core characteristic of the capability approach is its focus on what people are effectively able to do and to be; that is, on their capabilities (Sen, 1999; 2001 and Robeyns, 2003; 2011). Capabilities are people's potential functionings. Functionings are beings and doings. All capabilities together correspond to the overall freedom to lead the life that a person has reason to value (Robeyns, 2003). According to the capability approach, the ends of well-being, justice and development should be conceptualized in terms of people's capabilities to function; that is, their effective opportunities to undertake the actions and activities that they want to engage in, and be whom they want to be (Robeyns, 2005). These beings and doings are what Sen (1999, 2001) called functionings together that constitute what makes a life valuable. For International students' functioning to be realized, there must be resources and capabilities in place.

In this context, resources maybe seen in terms of jobs that students need as a practical way to ease the economic limitations of life as students. However, such students need to be having skills (such as Swedish language) necessary to perform these jobs effectively which is functioning. According to the Capability approach, we should focus on what people are effectively able to do. This implies that international students have other capabilities even though they may not be fluent in Swedish language. Thus freedom involves both the processes that allow freedom of actions and decisions, and the actual opportunities that people have, given their personal and social circumstances.

In any labour market, a job contract is very critical when it comes to the employees' work rights especially in an environment where there is no minimum wage. Once an employee does not have a job contract, then there is no legal basis and therefore the employer can exploit such an employee. Interestingly, the findings show that 67 per cent of the respondents who were working (n=39) had signed a job contract. Half of the respondents who had signed a job contract were Swedish students while the rest (50 per cent) were international students. Most of the respondents who had not signed a job contract were international students from Africa and Asia (42 per cent) and 25 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada. Similarly, findings indicate that more than three quarters of the respondents (79 per cent) who had stopped working (n=19) in Sweden had signed job contracts. Out of which further analysis showed that more than half of the respondents (67 per cent) were Swedish students. On the contrary, half (50 per cent) of those who had not signed their previous job contracts were international students from Africa and Asia, with 25 per cent between Eastern Europe and Sweden respectively.

Basing on split labour market theory, temporary workers tend to cost less than permanent workers for two reasons. First, they are more willing to put up with un-desirable work conditions since these need not be endured forever. If they are migrants, this tolerance may

extend to the general standard of living (Bonacich, 1972:550) caused especially by the financial situations in their home countries. Bonacich (1972) discusses information as one of the price determinant resource that may push immigrants into signing contracts out of ignorance. She argues that such employees may agree to lower wages due to ignorance; Swedish language being the official language used in Sweden.

Having known that almost all international students who were working wanted to earn extra income, it is important at this level to analyze the number of hours per week these students worked and how much they were paid either per hour or per month. The findings presented in table 8 below show measures of central tendency of the three selected interval variables.

**Table 8: Descriptive statistics- Students who were working (n=39)**

		<b>Statistics</b>		
		On average how many hours do you work in a week?	If you are paid per hour, how much Swedish Krona tax inclusive?	If you are paid per month, how much Swedish Krona tax inclusive?
n	Valid	39	30	14
	Missing	61	70	86
Mean		15.03	112.27	6410.71
Median		12.00	116.00	1840.00
Mode		8	110 <sup>a</sup>	95 <sup>a</sup>
Minimum		2	35	95
Maximum		40	200	25000
<b>a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown</b>				

The table 8 above provides the findings of the measures of central tendency (the mean, median and mode, and the lowest and highest values) of the selected three interval variables. Focusing on the variable ‘number of hours worked per week’, it was found that mean number of hours worked in a week was 15 hours and the median was 12 hours. It is also clear that the hours worked ranged from 2 hours to 40 hours. The modal number of hours worked in a week was 8 hours. Shifting the attention to respondents who were paid per month (tax inclusive), the mean amount was 6411 Swedish Kronas and the median amount was 1680 Swedish Kronas. Lastly, the group of respondents who were paid per hour (tax inclusive), the mean amount was 112 Swedish Kronas and the maximum amount was 200 Swedish Kronas per hour tax inclusive.

Measures of central tendency including; the mean, median, mode and range were used to show the distribution of payment among the respondents who had stopped working (n=19) in the same way. The mean and median hours worked per week were 31.79 hours and 35 hours respectively; and they ranged from 12 hours to 40 hours. The modal number of hours worked in a week was 40 hours. For respondents previously paid per hour (tax inclusive), had a mean and median amount 107.55 and 101 Swedish Kronas respectively; 140 Swedish Kronas was the maximum pay. It should be noted that the modal amount paid per hour was 100 Swedish Kronas. On the other hand, previously paid per month (tax inclusive), had a mean and median amount 18016.88 and 20250 Swedish Kronas, correspondingly; and 35,000 Swedish Kronas was the maximum pay.

To examine relationships between interval data-average number of hours worked in a week and amount of Swedish krona per month (tax inclusive) (n=39), Bivariate and Partial Correlations

were run. Firstly, to establish the strength of the relationship between the average number of hours worked in a week and the salary at the end of the month (n=39) a bivariate correlation was run.

**Table 9: Average number of hours worked in a week and Monthly Salary (Bivariate Correlations)**

		On average how many hours do you work in a week?	If you are paid per month, how much Swedish Krona? (tax inclusive)
On average how many hours do you work in a week?	Pearson Correlation	1	.790**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	39	14
If you are paid per month, how much Swedish Krona? (tax inclusive)	Pearson Correlation	.790**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	14	14

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The findings show Pearson’s correlation coefficient, p-value for two-tailed test of significance, and the sample size in the correlation matrix. From the output, the correlation coefficient between hours worked in a week and the salary is 0.790 and the p-value for two-tailed test of significance is .001. From these figures, it can be concluded that there is a strong positive correlation between hours worked in a week and the salary at the end of the month. However, bivariate correlation test does not put into consideration the interference some variables might cause to the relationship between the two variables being tested.

While testing the correlation between the average number of hours worked in a week and the amount of Swedish krona per month (tax inclusive), a bivariate correlation did not consider the impact of some other variables like gender, Swedish language, kind of employment, employer, job contract or job relevancy to one’s academic education. In such cases, a bivariate analysis may show a strong relationship between the average number of hours worked in a week and the salary but in reality, this strong relationship could be the result of some other extraneous factors. Therefore, a partial correlation was used to examine the correlation between two variables while controlling the effects of other additional variables.

