# RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF UNIVERSITY STUDENT VOLUNTEERS FOR SOUTH AFRICAN COMMUNITY PROJECTS

by

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Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PhD in the Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University
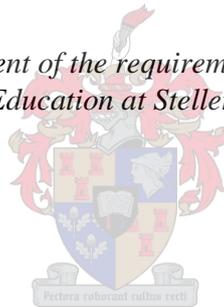
Promoter: Prof Ronelle Carolissen

December 2016

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: December 2016

ABSTRACT

This study suggests that student volunteerism at South African (SA) universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation that inculcates active citizenship, parallel to developing graduate attributes that promote employability. Six community projects across three Western Cape universities were examined as case studies in order to investigate student motives for volunteering, along with the organisational and institutional structures supporting student volunteerism within the South African context. A mixed methodology was employed with the main focus on qualitative methods. Quantitative data were collected with Likert scale items exploring the functional approach to volunteer motives among active volunteers (N = 70). Service learning students were viewed as student volunteers. However, the distinction between service learning and volunteer processes is highlighted. Project leaders (n = 14) were interviewed to gain insight into organisational structures and management styles. In some instances, focus groups (n = 3) were held with the leadership committee. Furthermore, key role players (n = 4) within each participating university were interviewed to investigate the university structures that facilitate student volunteerism. Data were triangulated.

This study found that students' reasons for volunteering were centred on the *value function, citizenship* and *understanding function*. In particular, students volunteer because they care about others, or they have a keen interest in the cause driven by the organisation (*value function*). Students also aim to help address social inequalities and express a sense of social responsibility (*citizenship*). Also, they volunteer because they want to learn about others and add depth and perspective to their knowledge (*understanding function*).

The findings also suggest that both institutional and organisational support are needed to sustain volunteer involvement. Support is both structural and developmental as it aims to mitigate constraints to sustained participation. A framework for effective recruitment and retention of university student volunteers was compiled. The MECS 4-cornerstone model is my contribution to literature and practice.

This study was conducted in response to the minimal research performed on the topic of recruitment and retention of student volunteers in South Africa. Also, the South African volunteer context is weighed down, among others, by challenges such as unemployment and poverty. The lack of funding within the non-governmental organisation (NGO) sector results in a need for more volunteers and the successful execution of programmes. Universities, in turn, have been noted as rich sources from which to recruit potential volunteers. However, research has indicated that youth volunteerism is declining. These factors also contribute to the significance of this research study.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie dui daarop dat studente-vrywilligerwerk by Suid-Afrikaanse (SA) universiteite gefasiliteer word deur 'n oriëntasie van sosiale geregtigheid wat aktiewe burgerskap bevorder, parallel aan die ontwikkeling van graduandi-eienskappe wat indiensneembaarheid bevorder. Ses gemeenskapsprojekte, versprei tussen drie Wes-Kaapse universiteite, is as gevallestudies geidentifiseer ten einde die motiverings vir studente-vrywilligewerk, asook die organisatoriese en institusionele strukture wat vrywilligerwerk binne die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks ondersteun, te ondersoek. 'n Gemengde metodologie is gebruik - oorwegend kwalitatief van aard. Kwantitatiewe data is met die hulp van 'n Likertskaal vraelys verkry wat die funksionele benadering tot aktiewe vrywilligers (N = 70) se motiverings ondersoek het. Diensleer-studente word vir die doel van hierdie studie ook as studente-vrywilligers beskou, alhoewel die onderskeid tussen diensleer en vrywilliger prosesse binne die studie uitgelig word. Onderhoude is ook gevoer met projekleiers (n = 14) om insig te verkry oor organisatoriese strukture en bestuurstyle. In sommige gevalle is fokusgroepe (n = 3) ook met die leierskapskomitee gehou. Onderhoude is ook met rolspelers (n = 4) binne elk van die deelnemende universiteite gevoer om ondersoek in te stel na die universiteitstrukture wat studente-vrywilligerwerk ondersteun. Kruisvalidasie was uitgevoer.

Hierdie studie het bevind dat studente se motiverings gebaseer is op die waarde funksie, burgerskap en die begrip funksie. Studente doen dus vrywilligewerk omdat hulle omgee vir ander, of belangstel in die projek wat deur die organisasie aangebied word (waarde funksie). Studente poog ook om sosiale ongelykhede aan te spreek en demonstreer sosiale verantwoordelikheid (burgerskap). Verder doen studente ook vrywilligerwerk omdat hulle graag meer oor ander wil leer en sodoende diepte en perspektief by hul bestaande kennis wil voeg (begrip funksie).

Die bevindinge dui ook daarop dat beide institusionele en organisastoriese ondersteuning nodig is om vrywilliger betrokkenheid te bevorder. Ondersteuning is beide struktureel en ontwikkelend en werk mee teen beperkende faktore. 'n Raamwerk vir die doeltreffende werwing en volgehoue deelname van universiteit-studentevrywilligers is saamgestel. Die MECS 4 hoeksteenmodel is my bydrae tot beide literatuur en praktyk.

Hierdie studie is uitgevoer in reaksie op die min bestaande navorsing oor die onderwerp van werwing en behoud van studentevrywilligers in Suid-Afrika. Die Suid-Afrikaanse vrywilligerskonteks ervaar uitdagings, soos werkloosheid en armoede, wat onder andere aangespreek word deur nie-regeringsorganisasies. Die gebrek aan befondsing binne die sektor veroorsaak 'n groot aanvraag na vrywilligers. Daar word tans aanspraak gemaak op universiteitstudente om die behoefte aan te spreek: tog, toon navorsing 'n afname in jeugvrywilligerwerk. Bogenoemde is ook die rede vir die belangrikheid van hierdie studie.

DEDICATION

I was ten years old when South Africa had her first democratic election in 1994. I barely comprehended what the commotion was all about. However, the end of Apartheid meant the advent of a democratic South Africa.

I dedicate my thesis to my late grandmother, Lillian Caroline Elizabeth Joseph, (June 1932 – August 2002). Together with my mother, Jolita Megan Joseph, these two women raised me to become the woman I am today. My grandmother was a politician affiliated to the Labour Party. She also spent many years serving on the local town council of Wellington. Above all, my grandmother was the one who taught me the skill of critical thinking and reflection. I remember her making me watch all three TV channels' news bulletins. Afterwards we would discuss what was different between the three bulletins and why.

I am honoured to be the granddaughter of a woman who helped rewrite the laws of our country and fought for the democracy I am enjoying today. Thanks to her courage, and those of many others, I am able to obtain a doctoral degree as a coloured woman from a university once only open to Afrikaans-speaking white students.

I salute her efforts together with all the others who provided us with a country with endless opportunities for all her people. I regard this thesis as the first step of taking over the baton from my grandmother in striving to develop a South Africa to be the country we all dream of.

In particular, I wish to add to the notion of active citizenship through my focus on volunteerism, hoping that it will stimulate innovative ideas among university students to respond to some of the current social dilemmas we are facing as a country.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I was surrounded by a large community of people who supported me. This degree is obtained with and for my community. I would never have started this process, let alone finish it, without the following people.

My supervisor, Ronelle Carolissen, thank you for inspiring and encouraging me to undertake this journey and for faithfully walking the road with me to the end.

My family, in particular my mother, for their tireless support. The fact that you believe in me to accomplish whatever I put my mind to might just be my strongest motivation to work hard and challenge my own set boundaries. Thank you!

My friends, thank you for keeping me accountable to steward my time correctly as well as all the late night reading sessions and sound-boarding.

The PGIO (Post Graduate and International Office), thank you for all the workshops presented. It was informative and made the process a little less lonely.

The Writing lab, thank you for assisting me in making the switch from Afrikaans to English as an academic language during the first few years of my PhD.

I would also like to thank Stellenbosch University for the Rector's Award and extending its support to the first year of my PhD. (I received the Rector's Award for achieving against all odds, financially, for my Master's degree.) Likewise, I want to thank the National Research Foundation (NRF) for their financial support during the third year of my PhD.

To all 88 participants of this study, without you this study would not have been possible. Thank you for your willingness to participate.

Above all, I would like to thank my Heavenly Father, for giving me the ability to complete this manuscript, for surrounding me with the right people to support me, and for all the many promises in the Word that encouraged me.

"Not one of all the Lord's good promises to Israel (Bianca) failed, everyone was fulfilled."

– Joshua 21:45

STATEMENT REGARDING NRF FUNDING

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CE – Community engagement

CI – Community interaction

FET - Further Education and Training

HE – Higher education

NGO - Non-governmental Organisation

NPO – Non-profit Organisation

PEEPS – Prevention, Empowerment, Ecological perspective, Psychological sense of belonging, Social justice (community psychology values)

RC – Residence Committee

SA – South Africa(n)

SDT- Self-determination theory

SPSS – Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

UN – United Nations

VFI – Volunteer Functions Inventory

VOSESA – Volunteer and Service Enquiry study of South Africa

Unemployment
& poverty

NGOs lack of
funds *for paid*
labour

Little   Research
conducted in SA

Community
Psychology

Citizenship

Functional
Motives

Social Justice

Higher
Education
Service
Learning

Graduate
Attributes

Community
Engagement

Recruitment
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Student
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Support
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Motives
Value function
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Employability

Yellow   Project
Focus case study

Constructivist
Paradigm
6 case studies
3 universities
Mixed –
Methodology
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Figure 0:1 Mind map of the thesis

Chapter 1

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

This study investigates student motives for volunteering along with the organisational and institutional structure supporting student volunteerism within the South African (SA) context. The research goal is to compile a framework for effective recruitment and retention of university student volunteers within South Africa; with the understanding that it may assist organisations to be more effective in their approach to volunteerism.

Three universities within the Western Cape participated in the study. Two community projects linked to each of the participating universities were selected as case studies. Consequently, the study consists of six case studies in total. Data gathered from case studies should not be generalised as it is context specific (Silverman, 2010). I therefore specifically set out to use multiple case studies. My aim is to compare different settings related to the phenomenon of student volunteerism in an attempt to highlight the similarities across the six case studies, as well as examine context specific behaviour and thought patterns. Moreover, information gathered in this study will be applicable (Patton, 2002) and transferable (Merriam, 2009) to other projects, considering that project managers are able to tailor their programmes to fit their own unique environments.

The research study is guided by a constructivist paradigm arguing that meaning is contextual and constructed within the histories and contexts in which it operates (Mertens, 1998; Nelso & Prilleltensky, 2010). Data were gathered through various methods, including questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, artefacts and a researcher diary. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, making this a mixed methodology study. Data triangulation was employed to link the quantitative and qualitative data obtained.

In addition to the above-mentioned study outline, the remainder of the first chapter intends to expand on the nature of this research study. I start by describing the background to the study, considering both global and local perspectives to volunteerism. This is followed by a short description of the research design and methodology. Also included in this chapter are sections that highlight the significance of the study; its independent contributions, contextual positioning as well as my basic assumptions as researcher. As an integral part of the entire research process, I also introduce myself as the researcher by elaborating upon my various personal encounters with student volunteerism. The disclosure of personal ties and encounters within the research phenomenon is discussed in the context of possible researcher bias and ethics. Other ethical considerations are also mentioned. The first

chapter concludes with definitions of key concepts, a brief overview of the other thesis chapters, and a chapter summary.

1.2   BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Volunteerism is a socially relevant topic to study on both global and local levels. In South Africa specifically, there is a great need for volunteers within the social development sector. Due to the country's political history and continuing demands for funding, many South African community projects would be non-operational without volunteers. Universities have a large group of potential volunteers at its disposal (Peter, 2005; Van den Berg, Cuskelly, & Auld, 2015) as it can be argued that students have the time and skills necessary to assist in community projects with no remuneration. Taking into account the different levels of interest in volunteerism, I decided to focus this section of the chapter from broad to narrow, starting with the global emphasis on volunteerism. Next, I briefly discuss volunteerism within the South African context. I end with deliberating the notion of service learning as part of student volunteerism.

1.2.1   A global volunteer focus

Volunteerism has been receiving increasing attention since the start of the 21st century, to the extent that the United Nations (UN) announced 2001 as the 'International Year of Volunteers'. In a similar vein, world leaders such as former South African president, Thabo Mbeki, followed the global emphasis on volunteerism by declaring 2002 as the 'Year of the Volunteer' in his State of the Nation address. In the same year, George W. Bush, former American president, established the 'President's Volunteer Service Award' to honour American volunteers. Current American president, Barack Obama, made a parallel national call on 21 April 2009, when he mobilised all Americans to volunteerism by signing the *Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act*. President Obama also employed the *Corporation for National and Community Service* to lead 'United We Serve' - an effort to encourage volunteerism throughout the year (2009).