**Table 10: Average number of hours worked in a week and Monthly Salary (Partial Correlations)**

Control Variables		On average how many hours do you work in a week?	If you are paid per month, how much Swedish Krona? (tax inclusive)
-Gender -Swedish language -Kind of employment Employer	Correlation	1.000	.552
	On average how many hours do you work in a week?		.156
	Significance (2-tailed)		
-Job contract -Job relevancy to Academic education	df	0	6
	Correlation	.552	1.000
	If you are paid per month, how much Swedish Krona? (tax inclusive)	.156	
	Significance (2-tailed)		
	df	6	0

The findings in table 10 show that the correlation coefficient correlation coefficient is not just considerably smaller (0.552 as compared to 0.790 in case of bivariate), but the *p*-value is also much higher (0.156 as compared to less than 0.01 in case of bivariate). This means that when the researcher controls gender, Swedish language, kind of employment, employer, job contract or job relevancy to one's academic education for the students who were working (n=39), the salaries will not be strong significantly related to number of hours worked in a week. This means that international students work for many hours in a week but end up earning so little. This is because they do not speak Swedish language and they do jobs not related to their academic education and yet they work to earn extra income. This is in line with Curtis and Lucas, (2001) who found that employers' demands for cheap and flexible labour are met by an increasing supply of students to the part-time labour market who have to work due to financial necessity during term-time.

### **5.3.1 Reasons why some Students Stopped Working (n=19)**

In this research, attention was also paid to understanding why this second group of respondents had stopped working. The responses were not coded but rather the researcher is giving a description of them. Most of the students who had stopped working gave a reason of bad working conditions and a wish to focus on their studies and they hoped to get better jobs in future. For example, some students argued that it was not easy waking up in the middle of the night and at the same time studying the next morning, yet the payment was not worth it. More specifically, some students expressed concern that it was not easy to balance their studies and full time work. Majority of the respondents (82 per cent) who had previously worked for 31-40 hours but had stopped working were Swedish students. This means that most of Swedish students worked full time. Equal proportion of students (20 per cent) had previously worked for 21-30 hours regardless of their origin. However, findings also indicate that more than half of students (67 per cent) who had previously worked for 11-20 hours were international students from Africa and Asia.

Based on these statistics, it was inevitable for some of the Swedish students to stop working since they had full time jobs and therefore they had to prioritize their studies. However, according to Nuffic Knowledge and Innovation Directorate (2008), Sweden is the only country that allows students from outside EU/EEA to work up to 40 hours per week during the academic year as long as they have a valid residence permit. Students are also allowed to work fulltime during the holiday period. Some students however, hated their previous job positions and they wanted to focus on their studies instead. At the time of this online survey, some students had moved out of Sweden for their internship and therefore it was inevitable to stop working. It was also found out that some students' contracts had come to an end. These students had no choice but to stop working. There were a very small proportion of students who were on the study leave and they hoped to resume work after their studies.

In addition, the findings show that majority of students who had stopped working (87 per cent) were still interested in working. As a clear indication of this, 53 per cent of the students who had stopped working were actively searching for jobs. Although 47 per cent were not searching for jobs, they wished to work at some point. Almost all the students who were searching for jobs were searching for them on internet and through their friends-social networks. They were also searching for informal part time jobs although they indicated that it would be good if they



found jobs related to their academic program of study or their education background. However, some international students indicated willingness to take up any available job within Swedish labor market.

### **5.3.2 Interests of Students not working but Searching for the Job (n=34)**

This was the third group of respondents (n=34). Generally, 34 per cent of the respondents were still searching but not yet got a job. Inquiry about their interests in searching for a job revealed 63 per cent were driven by the desire to earn an extra income while 37 per cent were interested in gaining work experience. Out of the 63 per cent interested in earning an income; majority (60 per cent) were from Eastern Europe, 30 per cent were from Western Europe, US and Canada; whereas 10 per cent of the students came from Africa and Asia. On the contrary, majority (60 per cent) of the respondents who sought to gain work experience were students from Africa and Asia, and there were equal proportions (20 per cent) representing Eastern Europe on one hand, and Western Europe, US and Canada on the other. One of the possible explanations in the variations why more Africans and Asians who wanted to gain experience could not find work compared to the ones who only sought an addition income is that those who work to earn extra income keep doing petty work which is common and may not need a lot of formalities and is shunned by Swedish students compared to work related to their program of study or educational background.

### **5.3.3 General Factors that Prevent Students from Working while Studying**

Answers in this section were not coded. As it has been indicated that 61 per cent of the respondents were not working while studying, the major factor that almost all international students identified was Swedish language barrier. Employers' demand for skills in Swedish language even though the job does not demand such a skill had excluded most of the international students from Swedish labour market. This finding mirrors what Agalli and Qytyku (2008) found out. Swedish language barrier was highlighted by 35 per cent of their respondents that most of the websites are in Swedish, most of the job advertisements are in Swedish and for every available position they mention that applicants have to speak Swedish.

Also, another category of students indicated that since they were doing full time courses, it would be hard for them to balance studies and paid work. Additionally, some students indicated that some jobs require a lot of hours and yet the payment is not worth it. Therefore, such students were not motivated to search for low paying jobs arguing that it is better to dedicate all their time to their studies than working for so little money. Yet other students searched for jobs but could not find any within Swedish labour market. Such students who could not find jobs indicated that it was because of their poor social networks. It is common for international students to get their jobs through their friends within Swedish labour market. This means that it increasingly becomes hard for international students to get jobs once they have just arrived in Sweden with few social network connections. The findings also show that lack of work experience was a major factor that prevented students from working especially in fields related to their academic education. Therefore, some students did not found it necessary to work in informal sector since it does not add any value to their academic resumes. There were very few students (n=8) who indicated that there was nothing that prevented them from working. They argued that they were financially stable and therefore did not see any reason of working while studying.

## 5.4 Job Satisfaction

The third and the last objective of this study; was to investigate the level of job satisfaction among both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University. It was hypothesized that most international students at Gothenburg University are less satisfied with Swedish labour market. In this section, there are two groups of students. These include students who were currently working and students who had stopped working. What is cross cutting among students who were working (n=39) and those who had stopped working (n=19) is that there were differences in job satisfaction levels among Swedish and international students.

Job Satisfaction was measured by a five-point Likert scale type (from 1 very satisfied to 5, very dissatisfied) (Warr et al., 1979) with one item to measure students' overall job satisfaction. The findings are presented in table 11.

**Table 11: How do you rate your current job satisfaction? \* Country of origin: Cross tabulation (n=38)**

Origin	How do you rate your current job satisfaction?						Total %
	Number	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	
Sweden	16	12.5	56,3	18.7	12.5	0	100
Western Europe, US and Canada	5	40	60	0	0	0	100
Eastern Europe	6	0	50	20	30	0	100
Africa and Asia	11	0	18.8	18.8	18.8	45.5	100

From the table 11 above, it is clear that majority of students from Sweden, Western Europe, US and Canada and Eastern Europe were very satisfied or satisfied with their work compared with the students from Africa and Asia where majority were dissatisfied and very dissatisfied.

The right to work demands the creation of a social, economic and physical environment in which all people have fair and equal opportunities to prosper by virtue of their own endeavour and in a manner consistent with their dignity (OHCHR, 2006).

### **Hypothesis Three:**

*Most International Students at Gothenburg are less satisfied with Swedish labour market.*

A null hypothesis is rejected if 2-sided significance reported in the last column and in the row corresponding to the Pearson Chi-Square is less than the significance level (5% or 10%) selected (Greasley, 2008; Gaur A. and Gaur S., 2009).

**Table 12: Students' Job satisfaction with the Swedish Labour Market (Chi-Square Tests)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25.718 <sup>a</sup>	15	.041
Likelihood Ratio	28.113	15	.021
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.288	1	.007
N of Valid Cases	39		

a. 22 cells (91.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .13.

Table 12 shows the analysis of general job satisfaction of students who were currently working while studying and their origin. The Chi-square value was 25.718 with a significance p value of .041. This means that the Chi-square, the probability of this distribution of values occurring by chance is less than .041. The *p*-value of .041 is less than the commonly accepted levels of either .05 or .10. So the researcher confidently rejects the null hypothesis. This means that there is a significant relationship between current students' job satisfaction and their countries of origin. The result is reported as given below: *There was significant relationship at 10% significance level between the general students' job satisfaction with their jobs and students' countries of origin (Chi-Square=25.718, df=15, p=.041)*. We can accept these odds as statistically significant and conclude that there is a relationship between current students' job satisfaction and their countries of origin. It can therefore be concluded that most international students at Gothenburg University, currently working are dissatisfied with their jobs though with reservation given the small sample obtained (n=39).

The findings find support in the work of Choi and Sneed, (2006) who noted that employee job satisfaction is affected by many factors including work-related characteristics (supervision quality, orientation and training). Similarly, Wadhwa D. et al, (2011) conducted a study in a cement plant in the results from this study show that there are various factors behind employees' job satisfaction.

### 5.4.1 Organizational Factors

It is very interesting to find that all the respondents who never enjoyed their current work (n=39) and their previous work (n=19) were international students from Africa and Asia. The findings are summarized in the table 13 below.

**Table 13: Work enjoyment\* Country of origin: Cross tabulation**

Group 1 (n=39)		Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>I enjoy the work that I do</b>	Always	0	20	0	0
	Often	56	80	33.3	0
	Sometimes	44	0	33.3	17
	Seldom	0	0	33.3	17
	Never	0	0	0	66
	<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Group2 (n=19)</b>					
<b>I enjoyed the work that I did</b>	Always	0	0	33.3	0
	Often	54.5	0	66.7	75
	Sometimes	18.2	100	0	0
	Seldom	27.3	0	0	0
	Never	0	0	0	25
	<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

**Note:** Group 1: Students currently working  
Group2: Students who stopped working

Basing on table 13 above, only international students from Africa and Asia never enjoyed their work and this is one of the reasons why they are dissatisfied with their jobs. Secondly, the findings show that majority of the respondents who rated their current work as always giving them a feeling of accomplishment (67 per cent) were Swedish students and the rest 33 per cent

were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada. Majority of the respondents (80 percent) whose work never gave them a feeling of accomplishment and pride were international students from Africa and Asia, 20 per cent were international students from Eastern Europe. This means that international students from Africa and Asia and Eastern Europe were less satisfied with their jobs compared to international students from Western Europe, US and Canada and Swedish students. This is not surprising since majority of students who did not speak Swedish language were international students from Africa and Asia.

### Induction at the Job

Almost half of the respondents (40 per cent) who were always given adequate training for the work they do were international students from Africa and Asia, equal proportion of the respondents (20 per cent) were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada and Eastern Europe respectively and Swedish students. Although majority of international students from Africa and Asia do not speak Swedish language, once they are given good job induction, they do better since employees view job-specific training as very important to their jobs. In this regard, employers offer job-specific training to provide employees with the relevant skills to enable them to perform their duties efficiently. Job-specific training is also necessary to fill a newly hired employee’s skills gap (SHRM, 2012). It should be noted however that induction at the job within any organization depends on the available resources. For example, most Swedish students were working in public sector with all the resources while international students were in private sector.

### 5.4.2 Work Environment

The study findings indicate that all the respondents who never had safe working environment in the present and previous work were international students from Africa and Asia. This means that their working conditions were not safe. The findings are clearly presented in the table 14 below.

**Table 14: Safe working environment\* Country of origin: Cross tabulation**

Group 1 (n=39)		Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>My work environment is safe</b>	Always	18.8	80	50	33.3
	Often	53.3	20	33.3	8.3
	Sometimes	18.8	0	0	16.7
	Seldom	6.3	0	16.7	8.4
	Never	0	0	0	33.3
	<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Group2 (n=19)</b>					
<b>My work environment was safe</b>	Always	27.3	0	33.3	50
	Often	27.3	0	66.7	25
	Sometimes	27.3	100	0	0
	Seldom	18.1	0	0	0
	Never	0	0	0	25
	<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

From table 14 above, all the respondents who never had safe working environment were international students from Africa and Asia compared to their Swedish counterparts. This implies that their right to safe working environment was not fulfilled. Yet Society for Human

Resource Management, (2009) conducted a job satisfaction survey with the sample of employees and a sample of human resource professionals; and the results show that 54 percent of employees and 52 per cent of HR professionals indicated that feeling safe in the work environment is very important to employee job satisfaction. This may be one of the explanations why international students were dissatisfied with their jobs. This aligns with Ozdemir, (2009) who notes that employee job satisfaction increases with sufficient work conditions. Additionally, work conditions for instance work places must be in normal conditions to allow employees to do their job properly. In work places where there is no sufficient conditions, employees motivation level decreases and such a situation affects employee job satisfaction negatively (Wadhwa D. et al, 2011, Ozdemir, 2009).

### 5.4.3 Behavioural Factors

#### Relations with Direct Supervisor

Correspondingly, analysis into origin of respondents shows that more than half of the respondents (67 Percent) who were always satisfied with their direct supervisors were international students from Eastern Europe. The details are presented in the table 15 below.

**Table 15: Satisfaction with direct supervisor\* Country of Origin: Cross tabulation**

<b>Group 1 (n=39)</b>		<b>Sweden</b>	<b>Western Europe, US and Canada</b>	<b>Eastern Europe</b>	<b>Africa and Asia</b>
<b>I am satisfied with my direct supervisor</b>	Always	18.8	40	66.7	8.3
	Often	50	40	16.7	8.3
	Sometimes	18.8	20	0	33.3
	Seldom	12.4	0	16.7	8.3
	Never	0	0	0	41.8
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Group2 (n=19)</b>					
<b>I was satisfied with my direct supervisor</b>	Always	9.1	0	33.3	0
	Often	27.3	100	33.3	50
	Sometimes	36.4	0	33.3	0
	Seldom	18.2	0	0	25
	Never	9.1	0	0	25
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

All the respondents who were never satisfied with their direct supervisors were international students from Africa and Asia as seen in table 15 above.

This corresponds to Wadhwa et al, (2011:110) who noted that giving more freedom to employees in their job increases their satisfaction. Similarly, SHRM, (2011) found that employees' autonomy and independence are very important job satisfaction factors that provide employees with increased freedom, flexibility and discretion to make decisions on the job. Employees rated their relationship with their immediate supervisor as more important to their job satisfaction than benefits and compensation. This relates to the employees' authority to make decisions. Wadhwa et al, (2011) noted that satisfaction with Supervisors and managers are one of the main factors which affect job satisfaction. Wood et al. (1986), cited in Alam and Mohammed (2009) argue that employees are satisfied with their jobs depending on the information and guidelines they are provided with by their supervisors. This may affect

international students' level of job satisfaction since most international students do not speak Swedish language.