In November 2009, the first democratic South African President, Nelson Mandela, was formally honoured by the UN General Assembly by way of declaring his birthday on 18 July as 'Nelson Mandela International Day'. The former president dedicated 67 years of his life as a freedom fighter; from 1942 until 1999 when he stepped down as the first elected black [1]president of South Africa.

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[1] The term black is not generically used in this thesis. In regard to Nelson Mandela being the first black president, the term black refers to all people not labelled as white. This concept has been brought forward by the Black Consciousness Movement. It had to its aim to oppose the racist population classification system from the Apartheid regime (Ramphele, 1995).

Since 2010, Nelson Mandela's legacy is being celebrated and upheld across the globe when millions of volunteers dedicate 67 minutes of their day on 18 July to volunteering.

Volunteerism has also been promoted and developed in China through legislation along with state leaders' statements and actions. By the end of 2010, the local volunteering law was implemented in 29 provinces and municipalities (Wei & Cui, 2011). The legislative principle of these laws aim to " … promote and standardise the development of volunteerism, spread volunteer knowledge and advocate volunteerism, promote socialist ethical and cultural progress, promote the building of a harmonious society, maintain the benefits and interests of volunteers and voluntary associations … " (Wei & Cui, 2011, p. 20).

The global emphasis on volunteering continued as the tenth anniversary of the UN's 'International Year of the Volunteer' was formally celebrated in 2011. The State of the World's Volunteerism Report resulted as an outcome of the celebrations. The purpose of the report was to encourage global discussion about volunteering. Added to the UN celebrations, the European Commission decided to declare 2011 as the 'European Year of Volunteering'.

Ban Ki Moon, UN Secretary General, highlighted the reason for the prominence of volunteering by pointing to the "… insufficient levels of government and private sector resources available in accessing vulnerable communities" (cited in Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011, p. 5). The United Nations Volunteers (2011) extend this notion as it highlights the fact that volunteerism is not merely a way to obtain low cost labour, but a means in itself to promote peace and development. It becomes evident that volunteerism has become an invaluable resource to development.

In January 2014, India had its first National Volunteering Week (Chapia, 2014). In May of the same year, Australia celebrated the 25th anniversary of its National Volunteering Week. The Australian Communities Minister, Tracy Davis, highlighted the 25th anniversary as an opportunity to explore the contribution of volunteers in the country (Queensland Newsletter, 2014), once again highlighting the phenomenon of volunteerism in Australia.[2]

It is clear from the above-mentioned acts of international leaders throughout the past decade and beyond that the topic of volunteerism has been treated in high regard. Various global organisations are aware of the benefits of volunteering on different facets of life and, ultimately, the building of a healthy and productive society. Research in the area of volunteerism is of the utmost importance.

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[2] The textbox used throughout this thesis, aims to focus the reader's attention on the main ideas discussed in that particular section as well as to help transition the reader's focus to the next section.

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1.2.2   A South African volunteer focus

South Africa has a rich non-governmental organisational (NGO) culture. Various community projects operate under the auspices of an NGO, which means that the organisation is not funded by the government. During the Apartheid government's rule, many NGOs were well-funded by foreign funders, as part of their contribution to the struggle towards freedom (Carolissen, 2012). However, most of the funds received by NGOs were redirected to the new democratic government with the belief that the new government would build a better South Africa for all her people (Carolissen, 2012). Consequently, most community projects cannot exist without volunteers due to minimal funding. Volunteers are therefore the driving force of countless projects in South Africa, hence the importance of recruiting and retaining these volunteers (Van Vianen, Nijstad, & Voskuijl, 2008).

The importance of volunteerism is not only situated in the lack of funds for paid labour, but is more deeply rooted in the values it promotes. These values include those that further citizenship, solidarity, social interdependence, mutual trust, empowerment and a sense of belonging; also values that promote development, and contribute to the well-being of individuals and communities (United Nations Volunteers, 2011).

Added to the need for volunteers owing to minimal funding and the social values that volunteerism promotes, one has to consider South Africa's unique social challenges to best understand the significance and struggles surrounding volunteerism in the country. South Africa faces many social issues such as poverty, teenage pregnancy and HIV/AIDS. Several community based projects contribute to intervening in the effects of these psychosocial issues. Therefore, it can be argued that the process of rebuilding South Arica in a post-apartheid era calls for more community projects and subsequently more volunteers.

Related to the above-mentioned social dilemmas is the high unemployment rate. South Africa has an unemployment rate of 25.2% (StatsSA, 2014). More than a quarter of the country does not have a paying job (StatsSA, 2014) and more than half (52.3%) of South Africans earn under R577 ($38, US)[3] per month (StatsSA, 2012). These high poverty and unemployment rates are linked to other social issues. These issues do not only increase the need for more community projects and consequently more volunteers as already mentioned, but also add to the challenges surrounding a vibrant volunteer culture. Volunteerism within developing countries becomes a real catch 22 situation. As a result of all the social dilemmas within these countries, there is a need for community projects and volunteers, but considering the high unemployment rate there is also the need for paid

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[3] On 12 May 2016, $1 was equal to R15.13. Retrieved from http://www.x-rates.com/table/?from=ZAR&amount=1

jobs. However, one should also consider that volunteerism provides a platform for the volunteer to gain experience as well as learn new skills, thereby increasing the volunteer's employability status. It also encourages a caring culture. Promoting a culture of volunteerism is indispensable to any community and country, even in the face of high unemployment rates.

Despite the increasing attention being paid to volunteerism, few studies have focused on the recruitment and retention of volunteers and relatively little has been documented on student volunteerism (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2010). Moreover, most research on volunteerism was conducted in the global north (America and Europe), with limited studies focusing on volunteerism in the global south (Perold, Stroud, & Sherraden, 2003) and South Africa, in particular (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008; Van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Against this background, this study is important because South Africa could benefit from a recruitment and retention strategy that is culturally and context specific.

Of the few research studies that have been completed on the topic of volunteerism in South Africa, Perold, Carapinha and Mohamed (2006) made a noteworthy contribution. Their work, cited in *Volunteer and Service Enquiry study of South Africa*, (VOSESA[4]) describes volunteerism as " … the willingness of the individual to use his/her time and effort without any expectation of payment" (Perold et al., 2006, p. 41). Perold et al. (2006) also mentioned that culture and religion (Berger, 2006; Johnson, 2013) play a deciding role in fostering a vibrant volunteer environment in South Africa. There is also an understanding among individuals who want to help with nation-building efforts. This expression of social responsibility and active citizenship has later also been noted in other South African studies (Patel, 2007; Van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Volunteering during the Apartheid era was primarily aimed at the national goal of democracy, as many volunteering organisations were politically motivated. This served as a critical foundation in volunteer motives to build toward the country's democratic goals (Perold et al., 2006). Patel (2007) found no real variation in volunteer motives across five southern African countries namely Botswana, Malawi, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. These included cultural and religious motives, community and societal benefits, and employability among the youth. Noteworthy in this study was the strong motivation of citizenship, specifically among South African volunteers (Patel, 2007).

Additionally, Van den Berg and Cuskelly (2014) discovered that South African sport student volunteers' motives were encouraged by care (wanting to help others), being career focused (gaining work related experience), personal growth (learning and developing new skills), and a form of social

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[4] VOSESA (2003-2013) a non-profit research organisation based in Johannesburg, South Africa. During the organisation's ten-year existence, it conducted sixteen volunteer and civic service related studies within southern Africa (http://www.vosesa.org.za/about_vosesa.php retrieved on 17 April 2016)

responsibility (giving back to the community). Understanding these motives and the context that lays the foundation for such motives can help organisations to strategically recruit and retain volunteers (Chacón, Vecina, & Dάvila, 2007). Patel (2007) concluded that addressing volunteerism and civic involvement with a developmental agenda that contributes to social and economic development will encourage volunteer motives of expressing citizenship, and in return address both recruitment and retention.

In the light of South Africa's high unemployment and poverty rates, and in the context of the need to recruit more volunteers for community projects, it is important to consider the human resources existing at universities. Volunteerism needs to be formally explored within this context. Research on this topic will hopefully help to better recruit and retain this much needed human resource. University students, as potential volunteers, are also highly skilled and by volunteering they will enhance their own skills and gain experience, adding to their employability. Investigating the recruitment and retention of student volunteers for South African community projects is thus essential in more than one way.

1.2.3   University student volunteers

South Africa has 26 official universities, excluding Further Education and Training (FET) colleges. Many universities have service learning programmes that require students to work in communities as part of their coursework (Maran, Soro, Biancetti, & Zanotta, 2009). Service learning at higher education (HE) institutions is a combination of community service and academic learning content (Roos et al., 2005).

Service learning students are not viewed as volunteers by some scholars because their community work is a compulsory component of their studies (Wilson, 2000), whereas others contribute their efforts to volunteering due to the fact that they provide services without any remuneration (Le Roux & Mitchell, 2008). Nevertheless, service learning programmes provide capacity in communities for a short period of time and give students the opportunity to be exposed to volunteering work, while learning in their respective disciplines (Maran et al., 2009). While not formally viewed as volunteers by some, it can be argued that the values associated with volunteering, such as care, citizenship and social responsibility, are still fostered during such initiatives. Although service learning students offer their time and skills on a compulsory basis, the organisation still benefits from a student who provides knowledge and skill without remuneration, which implies that those students are regarded as volunteers by the community. Ideally, community projects would want to retain student volunteers after the period assigned for their study purposes. It is therefore important to understand how

community projects can successfully recruit and retain students as volunteers during and beyond their service learning programmes. The compulsory component of service learning may, however, have an impact on service learning students' motives for engaging in community work. For some, the reason for being involved in community work might solely be to complete the requirements stipulated for the successful completion of their academic course. Moreover, research has shown that the way community work is contextualised, (being able to choose your own community activity) within a service learning course, has an impact on students' motivations to participate (Dienhart et al., 2016).

Student volunteers, in the context of this study, will include service learning students as well as students who volunteer outside of an academic programme. Service learning students in this study are students who chose their own community activity and thus forms part of a larger group of student volunteers within that particular volunteer organisation. A student volunteer will thus be defined as a university student who engages in activities that benefit another person, group, or organisation and who receives no substantial financial reward for their participation.

1.3   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study can be viewed as an exploratory, mixed (Creswell, 2009), multi-level (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), multi-instrumental case study design. A mixed methodology approach is used to provide a more thorough analysis of the phenomenon studied (Creswell, 2009). The study is mostly qualitative in nature and multi-method in focus. Data were triangulated, thus providing for richer insights into the area of student volunteerism.

1.3.1   Description of the research problem

The core challenges facing volunteerism within South Africa were mentioned in section 1.2.2. Adding to these challenges is the fact that little research on the topic of volunteerism has been performed within a South African context (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008; Van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Hence, research specific to this country is essential considering that previous research has shown differences in student volunteer motives across countries (Grönlund et al., 2011). Few studies have been conducted involving adolescents and young adult volunteers (Marta & Pozzi, 2008) of which students form a part. In particular, specific focus was placed on the recruitment and retention of university student volunteers, hence the potential pool of volunteers within universities (Peter, 2005; Van den Berg et al., 2015) and the reports that youth volunteerism is decreasing (Van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014).

It would be of great benefit to understand the reasons why people volunteer; the kind of people who would join such activities; how to deliver on volunteer expectations; and how best to support

volunteers in efforts to recruit and retain them. However, in order to have a comprehensive understanding of volunteerism one needs to consider dispositional along with situational and structural variables (Penner, 2004). Student volunteers operate within the structures of their respective universities and volunteer organisations. Understanding these structures will add insight to best accommodate student volunteers. Little research has been conducted on the contextual effects on volunteering and the impact of organisational structures (Greenslade & White, 2005; Wilson, 2000). However, it is important to note that this study does not directly research the contextual effects. Nevertheless, it does acknowledge the impact of the various institutional and organisational structures, and the environment of each case, and has therefore considered the impact of contextual structures in the discussion of the data collected. Moreover, having a well-researched framework for the recruitment and retention of volunteers will help organisations to be more effective in their volunteer programmes.

1.3.2   Research question

The research question aimed to provide guidance in terms of the execution of the research and to help focus the study. The research question within this study incorporated two secondary questions:

    i.   Why do students volunteer?

    ii.   What support do students need to enhance their sustained participation in volunteer programmes?

These questions ultimately led to answering the primary research question:

What facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities?

1.3.3   Research aims

The study aims to explore university students' reasons for volunteering and the organisational as well as institutional factors that support their volunteer activities.

1.3.4   Research objectives

Students' reasons for volunteering were explored by means of a questionnaire. Students who were volunteering for selected projects - affiliated to three universities in the Western Cape region of South Africa - were approached to complete the questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed and collected with the guidance of the project leaders. The projects served as case studies in order to explore the organisational factors that support the students' volunteer activities. A maximum of two case studies per university were examined. Project leaders were interviewed to gain insight into organisational structures and management styles. Furthermore, key role players within each

participating university were interviewed to investigate the university structure that facilitates student volunteerism at that specific university**.**

1.3.5   Scope and limitations of the research

Only universities in the Western Cape were considered as participants for logistical reasons, since I am based in the Western Cape. Although there are four official universities in this province, I decided not to include all four universities in this study. I had to consider the feasibility of the thesis in terms of time and resources (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Adding the fourth Western Cape University or universities from other provinces would have brought about financial, time and traveling challenges.

Two community projects associated with the participating universities were included in the study as case studies. Project leaders were interviewed and where there was more than one leader, a focus group was conducted. Students who were enrolled at the participating universities and volunteered within the selected community projects were handed questionnaires. Relevant personnel from the respective universities were interviewed in order to investigate and report on the university factors that facilitate student volunteer activities.

1.3.6   Data collection

Data were collected through various methods, including questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, artefacts and a researcher diary.

1.3.6.1   Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to collect data directly from university volunteers within the various selected projects. I developed the questionnaire used in this study. The self-constructed questionnaire consists of three parts: the first part covers the demographic information of the participants, whereas the second part consists of close-ended Likert scale questions. The Likert scale section of the questionnaire reflects the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) by Clary et al. (1998). The VFI translation was borrowed from Greenslade and White (2005). The inclusion of the closed Likert scale questions represents the quantitative element to the study. The third part of the questionnaire encompasses open-ended questions, used to explore the same inquiries as the Likert scale along with additional dimensions. Data from both sections two and three were triangulated for richer insight.

1.3.6.2   Interviews

The case study approach incorporated the interview method. Semi structured interviews were conducted with various leaders within the participating projects, along with key role players from

each institution. All interviews were recorded using a digital recorder and transcribed from audio to a written document.

1.3.6.3   Focus groups

Focus groups were conducted with project committee leaders within the case studies. I consider the focus group method most appropriate to use within this setting. Doing a focus group with the committee leaders is time-efficient and cost-effective compared to interviewing each leader separately (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2009).

1.3.6.4   Artefacts

Data were gathered from what is known as mute evidence (Hodder, 1994). Unlike the methods previously mentioned, here the relationship with the object being studied is one of interpretation only. These written texts cannot converse but provide insight to the history, culture and structures of the participating projects (Hodder, 1994). The predominant artefact used in the study is project reports.

1.3.6.5   Research diary

I kept a research diary to help me tie the process together. Moving from one university and project site to the other provided opportunities to reflect upon differences and similarities. Research diaries are called for where the researcher's perspective on his/her observations is a variable in the research (Holly & Altrichter, 2011).

1.3.7   Data analysis

Data analysis was executed in two steps:

1. Within-case analysis: a brief description of each case and themes within the case
2. Cross-case analysis: within all the cases involved (Creswell, 2007)

Data gathered from the survey questionnaire were analysed using Version 12 of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). However, section one used a descriptive analysis, section two a multiple linear regression (chi-square) analysis, and section three a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis was also used to interpret the data gathered from the interviews with project leaders and university representatives. This is a technique used to analyse and describe a written text in terms of the major themes arising from the text (Miller & Brewer, 2003; Neuman, 2000). Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. In analysing the data, instances of agreement and disagreement were identified (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

1.4   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Exploring factors that influence the recruitment and retention of volunteers may be valuable in order to develop guidelines for effective and evidence-based recruitment and retention strategies. The research and findings may contribute to community based projects that use volunteer programmes to manage projects in time and cost-efficient ways. The findings may help organisations to focus their programmes rather than attempt volunteer recruitment and retention strategies that have not been researched.

1.5   INDEPENDENT CONTRIBUTION

This study will contribute to the knowledge of volunteering among university students, since no other formal studies on this topic that I am aware of have yet been conducted in South Africa. The findings will be helpful for community projects that rely on volunteers. Findings will also add to an understanding of one of the mechanisms in the HE context that has the potential to contribute to fostering citizenship and enhancing graduate attributes among university students. South African universities will benefit from the research in terms of helping to build a stronger volunteer division, as well as enrich service learning programmes.

1.6   CONTEXTUAL POSITIONING OF THE RESEARCH

I consider it of importance to inform the reader of the context of the study from its onset. Above all, it will allow the reader to better interpret and understand the research from its academic, philosophical and geographical stances.

Firstly, it should be noted that the research is conducted within the framework of community psychology. As mentioned by Carolissen (2012, p.156), "Community Psychology is 'both a sub-discipline and a paradigm in psychology' ". Hence, it is crucial to include in this thesis an overview of community psychology. Moreover, the values of community psychology and how the study is embedded in this field will be discussed in depth in section 2.2.

Secondly, from a philosophical stance, the research is positioned within a constructivist paradigm. This belief system argues that reality is based on people's experiences, is fluid and changes over time. The researcher and participants are also interrelated and thus share in the knowledge construction process. The constructivist paradigm is discussed in detail in section 4.2.

Lastly, from a geographical orientation it should be noted that each of the participating universities in this study has a unique past due to South Africa's history of Apartheid. Within the Apartheid regime one of the universities was a white Afrikaans university, while another was categorised as a liberal white English university, and the third as a historically black English university. Each university is

very different in terms of structure, culture, history and resources. Taking these factors into consideration, this research does not set out to compare the universities per se, but rather to explore the phenomenon of student volunteerism within the different contexts of these South African universities.

1.7   ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions were made during the proposal stage of the research. Firstly, I anticipated that access to some of the universities and projects would be challenging due to the difference in volunteer structures, unique volunteer cultures and available resources. This proved to be the case. Apartheid and its economic divisions along with the Bantu education[5] system still contribute heavily to the differences in resources and support structures available for student volunteerism (Msila, 2007).

Secondly, due to the wide scope of the research, I anticipated obstacles surrounding the timeliness of the research. It took me six years to complete this thesis. Nevertheless, the obstacles that I faced were beyond merely the scope of the research. I found that the case study approach was time-consuming and multi-layered. Cooperation from the participants was vital for the completion of the research.

Upon reflection, I realised that the time given by me as the researcher and the participants was not always equal to the rewards of the research project. I will obtain a degree while the participants remain unrewarded. I therefore committed to consult with each of the participating projects using the data from the research to formulate a recruitment and retention strategy specific to each project. However, as the research progressed, I discovered that the research process in itself acted as an intervention. Project leaders and volunteers were made aware of the benefits of discussing specific recruitment and retention strategies. Consequently, new and fresh ideas emerged from the interviews and focus groups.

1.8   THE RESEARCHER

The researcher is a subjective, central part of the full research process; from its onset through to the planning, data collection and data analysis procedure. The researcher can be regarded as the primary data generating instrument as his/her background, beliefs and assumptions play a pivotal role in the entire approach to the study. For this reason, it is important for the researcher to disclose any possible bias, personal beliefs, values or assumptions that might have an influence on the research. Therefore, it is the obligation of the researcher to establish counter approaches to any possible researcher bias.

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[5] An education system implemented by the Apartheid government aimed at limiting the development of black South Africans (Kallaway, 1988).

These approaches mainly include the research diary, critical self-reflection as well as process reflection, and by making assumptions explicit. Additionally, having dialogue with professional colleagues, verifying the data with the participants by means of member checking, and asking for second opinions to inferences made during the analysis process may also assist in countering researcher bias. Above all, I decided to disclose my personal history and engagement with the topic of student volunteerism to show how my research topic links to my interest and background.

My journey as a student volunteer commenced in 2002, when I embarked on a four-year B. Psych degree at Stellenbosch University (SU). Within those years I had various service opportunities in the form of service learning. During my first and second years (2002 and 2003) the service learning was mostly linked to my social work modules, whereas in my fourth year (2005), my service learning was framed as part of the entire B. Psych programme.

I joined the Every Nation church in my first year of university (2002) and became actively involved in its community outreaches. I was mostly involved in holiday programmes such as the Academic Winter Schools (June holidays, 2004 to 2007), and Summer Outreaches (December holidays). The Academic Winter School outreaches involved a group of university students (about 50 per school) providing additional academic assistance to grade 11 and 12 learners in preparation for their final examinations. Three to four of these programmes would be operating simultaneously in different communities. The Summer School Outreaches could be likened to that of a holiday club presenting psychoeducational programmes. Both outreaches required students to live in the community for about two weeks. During this time we stayed in the school hall or classrooms. These outreaches generally consisted of a diverse group of students entering a previously disadvantaged community. For some of the students these outreaches provided the opportunity to engage, for the first time, with communities from different racial, cultural and economic backgrounds than their own.

As a student volunteer, I was involved in five Winter Schools (2004 to 2008) and one Summer Outreach (2009). I also joined five international outreaches of which three occurred during the September holidays (Namibia, 2005 to 2007) and two over the December holidays (Zambia, 2004 and 2009).

From 2010 to 2012, I was appointed as the Missions Director at the Every Nations church. It was therefore my responsibility to coordinate all the local and international outreaches. My involvement changed from being a student volunteer to that of the managing director. During my time as missions' director, I coordinated approximately twenty Winter Schools and Summer Outreaches combined.

In addition to the Winter Schools and Summer Outreaches, I also undertook volunteer trips to Mozambique (2010 and 2012) and Lesotho (2010 and 2011) where I similarly managed student

volunteers. However, this was a completely different experience as we joined other groups from other churches: I was largely only responsible for managing the student volunteers from my church. Yet within the larger group, I too became a volunteer, due to the appointment of a new combined leadership. The experience taught me how to juggle between two conflicting roles of being a volunteer and a group leader at the same time.

During 2012, I joined two volunteer groups respectively: volunteering at a prison and informal settlement in Lima, Peru. I was the only person from South Africa except for my friend who had been in Peru for two years already. For the first time I was an international volunteer who was estranged to the culture, language and customs of the other volunteers as well as the community we served.

Most of the above-mentioned volunteer experiences within the church setting were completed over a set period of time. However, in 2010 I was part of a service group at the church which entailed volunteering for the entire year on a weekly basis at a local school. We were part of an afterschool project where we presented different psychoeducational programmes every Thursday.

Apart from the volunteer experience gained from being actively involved in my church and my service learning modules, I also engaged in non-curricular volunteer opportunities at Stellenbosch University. I served as coordinator of the psychology clinic (Stellenbosch students) on the Phelophepa train in Piketberg (2007), as well as joining the psychology clinic in Botrivier in that same year. The Phelophepa train is a healthcare train providing psychology, dentistry, optometry and other healthcare services to rural communities at minimal cost.

At the onset of my Master's degree (2006), I conceptualised and co-founded a community project called Watergarden together with two other B. Psych graduates. I managed this project from 2006 to 2008. The initiative arose from my fourth academic years' service learning experience. Watergarden was an afterschool project in a nearby community. We ran about five different programmes, three times a week, for children aged four to eighteen. The project served about 300 children and engaged 100 active committed student volunteers. Here, I learned and formed many ideas about the phenomenon of student volunteerism as I was mainly responsible for ensuring that the project ran effectively, recruiting and retaining volunteers and keeping recruits committed.

When I was asked to coordinate the Stellenbosch Heritage Festival Mass Choir in 2012, I immediately planned to involve student volunteers. The Stellenbosch Heritage Festival marked the first Schools Mass Choir that consisted of both primary and high schools, across class and racial divides, in Stellenbosch. The budget for the project was limited and I was given a short time frame to organise everything. I needed skilled hands to assist me in effectively executing this project. Consequently, I approached the music department of the University where I listed the event as a possible site for music

students to implement their service learning component. I also approached the marketing, sociology and education departments. Soon, I was surrounded by a group of students eager to learn new skills and keen to be part of a historic event.

This experience with student volunteers was however different from my other experiences as project leader or managing director. At the start, I was so preoccupied with the success of the event that I neglected to facilitate the process of students becoming more deeply aware of social justice as well as the process of unifying a community divided by race and class. The level of excellence and commitment by the volunteers was not on par with what I was acquainted with. I realised that the primary reason I involved student volunteers was to ensure low cost labour and to spread the workload. It was interesting to note the positive change in commitment and excellence in the volunteers' work after I realigned myself to a greater goal of social justice and community unity, as opposed to merely ensuring the delivery of a great musical performance. The impact of leadership and management within a volunteering programme was highlighted through this experience.