### Opportunity to Utilize one's Skills

The findings show that half of the respondents who were always given opportunity to utilize their skills were Swedish students and the rest 50 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada. Almost all the respondents (89 per cents) who were never given opportunity to utilize their skills were international students from Africa and Asia. One of the explanations is that international students were engaged in jobs not related to their academic education and therefore they could not utilize their skills. This fits in capability approach where Robeyns, (2003) highlights that resources are the only means to enhance people's well-being and advantage, whereas the concern should be with what matters intrinsically, namely people's functioning's and capabilities. Additionally, Robeyns, (2011) asserts that the capability approach prioritizes certain of peoples' beings and doings and their opportunities to realize those beings and doings. When people's capabilities are not optimized, it affects their functioning and so with their job satisfaction.

### A Balance between Studies and Work life

Despite of the hardships international students go through in searching for jobs, majority of the respondents (42 per cent) who were always able to balance work and studies were international students from Africa and Asia. The findings are shown in table 16 below.

**Table 16: Balance between work and studies\* Country of origin: Cross tabulation (n=39)**

		Origin			
		Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>I am able to maintain a good balance between my work life and my studies</b>	Always	12.4	40	33.3	41.6
	Often	50	40	33.3	25
	Sometimes	18.8	20	16.7	16.7
	Seldom	18.8	0	16.7	16.7
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Although most students managed to balance their studies and work, there was the conflict between full realization of the right to work and the right to education. By making priorities, some students postpone the enjoyment of one right in favor of another especially students who were working full time (40 hours a week). This duplicates what Wadhwa D. et al, (2011:109) describe as negative stress. When a job does not correspond with employee's personal life, or is the source of anxiety and confusion; and it's stressful. This stress is regarded as negative stress that reduces job satisfaction. The right balance between work and study is not easy and this may depend on a number of individual factors, such as the time spent in work, the type of work performed, course demands, academic ability, past experience in the labour market, intended future career paths, course fees, other time commitments and the availability of other forms of financial support (Polidane and Zakirova, 2011:11, SHRM, 2012).

## **Students' Views Regarding Work Compensation**

It was interesting to find that majority of the respondents (40 per cent) who always felt that their job compensation was fair were international students from Africa and Asia, equal proportion of the respondents (20 per cent) were Swedish students and international students from Western Europe, US and Canada and Eastern Europe. Majority of the respondents who never felt that their job compensation was fair were Swedish students (41 per cent), 31 per cent of the respondents were international students from Africa and Asia, 15 per cent of the respondents were international students from Eastern Europe while only 13 per cent of the respondents who never felt that their job compensation was fair were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada. Further analysis shows that 75 per cent of the respondents who always considered their previous work compensation as fair were Swedish students and 25 per cent were international students from Eastern Europe.

These findings fit very well in the split labour market theory as put forward by Bonacich, (1972). She elaborates that to be split, a labor market must contain at least two groups of workers whose price of labor differs for the same work, or would differ if they did the same work. In the context of this thesis, two groups of workers whose price of labour differs for the same work include international students and Swedish students whose price for labour is considerably different for same jobs. However, it should be noted that Swedish students and international students are not perfect substitutes within Swedish labour market due to Swedish language.

All the respondents who never considered their previous work compensation as fair were international students from Africa and Asia. This finding affirms what Ozdemir, (2009) and Wadhwa et al, (2011) found out that fair rewarding was one of the factors that increase employees' satisfaction. They argue that employees are more satisfied when their works are fairly rewarded. In 2012 Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement survey, six out of 10 employees indicated that compensation was very important to their overall job satisfaction (SHRM, 2012). Similarly, Choi and Sneed, (2006:12) assert that providing incentives for student employees based on their performance may increase their satisfaction. Diverting from this, a split labour market may arise in which wages for similar jobs are different for members of two or more distinct ethnic and racial groups. Generally, employees accept salary as supervisors' reward for the work they have performed. In current economic conditions, minimum wages remain a topic of debate on the policy agenda and in the public domain in both developed and developing countries (ILO, 2013). As part of Decent Work Agenda, the ILO encourages member States to adopt a minimum wage to reduce working poverty and provide social protection for vulnerable employees. However, Sweden does not have a minimum wage and yet compensation is considered as one of the most extrinsic indicators of job satisfaction (SHRM, 2009). Compensation has consistently remained one of the top five job satisfaction aspects most important to employees (SHMR, 2009). This dimension determines the level of job satisfaction of employees by knowing how much they are satisfied with the pay or compensation (Alam and Mohammad, 2009).

It is worth noting that majority of the respondents (67 per cent) who never felt that their compensation of their current jobs was fair were females compared to their male counterparts (33 per cent). This means that males were compensated fairly well for the work they did and

this reflects gender discrimination. This is in line with ILO, (2007) report where women in Europe still earn less than men. ILO, (2003) recognizes the notion of equal opportunities for all men and women in the labour market.

#### 5.4.4 Job Security

Job security was more felt among Swedish students and international students from Western Europe, US and Canada. All the respondents who never felt that their current jobs were secure were international students from Africa and Asia. The findings are presented in table 17 below.

**Table 17: Job security\* Country of origin: Cross tabulation**

Group 1 (n=39)		Sweden	Western Europe, US and Canada	Eastern Europe	Africa and Asia
<b>I feel that my job is secure</b>	Always	18.8	40	16.7	0
	Often	56.3	60	16.7	8.3
	Sometimes	6.3	0	16.6	8.3
	Seldom	18.3	0	50	16.7
	Never	0	0	0	66.6
	<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Group2 (n=19)</b>					
<b>I feel that my previous job was secure</b>	Always	18.2	0	0	25
	Often	36.4	0	67.7	25
	Sometimes	18.2	0	0	0
	Seldom	18.2	100	0	25
	Never	9	0	33.3	25
	<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

This job insecurity among international students has far reaching effects on their level of job satisfaction. It was not surprising to find that job insecurity was more felt among international students from Africa and Asia since all of them were engaged in blue collar jobs with no job contract. In reference to the survey carried by SHRM (2011), job security for the fourth consecutive year, remained at the top of employees' list of most important determinants of job satisfaction. Having an indefinite job contract is the strongest predictor of satisfaction with job security for paid employees ((Millan et al., 2011).

It was interesting to find that majority of female respondents (83 per cent, 79per cent and 62 per cent) always, often and sometimes felt that their current jobs were secure respectively compared to their counterparts males (17 per cent, 21 per cent and 33 per cent). However, majority of male respondents (71 per cent) never felt that their current jobs were secure compared to females (29 per cent). Although the findings find support in Millan et al., (2011) who found out that females (both the self-employed and paid employees) were significantly satisfied in terms of job security than men, they divert from SHRM, (2009) where job security was an aspect of job satisfaction was more important to male employees than to female employees.