Service learning volunteer	Volunteer/ Volunteer leader	Volunteer	Project manager	Volunteer	Staff/ volunteer coordinator	Employee volunteer coordinator
2002-2005	2007	2004-2009	2006-2008	2010	2010-2012	2012
B.Psych degree	Phelophepa train	Winter & Summer Schools	Watergarden	Aftercare	Mission director	Mass choir coordinator
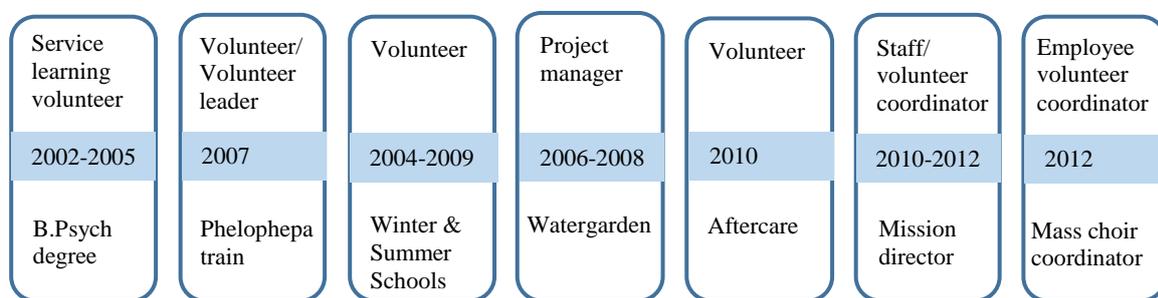
Figure 1:1Researcher's volunteer journey

I have been involved in student volunteerism for more than a decade. I am fortunate to have such a wide variety of experiences ranging from working in a church structure as both a volunteer and a managing director to being part of service learning activities and student-initiated, volunteer driven projects. Through these experiences I have come to understand the perspectives of student volunteers as well as volunteer management. I also had the privilege of witnessing and experiencing various theories about volunteerism implemented in practice. The process of reflection over the years has culminated in me becoming someone who is passionate about the growth and learning processes of students along with seeing the enhancement of social justice in my immediate surroundings. Additionally, throughout my years at university I was afforded various opportunities to share my knowledge and experience on different platforms. I have not yet published any journal articles on the topic of student volunteerism, but I have shared my experiences at several conferences and symposiums held within academic contexts (Appendix 5). My work was well received and I believe that it can be accredited to the balanced perspective that I bring on both theory and practice.

1.9   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics are concerned with what is honourable and moral within research (Singleton, Straits, & Straits, 1993) in order to cause no harm of any sort and to protect those involved (Piper & Simons, 2011).

Universities generally place high value on ethics within research. The current research project had to meet ethical approval by Stellenbosch University's Ethics Committee for Human and Social Sciences (Appendix 1). Data collection did not commence until ethical clearance was obtained.

The following ethical considerations were taken into account:

  i.   Informed consent: All participants completed a written informed consent form (Appendix 3).
 ii.   Confidentiality: No names were placed on questionnaires and pseudonyms were used for all participants and participating projects, ensuring both confidentiality and anonymity.
iii.   Pre-publication access: Participants were promised pre-publication access to publications in order to insure confidentiality and correct representation. Note that this does not include all participants, but only the organisational leaders.

1.10   DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Concepts may have different meanings to different people in varying contexts. For that reason, a list of key concepts used in this thesis are provided in order to prevent any misunderstanding. Various other important concepts are defined throughout the manuscript.

1.10.1   Student volunteer

A student volunteer is a university student who engages in activities that benefits another person, group or organisation and that offers no substantial financial reward (adapted from Wilson, 2000).

1.10.2   Service learning

Service learning in HE refers to a programme where community service is tied to academic coursework through which a participating student can obtain academic credit (adapted from Roos et al., 2005; Maran et al., 2009).

1.10.3   Citizenship

Citizenship refers to a person's ability to move beyond his/her individual self-interest and be committed to the well-being of others, including the larger civic society and country as a whole (adapted from Sherrod, Flanagan, & Youniss, 2002, p. 265).

1.10.4   South African community projects

This concept refers to projects that serve a specific community within South Africa with the purpose of challenging social injustices or advancing human development and well-being.

1.10.5   Community engagement

Community engagement (CE) refers to the reciprocal interaction between universities and their larger communities (Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011) where knowledge and resources are exchanged (Driscoll, 2009). Activities include student volunteerism and service learning, among others.

1.10.6   Students

The term students will be used within this study in reference to university students. Whenever reference is being made to school-going pupils, the term *learners* will be used.

1.10.7   Recruitment

Recruitment is the process of searching for suitable prospective volunteers and attracting and encouraging them to join a volunteer project.

1.10.8   Retention

Retention refers to the ability to keep volunteers committed to the community project and consequently renew their contract, thus remaining in the project over an extensive period.

1.11   BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS CHAPTERS

Chapter one aims to provide the reader with a map of the research. It includes the motivation, aims, design and methodology of the research. Chapter two sets the stage for the literature review by unpacking the relevant theoretical approaches guiding the research study. Chapter three presents an overview of the existing literature in the field of volunteerism. The methodology is discussed in chapter four, while chapter five reports on the findings of the study. The findings of the research are discussed in chapter six and chapter seven constitutes the conclusion, including a framework for future recruitment and retention of student volunteers as based on the findings of the study.

1.12   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter one provided the reader with an overview of the entire research thesis. The background of the study presented the context to the development of the research question. It explained what the study is about (its aims), what the study aims to achieve (its purpose), how the study was conducted (research design and methodology), who the study included (scope and participants), as well as why

the study was chosen in the first place and its significance (problem statement). The golden thread that ties all the above together is the primary research question: What facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities? More specifically, the following questions guide the study.

1) Why do students volunteer?
2) What support does students need to enhance their sustained participation in volunteer programmes?

The first chapter included background to support the research question and descriptions of terminology used throughout. The next chapter sets out to provide a theoretical foundation for the study, drawing on theories of social justice within community psychology, and citizenship.

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL APPROACHES

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes and analyses the various theoretical approaches employed to investigate student motives for volunteering along with the organisational and institutional structures that support student volunteerism within the South African (SA) context.

The first orientation underlying this study is community psychology. A number of key values or ethical standings namely prevention, empowerment, ecological perspective, psychological sense of community and social justice are central to this sub discipline in Psychology. These values will be discussed briefly in order to illustrate how community psychology guides the research in its orientation. In particular, emphasis is placed on the value and concept of social justice with a focus on the Social Justice for Community Engagement Model. A social justice approach to volunteerism is noteworthy considering South Africa's unique history. Of late, higher education (HE) institutions have added to its aims the establishment of graduate attributes of which active citizenship is a central theme. Active citizenship also resonates with the notion of a social justice volunteer framework. For this reason, an explanation of citizenship as an overarching approach to volunteerism is presented. I conclude this section with a brief overview of each of the six functions of the functional approach to volunteer motives. Due to its long-standing credibility the functional approach is employed in this study's inquiry process. Hence, this motivation approach is highlighted and included in this section. It is important to note that the individual approaches - community psychology, social justice, and citizenship - even though discussed separately, should be regarded as one unified theoretical approach. Social justice is a core value of community psychology, aimed at bringing about societal change. Social justice is also the element within volunteerism that distinguishes social change volunteerism from that of charity, and thus links it to active citizenship.
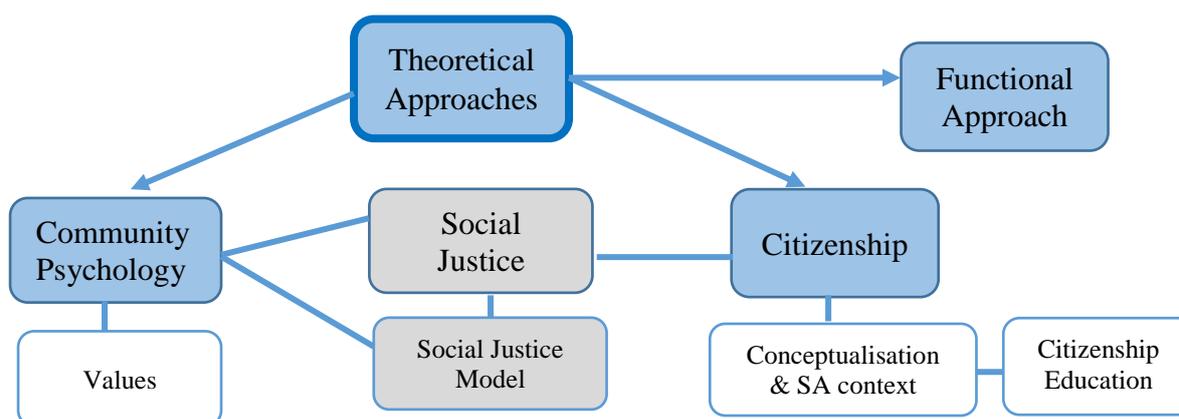
Figure 2:1 Chapter two layout

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2.2.   COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

Community psychology is an appropriate disciplinary space in which to explore the complex social construct of volunteerism, as well as the practices inherent in this phenomenon. The values of community psychology and its influence on how this study has been conducted is therefore described.

There is not one single definition for community psychology, owing to its multidisciplinary and diverse approaches (Duffy & Wong, 2002; Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Seedat, Duncan, & Lazarus, 2001). Although the definition of community psychology continues to evolve (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2005; Rudkin, 2003), some scholars have attempted to define this field of psychology. Kagan, Burton, Duckett, Lawthom, & Siddiquee (2011) described community psychology as "the applied psychology of working with communities, both whole communities and sections of communities, and with people in the context of their community" (p. 19). The university student population can be viewed as a community and the student volunteer population as a section of this community. Hence, this study is aimed at investigating the implied psychological constructs of motivation and support of students within a volunteer context.

Rudkin (2003) mentions five guiding principles in an attempt to explain community psychology: values; social structures; diversity (culture relevance and ecological perspective); social change; and people's strengths (empowerment and prevention). In agreement with Rudkin (2003), I argue that community psychology is best construed through its principles or values, since the values play a defining (Naidoo, Shabalala, & Bawa, 2002) and guiding role (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2005; Prilleltensky, 2001) in the sub discipline.

PEEPS (*P*revention, *E*mpowerment, *E*cological perspective, *P*sychological sense of community and *S*ocial justice) represent some of the core values of community psychology guiding this research process. I developed the acronym as a way to remember that community psychology is focused on the well-being of people within the context of their community (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001). *Peeps* is a slang word used by South African youth and others across the globe to refer to friends or people with whom they have some sort of a connection. It thus symbolises to me the relational nature of community psychology. Each of these values is described briefly before specific focus is placed on social justice.
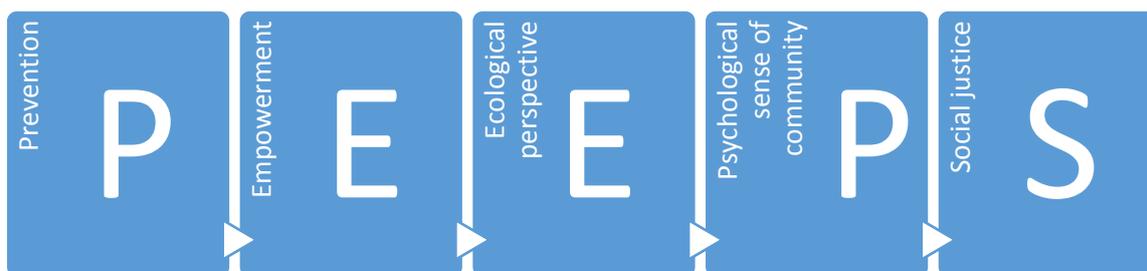
Figure 2:2 Values of community psychology

Community psychology is primarily focused on **prevention**, in other words the aim is to be proactive rather than reactive, or focus on treatment only (Lewis, Lewis, Daniels, & D'Andrea, 2003; Naidoo et al., 2002). Most NGO's would prefer to have more volunteers. Part of my reason for undertaking this study was to help prevent community projects from having too few volunteers; a situation that may lead to the termination of the project. The research goal was thus to develop a framework for effective recruitment and retention of university student volunteers within South Africa.

The value of **empowerment** is fundamental to community psychology's quest of pursuing social change. "Change is effective if it is owned by those affected by it" (Kagan et al., 2011, p. 281). Empowerment is a multilevel construct (Duffy & Wong, 2002) that affects individuals and communities. The interviews and focus groups conducted in this study provided participants with the opportunity to reflect on current processes in their respective organisations. The space of reflection also created a platform to generate new ideas and possible solutions to challenges they might have faced. Every data collection encounter became an opportunity for empowerment as participants were able to get insight into their organisations' potential, through dialogue with others in the focus groups, as well as with the researcher.

Although community psychology is primarily concerned with the welfare of people, it embraces an **ecological perspective**. This perspective acknowledges that different levels of society play a role in human behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The ecological perspective value of community psychology focuses on the impact of systems (Kagan et al., 2011; Prilleltensky & Nelson, 1997; Scileppi, Teed, & Torres, 2000) to change and explain behaviour (Seedat, MacKenzie, & Stevens, 2004), in contrast to traditional psychology, which solely focuses on a-contextual and a-historical individualistic approach (Lewis et al., 2003; Naidoo et al., 2002). The case study method employed in this study allows me to explore systems such as organisational and institutional volunteer structures, which has a direct influence on the individual student's decision to volunteer and to continue to volunteer. The study thus also investigates the role of the environment on human behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Lewin, 1952).

A **psychological sense of community** is promoted by creating a feeling of belonging amongst community members (Duffy & Wong, 2002). This feeling of belonging is stimulated by participation and empowerment of community members, which would hopefully lead to them taking ownership of their own community. Moreover, a psychological sense of community has shown to be a strong motive for volunteering (Omoto & Packard, 2016; Omoto & Snyder, 2002). Mental health is defined as

> …a state of well-being in which the individual realises his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community (WHO, 2001, p. 1).

In order to contribute to a community, one needs to belong to a community. Firstly, volunteering provides the space for many to become part of a community, as it enhances social capital (Wilson & Musick, 1997) through bonding with those similar to yourself, as well as in bridging interaction with those different than yourself. Secondly, volunteering provides the space where one can contribute to your community. A psychological sense of community is important for one's well-being. In hindsight, this study created an unintended space for organisations to be part of a bigger volunteer community, as knowledge and experiences within the volunteer context were shared. Volunteers and project managers were empowered by asking relevant questions, which led to ideas that were new for specific organisations.

Within South Africa, community psychology developed in response to the need for social change (Seedat & Lazarus, 2011). It embraced the challenges of the country and set out to be relevant in addressing the inequalities and history of Apartheid, as well as building towards reconciliation and **social justice** (Kagan et al., 2011). Community psychology is therefore birthed in the philosophies of a liberation psychology (Carolissen, 2012). Volunteerism within HE can also be strongly linked to furthering students' understanding of social justice (Cipolle, 2010; Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). Moreover, this research sets out on a similar journey of relevance by working towards research that may contribute towards building a democratic South Africa. It identifies the need for active citizenship in the later part of the country's reconstruction and development process. Furthermore, it identifies volunteer organisations as micro communities to play an essential role in addressing social concerns as well as equipping university students to play their part in the country's democracy.

Community psychology through its defining values, *PEEPS,* played a pivotal role in guiding the research process from its onset. In particular, the value of social justice as both motivation for and outcome of volunteerism within HE acted as a pillar for the study. Therefore, I expand on the value of social justice as a concept within community psychology, arguing for its importance within the South African context and higher education.

2.2.1   Social justice as a goal of and orientation towards volunteering

Social justice is "concerned with the fair and equitable allocations of resources and obligations in society" (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010, p. 35). It aims to address injustices caused by institutional governance and systems such as Apartheid. Black people were provided with a lesser standard of education referred to as 'Bantu Education' and were left with inadequate housing and lack of basic needs like water and sanitation. Addressing the repercussions of the social and economic divides caused by Apartheid and promoting social justice is complex.

In particular, student volunteerism is set to address injustice and promote social justice in communities, as well as elicit a social justice orientation among students inculcating active citizenship. Based on this knowledge, it is interesting that motivation theories do not include social justice as a motive for volunteering (Jiranek, Kals, Humm, Strubel, & Wehner, 2013). Nonetheless, research suggests that in many instances, social justice is a motive for volunteering. Thus when projects highlight how volunteer activities may enhance social justice it might act as a recruitment strategy (Jiranek et al., 2013).

One reason why some theories have not yet included social justice as a motive for volunteering might be because of volunteering being perceived as charity - "the provision of help or relief to those in need" (Marullo & Edwards, 2000, p. 899). Most student volunteer projects take on the form of afterschool tutoring and psychosocial programmes, as well as international programmes such as Habitat for Humanity, where students help to build brick houses in informal settlements. Hence, student volunteer programmes mainly address the symptoms of injustice. It has the potential to perpetuate the status quo - of the fortunate doing a good deed to relieve the struggles of the poor, - without addressing the root causes of the problems (Penner, 2004). Nonetheless, Penner (2004) argues that when volunteer actions through NGO's provide goods and services to people who might not be able to obtain it through the public sector, due to bad governance, or through the private sector, due to financial constraints, volunteerism is indeed a form of advancing social justice. On the other hand, helping might side track attention from addressing the root causes of the problem (Penner, 2004).

Although not directly promoting social justice, Marullo and Edwards (2000) argue that the charity work performed by student volunteers can help to facilitate awareness of social justice and promote

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active citizenship. Cheung, Lo and Liu (2015) found that volunteers' social responsibility had a positive effect on volunteerism, but volunteerism did not have a similar positive effect on social responsibility. This suggests that establishing social justice as a value and orientation towards volunteerism among students, through the volunteer process, is not an automatic process or a guaranteed end result. Students start off volunteering for different reasons and it takes time and proper guidance to challenge the status quo and deconstruct charity mind sets.

Moreover, the distinction between charity and social change volunteerism lies in the process and not the act per se. The incorporation of the value of empowerment is pivotal in promoting social justice through community projects. Volunteer actions geared at a social justice goal should not merely teach people new skills, but should give them decision making power (Fondacaro & Weinberg, 2002; Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006). Differently stated, the "teaching of skills to people in the community is viewed as simply a tool of enablement" (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006, p. 30). Empowerment within a social justice framework is about dismantling power relations and promoting the notion that people can be in control of their own lives. It is about recognising the voice of another because change is only possible if the people who are affected by the change is part of the process of constructing that change, and have decision making power over these processes (Fondacaro & Weinberg, 2002; Kagan et al., 2011; Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006). The volunteer programme should thus be a reciprocal learning process for both the students and the community (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011).

Furthermore, student volunteerism should not only address social justice within local communities, but should also challenge social justice within the students' own context (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). When students do not internalise their experiences and are unable to relate it to their own context, it leaves a paradoxical space of allowing ignorance of injustices in one's own back yard, and perpetuates the notion of what needs to be *fixed* as outside of the boundaries of HE (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). Within my own context as a lecturer, I found that not many students are able to relate their experience to their current context. The engineering students, who I lecture, provide extra mathematics tutoring classes to learners in disadvantaged communities as part of a community interaction (CI) module. One of the students (the only one in a class of 150), accordingly challenged the support given to first year engineering students coming from poor communities, as he realised that first year students coming from these communities enter university with a disadvantage. Notwithstanding, the opposite also occurred, where the university was perceived as an oppressive space for some students. It became clear that not all students had the same sense of belonging within university structures. Volunteer programmes challenge these frictions, especially the notion of community, as more and more learners from disadvantaged communities enter university spaces as

students. Facilitators of volunteering programmes need to be cognisant of these processes and should allow for discussion concerning inequalities and belonging within the boundaries of the university.

Student volunteer programmes are often perceived as a social justice vehicle. However, the process and output of social justice as both a value and goal of volunteerism need to be carefully examined, and should not be diluted with a charity approach. Cipolle (2010) designed a model that helps understand the process of how a student moves from a charity mind set to one of a social justice orientation. The model also guides educators to facilitate the process of citizenship education through volunteerism. Against this background, the Social Justice Model for Community Engagement is briefly described in relation to its relevance to the study of student volunteerism and social justice.

2.2.2   Social justice model for community engagement (CE)

The Social Justice Model for CE (Cipolle, 2010) suggests that the development of critical consciousness is the first step on the road to social change. The model presents three core components: 1) elements of critical consciousness development; 2) stages of white critical consciousness development, and 3) strategies of navigation.
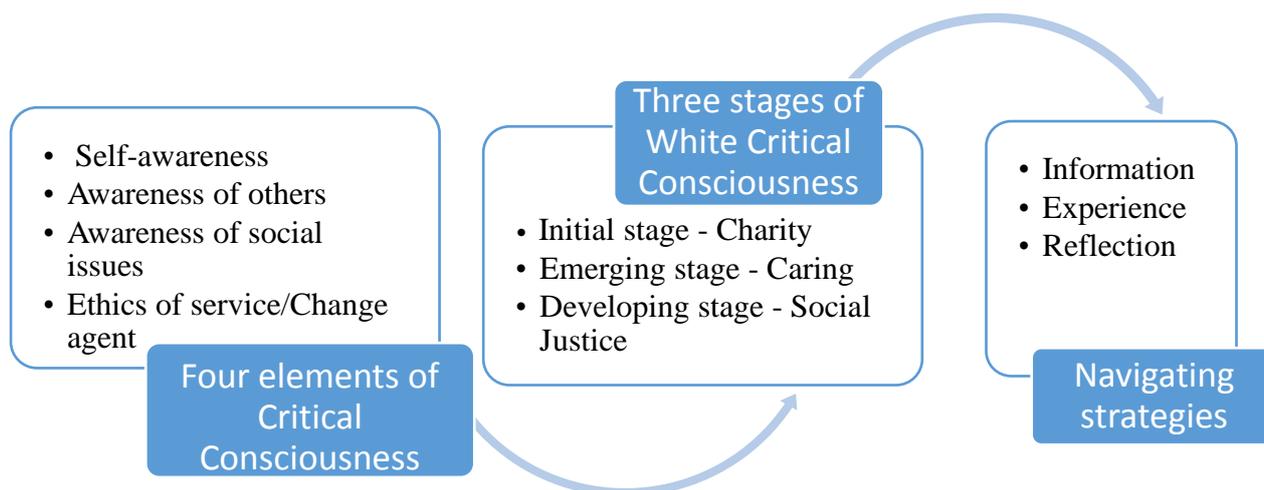
Figure 2:3 Social Justice Model for Community Engagement (Cipolle, 2010)

This model is of great relevance to the current study. In order for it to be best applied to this study, I have substituted the term *service learning* with the term *community engagement*. I argue that the model is not exclusively applicable to service learning activities, but can also be applied to the broader concept of CE. Expressly, student volunteerism is a form of CE. However, the term *service learning* was not substituted with *volunteerism* as I argue that the model relates to more than merely volunteerism or service learning.

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Developing critical consciousness

Cipolle (2010) argued that critical consciousness is a positive outcome for students who participate in CE. Her definition of *critical* includes the scrutiny of constructs such as power relations, race and class. The process of developing critical consciousness starts when students become aware of themselves. Next, they become aware of others and of social issues. The process ends with students realising that they can elicit change. As white students in particular embark on a journey to develop critical consciousness, they progress through three stages, namely: 1) the *initial stage*, where their motives are based on an internal focus and a charity mind set is adopted; 2) the *emerging stage*, where they develop a capacity for caring, and 3) the *developing stage*, where they seek social justice for others within society.

At Stellenbosch University (SU), I am currently developing and presenting an academic module for third and fourth year engineering students with an aim to promote graduate attributes such as critical thinking, and shaping students to play a leadership role in society as responsible and critical citizens. Consequently, I used the Social Justice Model for Community Engagement as a guide to help develop critical consciousness and promote active citizenship. In addition, I have experienced the difficulty of implementing this model and will add my personal reflections as the model is being discussed.

The initial stage

The elements of critical consciousness development, namely deeper self-awareness, awareness of others, and awareness of social issues, develop parallel to the three stages. During the initial stage, students become self-aware. The students notice their privileged position in comparison to that of the people they serve. This state of a deeper self-awareness includes aspects such as personality type, values, social status, as well as personal benefits that the volunteer process may hold. These personal benefits to the volunteer process may relate to motives such as the Career, Protective and Esteem Function[6], as students are focused on themselves.