#### Mechanisms to air out Grievances

Majority of the respondents (67 per cent) of those who had sometimes had fair opportunity to air out grievances were Swedish students, whereas, only 22 and 11per cent of their counterparts from Eastern Europe, and Africa and Asia, respectively, expressed so.



Opinions of never having opportunities to air out grievances also cut across all categories though were dominant among Swedish (41 per cent), and African and Asian (31 per cent) students. It was however least felt among 15 per cent and 13 per cent of the respondents from Eastern Europe; and Western Europe, US and Canada respectively.

#### **5.4.5 Discrimination**

It was found out that 31 per cent of the respondents (n=39) showed that there was discrimination in their current work places. Among the respondents who said there was discrimination, 81 per cent named racial discrimination, 9 per cent named gender discrimination while 10 per cent named combination of racial discrimination and gender discrimination. Interestingly, these findings mirror what Blank et al (ed), (2004) postulate in the first component of the definition of racial discrimination; when a member of one racial group is treated less favorably than a similarly situated member of another racial group and suffers adverse or negative consequences. Each component is based on behavior or treatment that disadvantages one racial group over another.

Further analysis shows that among the respondents who named racial discrimination, majority of them were international students from Africa and Asia (66 per cent), 33 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada while only 11 per cent were Swedish students. All the respondents who named gender discrimination, and a combination of racial and gender discrimination were Swedish students. These findings exhibit the characteristics of discrimination theory where Arrow (1971) argues that discrimination begins to surface when personal characteristics of the worker that are unrelated to productivity and not properly relevant are also valued on the market.

Majority of the respondents (67 per cent) reported that there was racial discrimination in their previous work places while 33 per cent said there was gender discrimination. Half of the respondents who highlighted racial discrimination were international students from Eastern Europe, 25 per cent of the respondents were international students from Africa and Asia while 25 per cent of the respondents were Swedish students. All the respondents who reported gender discrimination in their previous work places were Swedish students. The findings affirm ILO, (2003) where millions of people in the world are offered lower pay simply because of their sex, their religion or the colour of their skin, irrespective of their capabilities or the requirements of the job.

Discrimination at work deprives people of their voice at work and full participation, thus undermining democracy and justice in the workplace. It impairs the opportunities of men and women to develop their potential skills and talents and to be rewarded according to merit. Discrimination at work produces inequalities in labour market outcomes and places members of certain groups at a disadvantage. It also limits the freedom of individuals to obtain the type of work to which they aspire (ILO, 2003).

While discrimination is now universally condemned, and progress towards equality of opportunity and treatment has been made, there is clearly a long way to go (ILO, 2003). According to ILO (2003), discrimination takes many forms, and occurs in all kinds of work settings in all economic sectors; regardless of whether the work takes place in the formal or the

informal economy throughout the world. According to Payne (2005:272), discrimination means “*identifying individuals and groups with certain characteristics and treating them less well than people or groups with conventionally valued characteristics.*” Although Europe in general and EU Member States in particular have developed some of the broadest and most effective social policies against discrimination in the workplace, research has revealed widespread discrimination exists in the labour market, primarily against immigrants and minorities (ILO, 2007) and the current study findings extend on this knowledge. However, discrimination at work place is hard to be measured because most of the time it is indirect in nature. For instance, the requirement of knowledge of Swedish language to obtain a job, when language competence is not indispensable, is a form of indirect discrimination based on national or ethnic origin.

#### **5.4.6 Trade Unions in Sweden**

The findings show that all the respondents who were working (n=39) had ever heard about trade unions in Sweden compared to 95 per cent of the respondents (n=19) who had stopped working. However, only 39 per cent of the respondents who were working had had contact with trade unions in Sweden compared to 58 per cent of the respondents who had stopped working. Further analysis shows that only 33 per cent of the respondents (n=39) were members of any trade union in Sweden in comparison to 37 per cent of the respondents who had stopped working.

All the respondents who were members of trade union in Sweden belonged to white collar trade unions. Majority of them (85 per cent) were Swedish students, 8 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada while 7 per cent were international students from Africa and Asia. Majority of the respondents who were not members of any trade union in Sweden were international students from Africa and Asia (44 per cent), equal proportion of the respondents (20 per cent) were Swedish students and international students from Eastern Europe while 16 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada.

The findings also show that among respondents who were members of trade union in their previous jobs in Sweden (n=19), 86 per cent of the respondents belonged to white collar trade unions while 14 per cent belonged to blue collar jobs. Further analysis shows that majority of the respondents (83 per cent) who belonged to white collar trade unions in Sweden were Swedish students and only 17 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada. This implies that Swedish students are empowered for collective bargaining compared to international students.

Unlike many other countries, Sweden has no legal minimum wage. Instead, wages are set by collective bargaining agreements between employers and unions. About 70 per cent of all workers in Sweden are affiliated to a trade union. The collective agreement applies to all workers at the workplace in question, not only trade union members ([www.arbetsformedlingen.se](http://www.arbetsformedlingen.se)). The freedoms to associate and to bargain collectively are fundamental rights and they are rooted in the ILO Constitution (ILO, 1998). Article 23(4) of the UDHR, (1948) provides, “*Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests*”. Article 22(1) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political

Rights (ICCPR) and Article 11 (1) of the European Convention on Human Rights provide, *“Everyone shall have the right to freedom of association with others, including the right to form and join trade unions for the protection of his interests.”* Article 8 (1) (a) of International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) provides, *“The States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to ensure: The right of everyone to form trade unions and join the trade union of his choice, subject only to the rules of the organization concerned, for the promotion and protection of his economic and social interests...”*

According to the Swedish Trade Union Confederation (LO) (2000), the collective bargaining is the core issue of every trade union organization. The Swedish labour market is characterized by a high rate of unionization. The rate of unionization is almost the same for the public sector as for the private sector, for women and for men, and for white-collar and blue-collar workers. It is even somewhat higher for LO women than for LO men. This trade union covers all of the labour market, private as well as public sectors, for blue-collar workers in Sweden. Additionally, there are two main trade union confederations in Sweden for white-collar workers-Swedish Confederation of Professional Employees (TCO) and Swedish Confederation (SACO). SACO organizes employees with University degrees (Swedish Trade Union Confederation, 2000).

However, the findings show that 67 per cent of the respondents (n=39) and 63 per cent (n=19) were not members of trade unions in Sweden in their current jobs and previous jobs respectively. Lack of information about how to join trade unions was one of the main reasons why they were not members. Most of them showed that all the information is given in Swedish language and yet they can neither read it nor speak it thus being a barrier. Some respondents showed that it is very costly to be members of trade unions and yet they didn't know how they would benefit. Other respondents lacked confidence in trade unions; they did not think that being members of trade unions would eventually improve their situation. International students argued that their jobs are temporary in nature and they do not have job contracts.