Students react differently to the process of self-awareness. One may respond by feeling pity towards the community, evoking a charity mentality (Cipolle, 2010), which in itself does not necessarily elicit change or cultivate citizenship (Clark, Croddy, Hayes, & Philips, 1997). The experience may also elicit feelings of guilt and anger. These normally happen when students are confronted with their privilege for the first time and are not prepared or willing to engage in processing this knew self-knowledge (Jones, Gilbride-Brown, & Gasiorski, 2005). Self-awareness might lead to student

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[6] Functional motives are discussed in section 2.5.

resistance to the process of developing critical consciousness. It should be noted that not all students will successfully develop critical consciousness through the service learning or volunteering process. Within the volunteer context students have the option of terminating their volunteer commitment when the process of self-awareness it too uncomfortable.

However, within a service learning context, students are required to finish the process because it is tied to an academic, credit-bearing course. Jones et al. (2005) present three types of resistant students within a service learning context; the good volunteer, the polite frustrated volunteer, and the active resister. The good volunteer does not participate in critical thinking about constructs such as power and privilege, whereas the polite frustrated volunteer feels challenged by a discussion about white privilege and systemic racism. They normally express their resistance in service learning course evaluations and written assignments. The active resister, on the other hand, is disruptive during reflection sessions and might be aggressively pushing their views. Educators should take note of reflection responses, both personally and within class settings, as it exposes the type of resistance and can help to accordingly guide students towards critical consciousness by acknowledging their inner struggles. When students are prepared to process and reflect on their experiences and the self, especially when previous assumptions are thrown into doubt, it may bring about significant personal growth (Milofsky & Flack, 2005). Jones et al. (2005) propose that course facilitators should view students who are resistant to the process as being capable participants in the process, to continuously provide them with direction, to establish communities of learners among the students, and to support the inherent struggle they are dealing with.

Additionally, the demographics of South African universities are changing, and HE institutions are becoming more diverse in their student population in terms of religion, race, class and gender. The 'us/them' dichotomy in terms of the volunteers and the community is being challenged. Educators are called on to turn a critical lens to themselves (Jones et al., 2005) as subjective beings in the facilitation process. The effect of class on student self-awareness should be taken into consideration, because class and race are not always interchangeable (Henry, 2005). Students' multiple identities should be acknowledged.

Being confronted with one's own privilege creates a different response than being reminded of one's conflicts. A previous study found that the community perceived service learning students of colour differently than their white counterparts (Swaminathan, 2005). It appears that students of colour were viewed as delinquents and their volunteering participation as restitution, whereas white students were viewed in a more positive manner (Swaminathan, 2005). Although most university students in South Africa are privileged and most programmes are geared towards disadvantaged communities, only focusing on white critical consciousness may lead to the neglect of the self-awareness processes

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engaged in by students of colour. It is easy to neglect the prejudice and stereotypes the community might hold toward the students (Swaminathan, 2005). Students providing services in communities that are similar to the one they come from, become aware of both their privilege and disadvantage (Henry, 2005). I, as the researcher, remember how my own service learning experiences as a student highlighted my privileged position of being able to study at a prestigious university such as Stellenbosch University. I never owned my own computer until my fourth year of studies, and the school I attended did not offer such facilities. Being at University, meant that I had access to resources, such as a computer. As I identified with the service recipients, I simultaneously become aware of the dissimilarities between myself and my fellow students. Elements of both being privileged and underprivileged were important to my sense of self (Henry, 2005). Many students thus experience an overlap of similarities between themselves and the service recipients, as students may be from the same race, class, or speak the same language (Henry, 2005). Our awareness of self always occurs in relation to others.

The emerging stage

As students become aware of others, develop relationships with the service recipients and bond with other volunteers, they tend to move on to the emerging stage. Students start to become less self-focused and their motives translate into care which links to the value function. Hence, students who volunteer display a stronger sense of empathy than those who do not volunteer (Plante, Lackey, & Hwang, 2009). Students also develop various interpersonal skills, linked to the understanding function, as a result of their direct contact with others different than themselves. Volunteers gain a more concrete understanding of people's ways of thinking and the impact of the social context, culture, history, and economic position on one's behaviour. It is, however, also true that first-hand contact with others is not necessarily positive, and can confirm stereotypes. In order to address this potential pitfall, the process of reflection is crucial to provide space to ponder and wrestle with stereotypes and misperceptions of the other, and should be a continuous process throughout the volunteer experience (Netshandama, 2010). Reflection is recognised as a navigating strategy through the stages of white critical consciousness development (Cipolle, 2010). Hatcher and Bringle (1997) define reflection as the "intentional consideration of an experience in light of particular learning objectives" (p. 153). Reflection can take place through meaningful conversations in small groups, keeping a diary where key questions about student volunteer experience are answered, directed readings, and class presentations (Battistoni, 1997; Bringle & Hatcher, 1999). As students reflect on these social issues they learn to "question what constitutes 'a better society', who defines it and in whose interest" (Chile & Black, 2015, p. 249). It is critical for HE institutions to provide resources

and support to student volunteers, to assist them in making sense of their experiences (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011).

Furthermore, within my experience of facilitating a service learning course with engineering students, I was confronted by the fact that reflection is a skill. The model by Cipolle (2010) assumes that students know how to reflect and that educators from all faculties can perform a successful reflection session. I found that the engineering students lacked the skill to reflect on the self in relation to social issues. I also noted that when the facilitator of a reflection session is not skilled to manage the session, it may change into a complaining session that may negatively influence students' social responsibility attitudes and behaviour. Stereotypes are also then reinforced. Hence, reflection should be a guided process when one aims to achieve a specific objective (Lough, 2009).

It is critical that accurate information be given to volunteers about the people they serve and the social issues they encounter, in order to challenge stereotypes. Accurate information along with reflection and an attempt by the facilitator to keep the volunteer experience positive are viewed as navigating tools (Cipolle, 2010). I found few written documents available about communities other than newspaper articles highlighting the crime in those areas. Providing 'correct' information about communities, breaking down stereotypes, and managing the perpetuation of these stereotypes, was indeed challenging. I was also challenged by the notion of keeping the experience positive, while at the same time allowing the students to engage with the issues faced by the community.

The developing stage

The last stage is the developing stage where students become aware of societal issues. During this stage students might start adopting more of a social responsibility mind set. Motives for volunteering can be related to expressing one's social responsibility and active citizenship. Students also become aware that they can be change agents and may consequently develop an ethics of service. Through this process, volunteering actions move beyond just the notion of caring to that of active citizenship. As students move through these different stages proposed by Cipolle (2010), their reasons for volunteering might change in line with their progression (Finkelstein, 2008; Grönlund et al., 2011; Holdsworth, 2010; Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006). Moreover, when democratic citizenship is the foundation of a community based learning experience, students leave feeling more a part of their communities, and with a better and more critical understanding of these communities and their roles within them (Battistoni, 1997).
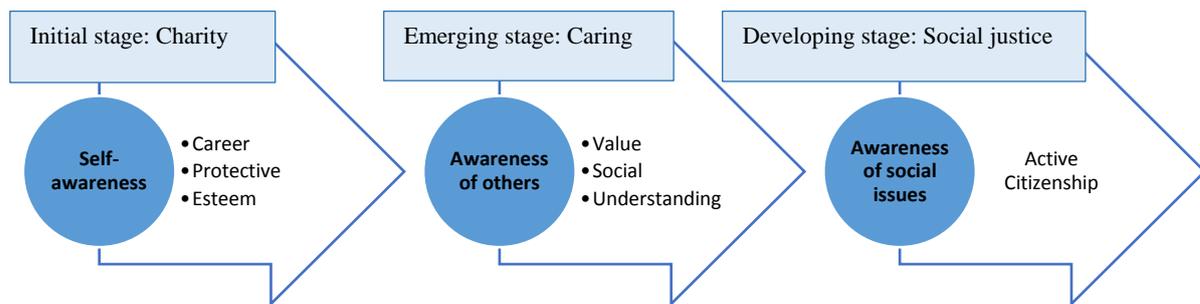
Figure 2:4 The Social Justice Model for Community Engagement as linked to volunteer motives

From my experience, I found that there is no set timeframe on how long it takes for students to form critical consciousness. Lough (2009) provides a broad timeframe, however, suggesting that three months of service should be enough for students to experience growth. Engineering students have not necessarily been exposed to concepts such as social justice, and most of them have never before entered a low income community. Also, the volunteering module is compulsory and not an engineering module with a focus on technical aspects of engineering, as they are used to. It is therefore important to constantly communicate the relevance of the module and how it will benefit them as prospective engineers, in order to enhance participation and minimise questioning of the importance of such a module in their degree programme.

Researchers or project managers do not always account for the potential dangers of similar programmes to derail social justice outcomes regarding the empowerment of the community being served. Often, student resistance is dominant and courses are set for as short as six weeks. If not accounted for, the community can be harmed, stereotypes reinforced, and further civic action smothered.

Even so, student volunteerism can help facilitate awareness of social justice (Marullo & Edwards, 2000). Cipolle's model (2010) illustrates how such a process can realise. This model illustrates how volunteerism can cultivate a social justice orientation along with a deeper awareness of one's social responsibility. Volunteerism can act as a tool for citizenship education, and in the case of university students, contribute to the development of graduate attributes as well. It remains important to consider what the challenges to implementing a social justice approach are.

Volunteering consequently becomes more than merely a free time activity. It is a phenomenon that is driven by social justice, as a goal of and orientation towards volunteerism. In this model, critical consciousness development among students are constructed by an awareness of self, awareness of others and an awareness of societal issues, along with an awareness of an ability to elicit change.

Linked to the concept of social justice is that of active citizenship. Volunteerism is not by definition always associated with civic participation due to its charity component (Marullo & Edwards, 2000). However, when volunteerism is geared towards social justice it becomes a form of civic engagement and active citizenship.

2.3   CITIZENSHIP

Active citizenship is pivotal to the survival of South Africa's democracy. Citizenship is, however, expressed through various forms such as voting, paying taxes and civic engagement. In particular, it is critical to deliberate the notion of volunteerism as a form of civic engagement and active citizenship. A large percentage of South Africa's youth is not eligible to vote, and many university students are not formally employed and thus do not contribute to the economy of the country. Consequently, this cohort is referred to as 'citizens in the making' (Arnot & Swartz, 2012; Hall, Coffey, & Williamson, 1999; Harris & Roose, 2014), leading to the youth and students feeling frustrated and excluded from society. Volunteerism becomes essential for forming a social identity, and promoting a sense of belonging and solidarity within broader society. Volunteerism also acts as a bridge to adulthood (Birdwell, Scott, & Horley, 2013), helping with the transition phase in terms of civic engagement and other forms of citizenship behaviour. Taking this into consideration, this discussion is integrated from the perspectives of both youth civic engagement and active citizenship within a volunteer context. Moreover, citizenship as a theoretical approach to volunteerism relates to the notion of social justice, as it acts as a vehicle to bring about social change in society. Active citizenship through social change volunteerism may be considered as a possible motive for and/or outcome of student volunteerism. This section focuses on the conceptualisation of the term citizenship in its relation to youth and university students, along with the notion of citizenship as an outcome of volunteerism as well as a way to promote citizenship education within HE.

2.3.1   Citizenship and volunteerism within the South African context

Similar to community psychology, citizenship is a multi-faceted construct with many construed meanings (Condor, 2011; Hall et al., 1999; Sherrod et al., 2002). As a result, citizenship means different things to different people (Cipolle, 2010) in its everyday understanding (Condor, 2011;

Stevenson, Dixon, Hopkins, & Luyt, 2015) as well as from different disciplines (Sherrod et al., 2002). Therefore, considering the complexities surrounding the construct of citizenship (Condor, 2011), we have to acknowledge that the definition of citizenship needs to incorporate multiple components (Sherrod et al., 2002) as well as accept the contradiction in its everyday experience (Condor, 2011).
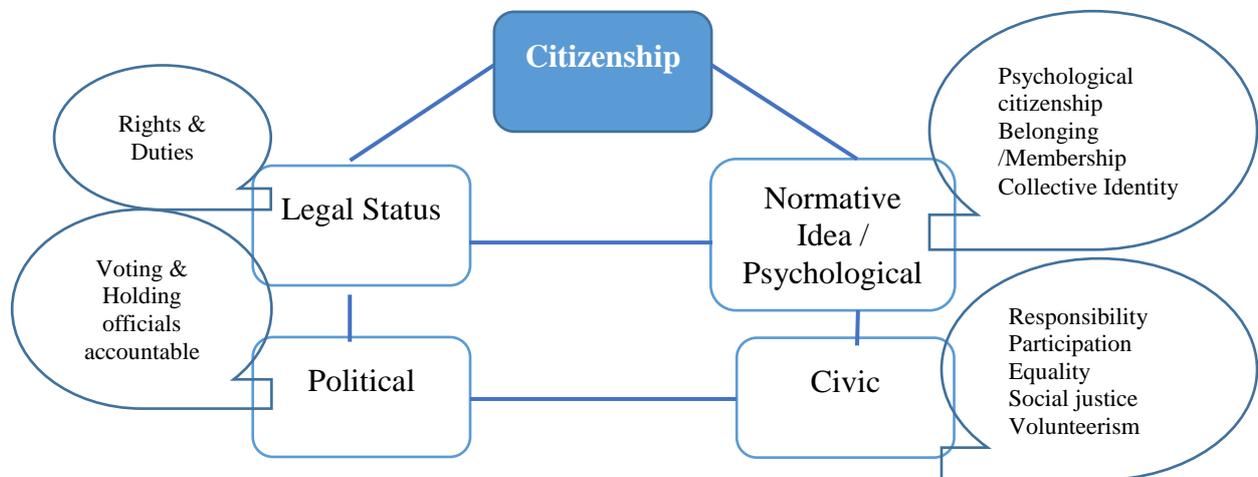
Figure 2:5 Citizenship: A summary of its holistic general conceptualisation

Citizenship is commonly linked to national identity within its legal form of an identity document, stating that a person is a citizen of a respective country. However, national identity associated with citizenship goes beyond law and geographical boundaries, as identity is a psychological construct. Citizenship can be deliberated in terms of universal psychological needs such as relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2014) or community psychology's value of a sense of belonging and the forming of a social identity. A social identity ties the individual to the collective within a polity. Some argue that this collective does not need to be a national collective or a homogeneous group (Sindic, 2011). The fundamental understanding of citizenship includes "the ability to move beyond one's individual self-interest; to be committed to the well-being of some larger group of which one is a member" (Sherrod et al., 2002, p. 265). Accordingly, community psychology also highlights citizenship behaviour in developing and empowering marginalised communities (Stevenson et al., 2015). Hence, I will briefly consider three key impressions related to citizenship, namely; identity; expressing concern for others; and citizenship behaviour. I will discuss its significance in relation to university students and volunteerism within the South African context.

Identity in relation to citizenship

Apartheid had an enormous effect on South Africans national identity and notion of citizenship. A sense of belonging and connectedness towards the nation was stolen from many, and can anecdotally be noted in the way some sporting events are being supported. When the Stormers (an South African rugby team) and the Crusaders (a New Zealand rugby team), or even the two national sides, compete against each other at Newlands Rugby Stadium in Cape Town, it is sometimes hard to establish who the home team is, as a large group of locals would normally be supporting New Zealand.

Most of the reasoning behind this could be that a large percentage of the black community feels that they were not represented in the South African team and that the South African team, also known as the Springboks, is the team of white Afrikaans speaking people. As a result, many black people rejected the idea of identifying with the national team - in essence also their national identity - within this particular setting. During the Apartheid era, black sportspeople were not allowed to represent national sport teams. They were in this way politically excluded from upholding a national identity, and forming a psychological sense of belonging and ownership, which was and still is being expressed in various forms of citizenship behaviour.

In hindsight, after an era of political oppression, the fact that many black people do not support the national team might also be an expression of active citizenship within the new democratic regime, as people are demonstrating their discontent with the national structures and team selection within sport. Another argument might be that the democracy and diversity within the country have advanced to the degree that people are free to support any team, and that the past does not influence such decisions of citizenship any more. This brings into question whether citizenship should be tied to a subjective national identity. Sindic (2011) argues that the explicit rejection of a subjective national identity[7] in one area (supporting national teams), does not prevent an objective national identity in terms of geographical boundaries.

South African's subjective national identity[8] is also closely linked to their political identity. During the Apartheid regime, blacks were not allowed to vote or demonstrate citizenship rights, and were denied of their political citizenship. In response, a fundamental goal of Nelson Mandela's liberation movement was voting rights; "*the Africans require, want, the franchise on the basis of one man one*

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[7] A subjective national identity – In this regard, when an individual does not feel like a South African, not wanting to be associated with South Africans.
[8] A subjective national identity- To what degree do South Africans view other South Africans as fellow citizens, irrespective of race and culture? (Sindic, 2011)

vote. They want political independence."[9] This statement opposed the notion of some (white people) being perceived as citizens, and others (black people) being viewed as 'barbarians' (Sindic, 2011), people without a voice and without rights. Moreover, it is difficult for citizens to embrace a sense of psychological citizenship when they do not share a sense of identity with the national community (Sindic, 2011).

Nonetheless, a subjective social identity does not exclusively need to be directed to one's national community. People feel a sense of belonging to sub groups and communities within the larger national community, and express their citizenship behaviour within those frameworks. South Africa is unique to most other countries as it does not only have an extremely diverse population, but that it lawfully recognises most of the sub groupings. This is expressed in the fact that South Africa has eleven official languages. People thus self-define their own communities of belonging. Also, theories of citizenship do take into account societal diversity (Hopkins & Blackwood, 2011) as people do not have one single identity. The self-categorisation theory is congruent with the constructivist paradigm where reality is based on the person's experience of what is real (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010) and a person's identity needs to be recognised within the orientation that the person self-defines (Hopkins & Blackwood, 2011). Commonality within a national identity is, however, still an important virtue within the presence of appreciating multifaceted identities (Birdwell et al., 2013). Furthermore, people experience psychological threat when others do not acknowledge or categorise them in terms that are consistent with how they perceive themselves (Hopkins & Blackwood, 2011). For instance, Whites may be perceived as European and not South African, although their families were born and bred on South African soil for generations. Similar thoughts might be held towards Indians. Moreover, as people move and establish themselves in other countries, volunteerism might help to enhance their social capital (Wilson & Musick, 1997), which adds to their integration into the host society (Handy & Greenspan, 2009). Volunteerism can add to a sense of belonging across group identities and within multicultural communities (Birdwell et al., 2013). Also, people with a strong national identity are more motivated to volunteer (Lai, Ren, Wu, & Hung, 2013).

Notwithstanding, the notion of a national identity was also brought into contention due to globalisation. Connectedness to others are formed beyond immediate geographical areas (Metzger, Erete, Barton, Desler, & Lewis, 2015), largely through the internet and easy ways of travelling across national borders. As a result, people have started to define themselves as citizens of the world, thus forming a global identity. Sindic (2011) argues that global identity might also be consistent with the

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[9] Nelson Mandela made this statement during a television interview in 1961. The statement has ever since been widely quoted.

notion of citizenship, bearing in mind that it has an equalising form of identification. In this context, students tend to join international volunteer programmes during university breaks. Some universities also embark on organised international volunteer programmes with the aim of awareness of global social issues. Once a year, I meet with students from American Universities (AU), Washington DC, who undertake such programmes in South Africa. Moreover, there is no political or legal basis for the notion of global citizenship, causing a continuous debate amongst scholars concerning the boundaries of citizenship (Condor, 2011).

Expressing concern for others and citizenship behaviour

Ways of expressing concern for others have changed over the years. Social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook have a noteworthy impact on the rapid sharing of information and global news. It provides a platform to 1) increase awareness of social needs, 2) voice opinions and join activists and, 3) join aid providing relief groups such as doctors without borders. One can be involved in political discussions and civic movements without leaving the comfort of one's home. An example of this has been well illustrated during the 2015 HE student protests that swept South Africa, Europe, and the United States of America (USA). In South Africa, university students nationally rallied under the hashtag #FeesMustFall movement to fight for access to HE institutions, and against an increase of tuition fees. The movement was started as a social media discussion that sparked conversations across the country, consequently leading to an extensive national protest at South African universities.

Considering social media's nature as a public platform, students may feel obligated to adhere to social norms (Metzger et al., 2015). It was difficult for students to voice their opinions about the increased tuition fees and not join the protest actions. Students were kept accountable for their public online actions by themselves and others. Moreover, it was noted that online activism increased the likelihood to vote (Kahne & Middaugh, 2012) and involvement in offline activism.

When youth protest action is considered a form of active citizenship, it raises a few important questions. Bellino (2015) asked the following questions in response to research conducted on youth civic participation in post war Guatemala:

"1) Does civic action have to fall within the realm of what's termed as legal in order to be civic?

2) Can strategic withdrawal from public spaces be constructed as acts with lasting civic value, in that they avoid public conflict?

3) To what extent do extreme times call for extreme measures and new ethical criteria for what constitutes civic action? (p. 129).

She also noted that " … blame placed on social movements and youth criminals reinforced the cultural repertoire that good citizenship resides in nonparticipation" (Bellino, 2015, p. 129). Arnot and Swartz (2012) also noted that " … young people in their struggle for belonging, often express themselves in antisocial behaviour or violent protest" (p. 7). I will not elaborate on these questions, yet I found them to be of significance to ponder on considering recent student protest and the similarities that one may be able to draw between post-apartheid South Africa and post war Guatemala. Relating to the student protests and the questions asked above, it was evident that HE was not ready for the result of their aims to develop students who think critically and expresses active citizenship, as stipulated in the Education White Paper 3 (1997). Subsequently, the paradoxes of policy and student actions were demonstrated through these protests. When students expressed active citizenship and engaged politically, their protest for reasonable demands was oppressed. This highlights the need to rethink and possibly broaden the definition of citizenship (Sherrod et al., 2002).

Consequently, there has been a shift in civic and political engagement among students (Hustinx, Meijs, Handy, & Cnaan, 2012). Student, civic and political engagements were formerly mostly conducted within organised traditional volunteering structures. Lately, it appears that students are more inclined towards individualistic involvement. Such action is defined as monitorial citizenship (Hustinx et al., 2012). A student critically monitors the social and political environment and intervenes in more irregular and individualised ways.

In particular, a large part of the discussion on the definition of citizenship incorporates the argument between political and civic engagement (Arnot & Swartz, 2012; Hall et al., 1999; Sherrod et al., 2002). Civic engagement, narrowly defined, is equal to volunteerism (Harris & Roose, 2014), although not all volunteer activities are likened to civic action. This is so because not all volunteer action is orientated to social change. People who volunteer are likely to be more politically active than those who do not volunteer. Wilson (2000) noted that not all social action is political (Omoto, Snyder, & Hackett, 2010). For some, citizenship goes beyond political and civic involvements. They define citizenship as "a way of life and philosophy of human relations" (Metzger et al., 2015, p. 56) and associate it with "a 'politics of hope' that is often based upon the denial of unequal conditions and violent marginalisation" (Arnot & Swartz, 2012, p. 7). Many debates have started about the relationship between the state and civil society. Questions have been asked about the role of the state and if the active participation of NGOs and other forms of civic society are not absolving government of their responsibility. Hence, citizenship is perceived as both keeping government accountable to do what they are meant to do, as well as taking ownership and responsibility for one's society.

Citizenship behaviour

It is important to consider the balance between the expectations of being an active citizen to that of citizenship rights. The social contract theory suggests that citizens enter a contract with the social order managed by the polity. Thus, individuals exchange certain freedoms to a government for protection and societal benefits (Wray-Lake, Syvertsen, & Flanagan, 2008). When basic living resources such as housing, running water, sanitation and employment are not met, people will find it difficult to enact active citizenship by engaging in public affairs. South Africa has a high unemployment rate: many people live under the breadline and are exposed to a lack of basic services. Such factors may have serious detrimental effects on people's citizenship behaviour.

Active citizenship behaviour encapsulates a vast range of actions beyond merely obeying laws. From a political stance, one must understand how society generates policies to address societal problems, and be able to evaluate these public policies (Clark et al., 1997). It also requires clear thinking about public matters, and effective communication of thoughts and actions, both to elected leaders and with fellow citizens (Battistoni, 1997).

The youth today struggles to define and express citizenship and appropriate civic action (Bellino, 2015; Metzger et al., 2015). This might result from a feeling of exclusion relating to the understanding that they should be contributing to the economy but that they are not yet doing so. Therefore, youth citizenship should rather be viewed as competency, participation and responsibility (Hall et al., 1999). I argue that it is essential for citizenship to be defined in a broad spectrum of involvement, of which volunteerism is only a part.

Miller (2000, p. 3) names three types of citizenship:

1) republican citizenship: defined as "someone who is actively involved in shaping the future direction of his/her society";

2) liberal citizenship: defined as "a set of rights and obligations enjoyed equally by everyone who is a full member of the political community in question"; and

3) libertarian citizenship: defined as "someone who chooses between different bundles of (public) goods and services, in the same way that a consumer chooses between different sets of commodities in the market."