This is in agreement with Bonacich (1972) who notes that temporary workers have little reason to join the organizations and unions of a permanent work force, and tend not to do so since temporary workers enter the market either to supplement family income, or to work toward a specific purchase. Thus, the worker's standard of living does not depend on his/her earnings on the job in question, since his/her central source of employment or income lies elsewhere. However, the researcher observes that international students engage in temporary jobs not by choice but rather by circumstances under which they find themselves within Swedish labour market.

In summary, having known that international students especially from Africa and Asia and Eastern Europe were generally dissatisfied with their current and previous jobs in Sweden, the only hope would be in trade unions to improve on their working conditions. However, as earlier noted, they were not members of trade unions and this means that they are not empowered to negotiate collectively. What worsens the situation is that there is no minimum wage in Sweden. Moreover, most of the international students do not speak Swedish language and they engage in blue collar jobs within private sector with no job contracts where employers aim at maximizing the profits. Yet as a student, working part-time is the only practical way to

ease the economic limitations of life. This leaves international students at the crossroad of either working under bad working conditions where their work rights are not respected or to stop working and focus on their studies with limited resources.

In the last chapter, we find summaries, knowledge gap, recommendations and conclusions which are drawn from the study findings as well as reflections.

## **CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, KNOWLEDGE GAP, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a summary of the main findings of the study and conclusions, shortcomings of the study and the knowledge gap for future research. Finally, it presents the recommendations.

### **6.2 Summary and Conclusions**

The overall objective of this study was to establish the satisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market compared to their Swedish counterparts with the aim of promoting their work related rights. In order to achieve this goal, the study aimed at assessing the involvement of international and Swedish students in paid work during their studies; to find out the kind of jobs both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University engage in while studying; and to investigate the level of satisfaction with Swedish labour market among both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University. It was hypothesized that: most international students at Gothenburg University are engaged in paid work; most international students at Gothenburg University engage in blue-collar jobs; and most of the international students at Gothenburg are less satisfied with Swedish labour market. The major highlights of the study findings are as follows:

#### **6.2.1 The Involvement of International and Swedish Students in Paid Work during their Studies**

Higher education has become globalized and students increasingly find it very important to work while studying due to financial hardships in attaining higher education. In this study, 39 per cent (n=39) of the respondents were currently working, 19 per cent (n=19) had stopped working, 34 per cent (n=34) were interested in working during their studies but had not yet found work, only 8 per cent were not interested in working while studying. Further analysis shows that among these students who were working (n=39), 41 per cent were Swedish students and the rest were international students from Africa and Asia, Eastern Europe, and Western Europe, US and Canada, were 31, 15 and 13 per cent respectively. Therefore, 59 per cent of respondents who were currently working were international students.

All the international students worked to earn extra income whereas Swedish students mainly worked to gain work experience. This implies that both international and Swedish students have a right to work in Sweden while studying. This finds support in the Swedish Migration Board, (2012:31), 'third-country students who work during their studies have the same work-related rights as persons with permanent residence permits or Swedish nationals, even if their residence permit is only temporary'.

The majority of international students gained their current/previous jobs employment in Sweden through their friends' referrals as compared to Swedish students who gained them through formal application procedures. This means that international students in their first year of study find it extremely difficult in the job search. Therefore international students

increasingly find it hard to gain gainful jobs while studying and some of them stop working and only focus on their studies.

### **6.2.2 The Kind of Work that International and Swedish Students Engage in while Studying**

Findings from both groups of students who were currently working (n=39) and those who had stopped working (n=19) show that international students were engaged in blue-collar jobs which are not related to their academic education. Further analysis shows that only Swedish students had previously been engaged in white-collar jobs. Similarly, majority of the respondents (81 per cent) who were engaged in white-collar jobs were Swedish students, 13 per cent were international students from Western Europe, US and Canada while only 6 per cent of the respondents were international students from Eastern Europe. All the international students from Africa and Asia who were currently working or who had stopped working were currently/ previously engaged in only blue-collar jobs

Whereas it is common for students to be employed in private sector, what is cross cutting also is that majority of the respondents who were working/stopped working in public sector were Swedish students. Swedish students find it easy to work in formal public sector with all associated benefits such as job contracts. For example, almost all students who were employed in public sector were Swedish students (86 per cent) and only 14 per cent were international students from Eastern Europe. International students dominated in the private sector where employees aim at maximizing profits.

In this study, almost all international students work in informal private sector comprised of blue-collar jobs compared to Swedish students who easily find their way into white-collar jobs. However, international students find themselves at the crossroad of either working in fields not related to their academic education or concentrating on their studies with limited financial resources.

In reality, however, international students do not have the choice to do the kind of jobs that are related to their fields of study. This undermines international students from developing their skills and therefore this affects their functioning as seen in the capability approach (Sen, 2001, 1999). International students are largely dominated in informal private sector and they mainly do blue collar jobs with low returns and yet they work for longer hours. Most of the international students do not have job contracts and yet they are not members of trade unions in Sweden. On the other hand, Swedish students find it easy to work in formal public sector with job contract and most of them belong to white collar trade unions. This means that Swedish students who are working are empowered to negotiate collectively.

International and Swedish students are at the same level of education but they have different employment opportunities within Swedish labour market. One of the arguments is that international students lack good command of Swedish language. Swedish students can easily access all the information concerning employment vacancies in Swedish language and therefore can easily apply for such jobs. Swedish language was one of the main reasons why international students were engaged in blue-collar jobs despite their capabilities. For example, the majority of international students especially from Africa and Asia lack a command of

Swedish language and yet Swedish language is one of the conditions to join Swedish labour market. However, international students showed dissatisfaction especially when employers demand for Swedish language and yet some jobs do not practically require a skill in Swedish language. Therefore, Swedish language is used to exclude some international students from joining Swedish labour market. However, Swedish language does not fully explain why some students who have learnt the language do not find their dream jobs. The only explanations may lie in discrimination and split labour market theories though international and Swedish students are not perfect substitutes within the Swedish labour market.

### **6.2.3 Job Satisfaction among both International and Swedish Students**

The third and the last objective of this study was to investigate the level of job satisfaction among both international and Swedish students at Gothenburg University.

Job Satisfaction was measured by a five-point Likert scale type (from 1 very satisfied to 5, very dissatisfied) with one item to measure students' overall job satisfaction. Students who were working/stopped working (n=39) (n=19) respectively were asked to rate their current/ previous job satisfaction respectively.

Generally, the results suggest that international students' level of satisfaction with Swedish labour market was different compared to Swedish counterparts. Majority of the international students were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their current/previous jobs in Sweden. Job dissatisfaction was very pronounced among international students from Africa and Asia. International students were dissatisfied with work itself because they found that their jobs were not intellectually challenging and therefore not interesting. Almost all the international students were currently involved in jobs which were not related to their education background/academic education such as baby-sitting, cleaning, newspaper distribution, to mentioned but a few. The freedom of human beings to develop their capabilities and to choose and pursue their professional and personal aspirations is restricted, without regard for ability. Skills and competencies cannot be developed, rewards to work are denied and a sense of humiliation, frustration and powerlessness takes over (ILO, 2003).

International students from Africa and Asia who were currently working were dissatisfied with their jobs compared to either international students from Western Europe, US and Canada or their Swedish counterparts. These are some of the factors that contributed to dissatisfaction of international students with their current jobs. Firstly, students who never had a feeling of accomplishment and pride about their current jobs were from Africa and Asia (80 per cent) and the rest were from Eastern Europe. This means that such students were dissatisfied with work itself.

Secondly, among students who were currently working and those who had stopped working, all the respondents who never had safe working environment were international students from Africa and Asia. This means they were working under unsafe working environment.

Thirdly, all the respondents who were never satisfied with their current direct supervisors were international students from Africa and Asia. Still, all the respondents who never felt that their jobs were secure were students from Africa and Asia. This means that such students did not have job contracts, which is the only legal agreement between employers and employees.

Therefore, without a job contract, an employee's work related rights can easily be violated especially in a society where there is no minimum wage. The only hope lies in trade union membership. However, as noted earlier, most international students are not members of trade union in Sweden as compared to some of their Swedish counterparts who belong to white-collar trade unions.

Discrimination at work place was one of the factors that contributed to dissatisfaction of international students with the Swedish labour market. Most international students felt that there was racial discrimination at their work places compared to their Swedish counterparts who felt there was gender discrimination. Although discrimination is hard to measure and very often hidden, it occurs in the world of work every day (ILO, 2003). Discrimination at work can occur in many different settings and in a variety of forms. Discrimination at work deprives people of their voice at work and full participation, thus undermining democracy and justice in the workplace (ILO, 2003). While discrimination is now universally condemned, and progress towards equality of opportunity and treatment has been made, there is clearly a long way to go (ILO, 2003). Article 23(1) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), (1948) provides "*Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.*"

Thus the work related rights of the students especially international students need urgent attention. Research and current debates have been largely focused on immigrants such as asylum seekers and the refugees. International students within Swedish labour market have remained invisible despite their economic contribution. Whereas this study has some limitations, a remarkable contribution has been made to the body of knowledge on the satisfaction of students with the Swedish labour market utilizing human rights approach and it has laid a cornerstone for advocacy for this group. The study findings can be used to improve the working conditions for international students and this helps in realization of their work related rights and right to education.

### **6.3 Shortcomings of the Study and Gaps for Future Research**

This study had some shortcomings which may be avoided by future researchers in related field of study. Due to the limitation of resources in terms of finances and time, the study was limited to only seven departments in the faculty of social sciences at Gothenburg University which were purposively selected. Whereas the study findings mirror the working experiences of both international and Swedish students, one of the limitations is that these findings may not be generalized to all students in the entire University of Gothenburg. Further researchers may employ random sampling and increase on the sample size to generate data that is well representative in nature.

More still, a web based survey was online for six weeks and the response rate was only 20 per cent. Therefore the conclusions drawn may not be so representative and do not portray an exhaustive picture of the entire study population. Thus the study findings from the sample cannot be generalized to the population although we get a clear picture about the phenomenon.

Finally, a quantitative research was employed in the current study. Qualitative study should be considered to get in-depth information from students. It can also be interesting if focus group



discussions are conducted to solicit for students' experiences in working life while studying. As earlier noted that some students felt that there was some kind of discrimination such as racial and gender discrimination in their work places, it would be interesting to get employers' views through in-depth interviews.

#### **6.4 Recommendations**

Basing on the study findings, there is still knowledge gap in work related rights among students who get involved in paid work while studying. Majority of the respondents (31 per cent) were students pursuing master program in international social work and human rights. However, such students too had limited information on their work related rights in Sweden. For example, students who were not members of trade unions argued that trade union membership would not improve their working conditions. Yet, we know that collective bargaining is very vital in instances where employees are not fairly compensated for the work done, when employees feel they are discriminated against and when employees work under unsafe working environment. This knowledge gap can be attributed to Swedish language. International students find it hard to master Swedish language within the period of two years during their studies. Therefore, it would be very helpful if Gothenburg University creates an office that is available to answer queries of work related issues among international students.

Master students of international social work and human rights should be empowered with work related human rights within Swedish labour market. Thus, students' work related rights will be promoted in a long run when rights holders and their entitlements and corresponding duty-bearers and their obligations are identified. This will strengthen the capabilities of rights-holders especially international students to make their claims and thus duty-bearers will meet their obligation in promoting students' work related rights.

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## APPENDICES

### A: Introductory Letter



GÖTEBORGS UNIVERSITET

Department of Social Work

International Master of Science in Social Work and Human Rights

2013/02/04

Dear responsible administrators,

My name is Janepher Turyamwesiga and I am a student pursuing International Masters program in Social Work and Human Rights at the University of Gothenburg, Faculty of Social Sciences. As a requirement to complete this course, I am conducting research on:

***The Satisfaction of Master Students at Gothenburg University with Swedish Labour Market:  
A focus on International Students in relation to their Swedish counterparts, utilizing a  
Human Rights Approach***

This study will only be limited to all students who are currently doing the following courses:

1. Master's programme in Social Work and Human Rights
2. Master programme in Strategic Human resource management and labour Relations
3. Master programme in European Studies
4. Master programme in Global Studies
5. Master Programme in International Administration and global Governance
6. Master Programme in Communication
7. Master Programme in Political Science

Although this study focuses on International students, Swedish Students are also sampled for comparison purposes that will enrich the findings. I intend to use questionnaires to gather data on the topic for purely academic research purposes.

Therefore, I kindly seek for your assistance for this study to be successful. Please kindly send me the email list of all the students (including Swedish Students) ie both first years and second years doing the above mentioned programs, I need to send them the questionnaires.

Birgitta Jansson is my supervisor and she is willing to provide you with more information in case you have any question concerning this study. You may contact her with mail:

[Birgitta.Jansson@socwork.gu.se](mailto:Birgitta.Jansson@socwork.gu.se) or phone: 031 - 786 57 73.

Thanks so much.

Yours faithfully,

Janepher Turyamwesiga  
JANEPHER TURYAMWESIGA

[jturyamwesiga@yahoo.com](mailto:jturyamwesiga@yahoo.com)

## **B: Self-Administered Questionnaire**

Dear Respondent,

My name is Janepher Turyamwesiga and I am a student pursuing International Masters program in Social Work and Human Rights at the University of Gothenburg, Faculty of Social Sciences. As a requirement to complete this programme, I am conducting a research on:

***The Satisfaction of Master Students at Gothenburg University with Swedish Labour Market: A focus on International Students in relation to their Swedish counterparts, utilizing a Human Rights Approach***

This questionnaire seeks to gather data on the topic for purely academic research purposes. Your participation is voluntary but it is very important that you respond to the questions in this questionnaire. There is neither right nor wrong answers; I don't judge your answers. You have been sampled as a respondent in this study and you are representing other students and therefore your contribution is valuably welcomed. It will take you approximately 5-10minutes to fill this questionnaire. The response information you provide will be treated with maximum confidentiality.

Although this study focuses on International students, Swedish Students are also sampled for comparison purposes that will enrich the findings.

### **SECTION A: SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

1. What is your gender?

1. Male

2. Female

3. Others (Specify)-----

2. Your age-----

3. What is your country of birth? -----

4. What is your nationality? -----

5. Course of study

1. Master's programme in Social Work and Human Rights

2. Master programme in Strategic Human resource management and labour Relations

3. Master programme in European Studies

4. Master programme in Global Studies

5. Master Programme in International Administration and global Governance

6. Master Programme in Communication

7. Master Programme in Political Science

6. Year of study

1. First Year

2. Second Year

7. Do you pay your own tuition fee?
1. Yes
  2. No
8. Do you speak Swedish?
1. Yes
  2. No
9. If you are not Swedish, how long have you been staying in Sweden? -----
10. Are you currently working in Sweden while studying?
1. Yes, skip to question 12 (Section B)
  2. No
11. If no, have you ever worked in Sweden?
1. Yes, Skip to question 43 (Section C)
  2. No, Skip to question 73 (Section D)

**SECTION B: SECTION FOR STUDENTS WHO ARE CURRENTLY WORKING IN SWEDEN WHILE STUDYING**

12. Which employer do you work for? -----
13. What kind of employment do you have?
1. Formal
  2. Informal
14. Specifically, what kind of work do you do? -----
15. How long did you search for your current job?
1. Less than one month
  2. 1-3 months
  3. 4-6 months
  4. More than 6 months
16. How were you recruited?-----  
-----
17. Did you sign a contract?
1. Yes
  2. No
18. How long have you worked for your present employer?
1. Less than one month
  2. 1-3 months
  3. 4-6 months
  4. More than 6 months

19. Is your job relevant to your academic education?

1. Yes
2. No

20. On average, how many hours do you work in a week? -----

21. If you are paid per hour, how much Swedish Kronors (tax inclusive) are you paid per hour?  
-----

22. If you are paid per month, how much Swedish Kronors (tax inclusive) are you paid per month? -----

23. As a student, why do you work (main reason)?

1. To earn extra income
2. To get work experience
3. To make new friends
4. To learn Swedish language
5. Others (Specify)-----

**PLEASE RATE ON THE SCALE PROVIDED THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS AS THEY PERTAIN TO YOUR CURRENT EMPLOYMENT**

24. How do you rate your job satisfaction?

1. Very Satisfied
2. Satisfied
3. Neutral
4. Dissatisfied
5. Very Dissatisfied

25. I enjoy the work that I do.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

26. My work gives me feelings of accomplishment and pride.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

27. I am satisfied with my direct supervisor

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

28. I am given opportunity to utilize my skills.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

29. I feel that my job is secure.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

30. I am able to maintain a good balance between my work life and my studies.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

31. I am given adequate training to do my job well.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

32. My compensation is fair for the work that I do.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

33. Is there any form of discrimination in your organization?

1. Yes
2. No, skip to question 35

34. Which form(s) of discrimination in your organization have you experienced?

1. Racial discrimination
2. Age discrimination
3. Gender discrimination
4. All the above
5. Others (specify)

35. Have you ever heard about Trade Unions in Sweden?

1. Yes
2. No

36. Have you had any contact with any Trade Union in Sweden?

1. Yes
2. No

37. Are you a member of any Trade Union in Sweden?

1. Yes
2. No, skip to question 39

38. Which Trade Union (s)? -----  
----- (Fill and skip to question 40)

39. Why not? -----  
-----  
-----  
-----

40. I have fair opportunities to air out my grievances at work without fear.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

41. My work environment is safe.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

42. Your final remark-----  
-----  
-----

**SECTION C: THIS SECTION IS FOR STUDENTS WHO ARE NOT CURRENTLY EMPLOYED BUT HAVE WORKED IN SWEDEN BEFORE.**

43. Which last employer did you work for? -----

44. What kind of employment did you have?

1. Formal
2. Informal

45. Specifically, what kind of work did you do? -----

46. How long did you work for your previous employer?

1. Less than one month
2. 1-3 months
3. 4-6 months
4. More than 6 months

47. How were you recruited?-----

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-----  
-----

48. Did you sign a contract?

1. Yes
2. No

49. Was your job relevant to your academic education?

1. Yes
2. No

50. On average, how many hours did you work in a week? -----

51. If you were paid per hour, how much Swedish Kronors (tax inclusive) were you paid per hour? -----

52. If you were paid per month, how much Swedish Kronors (tax inclusive) were you paid per month? -----

53. Why did you work (main reason) for your previous employer?

1. To earn extra income
2. To get work experience
3. To make new friends
4. To learn Swedish language
5. Others (Specify)-----



**PLEASE RATE ON THE SCALE PROVIDED THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS AS THEY PERTAIN TO YOUR PREVIOUS EMPLOYMENT**

54. How do you rate your previous job satisfaction?

1. Very Satisfied
2. Satisfied
3. Neutral
4. Dissatisfied
5. Very Dissatisfied

55. I enjoyed the work that I did.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

56. My work gave me feelings of accomplishment and pride.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

57. I was satisfied with my direct supervisor

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

58. I was given opportunity to utilize my skills

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

59. I feel that my previous job was secure.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

60. I was given adequate training to do my job well.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

61. My compensation was fair for the work that I did.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

62. Was there any form of discrimination in your organization?

1. Yes
2. No, skip to question 64

63. Which form(s) of discrimination in your organization had you experienced?

1. Racial discrimination
2. Age discrimination
3. Gender discrimination
4. All the above
5. Others (specify)

64. Have you ever heard about Trade Unions in Sweden?

3. Yes
4. No

65. Had you had any contact with any Trade Union in Sweden?

1. Yes
2. No

66. Were you a member of any Trade Union in Sweden when you were working?

1. Yes
2. No, skip to question 68

67. Which Trade Union (s)? -----  
----- (Fill and skip to question  
69)

68. Why not? -----  
-----  
-----  
-----

69. I had fair opportunities to air out my grievances at work without fear.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

70. My work environment was safe.

1. Always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

71. Why did you stop working?-----

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-----  
-----

72. Your final remark-----

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-----  
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**SECTION D: THIS SECTION IS FOR STUDENTS WHO ARE NOT CURRENTLY WORKING AND HAVE NOT WORKED IN SWEDEN BEFORE**

73. Are you interested in working?

1. Yes
2. No, skip to question 79

74. Are you searching for a job?

1. Yes
2. No, skip to question 78

75. Which sort of job are you searching for? -----

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-----

76. Where are searching for a job?-----

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-----  
-----  
-----

77. Why do you want to work?

1. To earn extra income
2. To get work experience
3. To make new friends
4. To learn Swedish language
5. Others (Specify)-----

78. why not?-----  
-----  
-----

79. Generally, what factors have prevented you from working?  
-----  
-----  
-----

80. Your final remark -----  
-----  
-----  
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***Thank you very much for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire!***