Volunteerism fits the category of republican citizenship (Miller, 2000). Volunteers, especially those who volunteer in community projects, may contribute to shaping the direction of their societies to a large extent, by attempting to address various injustices in their communities. Even though the reciprocity of the benefits of volunteerism have been recognised, the notion of it being a selfless act

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is still highly valued. Volunteerism therefore reflects Sherrod et al.'s (2002) unanimous view of citizenship as "the ability to move beyond one's individual self-interest and to be committed to the well-being of others" (p. 265).

Likewise, the question brought to the table is whether or not volunteerism be presented as a duty for citizens in stating their social responsibility. In England, there have been debates about the impact of political leaders on the notion of volunteerism. Some argue that the difference in leadership brought about two discourses concerning volunteering. Volunteering was very much perceived as an individual choice and a matter of welfare under the Thatcher regime, while it was promoted as a duty of public citizenship under Blair (Cloke, Johnsen, & May, 2007). Others argue that the Thatcher leadership also emphasized duties more than the rights of citizenship, by adopting policies that encouraged volunteerism in local communities (Yarwood, 2005). Former South African president, Thabo Mbeki, has alluded to the importance of volunteerism by declaring 2002 as the *Year of the Volunteer*. But should volunteerism be communicated as a duty of active citizenship or just an expression of active citizenship? The difference would be that, as a duty, people feel obligated to volunteer, contesting the notion of volunteerism. Still, Cloke et al. (2007) argue that people volunteer because they choose to volunteer and not because of a sense of civic duty: arguing that people express a form of "ethical citizenship rather than political citizenship" (p. 1099).

One reason why government might want to promote youth civic participation through volunteerism is due to its potential promotion of young people's health and well-being (Campbell, Gibbs, Maimane, Nair, & Sibiya, 2009). Such involvement leads to youth empowerment, but more importantly, it challenges the social exclusion felt by young people in citizenship development (Morsillo & Prilleltensky, 2007). The benefits of volunteerism are more far-reaching than just the services rendered.

2.3.2 Citizenship education

Scholars like Waghid (2010) believe that democratic citizenship should be taught in South African universities and schools because of the scars left by the Apartheid system (Birdwell et al., 2013). Other governments, such as Brittain, made citizenship education compulsory within the national curriculum (Birdwell et al., 2013). South African schools are still mainly divided by line of race, language and economic status. At times, learners are never afforded the opportunity to engage with people of a different race or who speaks a different home languages than themselves. South Africa also has many boys and girls high schools, meaning that separation is also at times along gender lines. The divides within the country's schooling system heavily contributes to the struggles of forging a sense of community and solidarity in South African universities. Engaging with a diverse group of

people on a daily basis can be extremely overwhelming for most first-year university students, keeping in mind that "belonging is shaped by social location, identifications and emotional attachments, and ethical and political values" (Arnot & Swartz, 2012, p. 6). Participation emerges from a sense of belonging and ownership. Unless the topic of citizenship is directly tackled in a classroom setting, it is possible for students to be in a multi-cultural environment without being challenged about the concepts and ideas they might hold towards others. For this reason, I agree with Waghid's stance (2010) that deliberate citizenship education should be taught in South African universities, especially owing to its crucial diverse population and history.

Flanagan, Martinez, Cumsille and Ngomane (2011) argue that mediating institutions, groupsways and collaborative practice helps to theorise youth civic development. Universities are mediating institutions and vehicles for civic development. In particular, South African universities are normally more representative of different groups of people than the communities the students come from. This is mostly due to the Group Areas Act of 1950 that grouped people according to their ethnicity and forced them to live in separate geographical areas. Even today, most working class black South Africans live in predominantly black areas, as engineered by Apartheid legislation.

Also, universities acts as an interpretative space where students have opportunities to shape and reshape their political views and identities (Flanagan et al., 2011). This happens both in and out of class settings. For some students the spaces are formative and occurs in curricular spaces that addresses subjects such as politics and philosophy and ethics, along with deliberate citizenship education. Service learning together with citizenship education is noted as being successful in reaching active citizenship goals (Birdwell et al., 2013; Marullo & Edwards, 2000; Yarwood, 2005). For others it is experiential as they partake in extra-curricular activities, such as volunteerism, and through interactions within diverse living spaces, such as residences. Moreover, volunteerism appears to have the most impact on civic engagement attitudes and behaviour when compared to service learning and living space interaction (Whitley & Yoder, 2015).

Notwithstanding, societies and other groups on university campuses add to spaces of belonging which relates to identify formation and groupsways. Groupsways is a term that Flanagan et al. (2011) adapted from cultural psychology's "self-ways". In addition, within the university setting, political views and identities are also shaped through the actions between individuals or groups – what Flanagan et al. (2011) terms as collaborative practice. However, collaborative practices can be both positive and negative for citizenship building. At Stellenbosch University (SU) there are, for example, two opposing student political groups. Most protests on campus are led by either one of these groups and, in most incidences, their requests are in contrast with one another. Hence, the interaction between these groups may be negative in terms of forming an *us vs them* outlook and consequently spreading

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disunity. The interaction may also be positive in that students are able to voice grievances and concerns to larger institutional spaces, such as the university and government. Moreover, these collaborative practises have the potential to strengthen group identities but also to weaken diversity understanding and compromise. Consequently formal citizenship education is important as it can help to mediate these group interactions.

Citizenship education within HE proves to be effective through a variety of means (Whitley & Yoder, 2015) as there are various pedagogical approaches to citizenship education. However, both formative and experiential citizenship education is necessary to be effective in citizenship and social justice (Harkavy, 2006). Volunteerism proved to be an effective way of promoting citizenship education.

In essence, volunteerism provides the space to form a sense of connectedness as well as a social identity. It also allows individuals to express concern for others through active citizenship behaviour. Volunteerism is therefore an effective way to promote citizenship education. Nonetheless, the notion of volunteerism and citizenship within the current age is being contested within globalisation, largely through the influence of the internet. These new expressions and framing of the self within society and the world opens opportunity for research in this area, and possibly fresh ways of thinking about citizenship, beyond nationality based models.

2.4 FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO VOLUNTEERING MOTIVES

Functional theorists (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995) argue that volunteering serves a specific purpose for the volunteer as it satisfies certain needs. Therefore,

> "people can be recruited into volunteer work by appealing to their own psychological functions, that they will come to be satisfied volunteers to the extent that they engage in volunteer work that serves their own psychological functions, and that they will plan to continue to serve as volunteers to the extent that their psychological functions are being served by their service." Clary et al. (1998, p. 1518)

Six motivational functions served by volunteering are highlighted in the literature. People will choose to volunteer if the volunteering action will contribute to the fulfilment of their individual needs, depicted by six functions, namely: 1) Value function; 2) Career function; 3) Social function; 4) Esteem function; 5) Understanding function; and 6) Protective function. Support has been shown for the functional approach and its six motivational functions as a model of self-reported volunteering motives (Greenslade & White, 2005). The motivational functions also act as a predictor of whether people will volunteer (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996) and reasons to remain volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). Each of the six motivational functions are thus briefly discussed.

Value function

The volunteering process provides an organised space for people to express their altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others (Clary et al., 1998). Volunteering allows people to demonstrate their personal values and beliefs (Berger, 2006; Dekker & Halman, 2003). Belief systems include those of religion (Berger, 2006; Johnson, 2013) and societal beliefs such as women volunteering to fulfil the social expectation of certain kinds of femininity that suggests women to be caring (Petrzelka & Mannon, 2006).

Although social justice as a value of community psychology and element of citizenship may be perceived to be included in the value function, this function does not make clear provision for either social justice or citizenship motives. In response, Jiranek et al. (2013) added social justice motives to the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) in their study. The researchers included the following statements: Volunteering allows me to even out unequal social conditions; Volunteering lets me promote equal opportunities; Volunteering enables me to create equal opportunities for all people; By volunteering I can enable all people to be equally involved in public life; Volunteering enables me to facilitate access to those things that everyone is equally entitled to. Jiranek et al. (2013, p. 521) approach social justice as "the promotion of equality". However, social justice motives have not been examined within the VFI and has therefore not been formally included within the VFI. Meanwhile, other scholars have also started to refer to social justice motives as a function of volunteering (Güntert et al., 2016). I thus distinguish between faith-based motives, such as referring to being called by God and the value function, as well as citizenship behaviour such as wanting to make a difference within a larger group that the volunteer is a member of (Sherrod et al., 2002), and the value function.

Career function

It can be argued that volunteering among students increases their employability (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011), since it provides the opportunity to obtain essential skills and work experience (Handy & Greenspan, 2009). The assumption could be made that the career function might be a very popular reason for volunteering among students preparing to enter the workplace. The assumption is that many students volunteer because they have to add activities to their curriculum vitae, and the opportunity to have learning experiences outside of the classroom would be beneficial for their careers. From this perspective, volunteering mainly functions to gain career related experiences (Clary et al., 1998) or to prepare for a new career.

Social function

The social function argues that people volunteer out of obligation towards their friends; because of the preferences of others; or for the social status attached to volunteering (Penner, 2002). The social function relates to relationships with others (Clary et al., 1998), but most specifically, it reflects the normative influence of friends, family or social groups on our everyday life decisions. A person would therefore seek a particular project or action based on its popularity among important friends or family members.

Social learning theorist (Bandura, 1977) would argue that people volunteer because they observe other people volunteer. Teenagers are especially prone to volunteerism if their parents or close relatives have volunteered (Hustinx et al., 2012; Wilson, 2000). Hence, a strong predictor of students' civic involvement is by engaging with people who are actively busy making society a better place (Metzger et al., 2015). These people act as role models and inspire responsive citizenship behaviour. Also, the likeliness to volunteer correlates with the amount of volunteering shown by others in the community (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011). A culture of volunteering fosters an atmosphere of active participation and cohesion within certain communities. Furthermore, the social function approach to volunteering argues that to start volunteering is not only a factor, but also a contributor to why people will decide to keep on volunteering (van Vianen et al., 2008), because volunteers feel obliged to keep on volunteering when their friends are also volunteers.

Esteem function

People may volunteer to enhance their self-esteem, to feel better about themselves, or for personal growth and development. Clary et al. (1998) refer to this function as the enhancement function. After people's basic needs for food, shelter and sex are satisfied, their needs are geared at belonging and esteem (Maslow, 1970). Deci and Ryan (2014) argue that esteem needs and desires are learned as the universal needs of connectedness, autonomy and competence are not being satisfied. In part, the satisfaction of the three universal needs as proposed by the self-determination theory leads to job satisfaction and enhancement of one's self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 2014). Developmental theorist Erikson's (1968) add supports to why students might be motivated by the esteem function and specifically the need to make friends. Student volunteers aged between 18 and 28 years are categorized by Erikson (1968) as being in the intimacy versus isolation stage. During this stage, people are looking for intimate relationships. Volunteering is a way of meeting people with similar interests, and shared interests can provide an opportunity for fellowship and socialising, as well as the potential to establish intimate relationships. Some motivations for volunteering can thus be viewed as being related to age and developmental stages. This has been confirmed by research

conducted by Omoto, Snyder and Martino (2000), suggesting that young adult volunteers are more motivated by relational concerns and older volunteers by service concerns.

South African University students confirmed the above statement when they mentioned that social interaction were essential to them as volunteers (Stuurman, 2008; Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008). It should also be noted that many students are from different parts of the country in comparison to their university's location. They are surrounded by a variety of students from diverse backgrounds and interests, and where classes are sometimes as large as 300 students or more. In this situation, volunteering provides the opportunity to make new friends when the large structure of universities may not be conducive to making friends easily.

Understanding function

Some people view volunteering as the space where they can obtain new learning experiences (Clary et al., 1998). In most cases volunteering provides the opportunity to engage with different cultural and ethnic groups. It therefore leads to the enhancement of interpersonal skills such as working within a diverse group, as well as effective communication skills. This function differs from the Career Function because the desired learning process is not directly linked to a career. However, these soft skills are viewed as necessary skills for the workplace. Acquiring these skills can also lead to an increase feeling of competence, which is a psychological need (Deci & Ryan, 2014).

Depending on the nature of the volunteering activity, volunteering can also be a space to express and implement already gained knowledge, skills, and abilities (Clary et al., 1998). This view of the function of volunteering coincides with the out of classroom learning experience through projects where students can express learned knowledge that service learning modules traditionally provide to university students.

Protective function

Volunteering may reduce negative feelings about oneself or may address one's own personal problems. It could also be that a volunteer has lost a family member due to cancer and is therefore volunteering with a cancer organisation to deal with his or her own loss.

This function may be expressed where people feel guilty about being privileged. South Africa has the greatest inequality in the world (StatsSA, 2014). These contextual factors may create opportunities for more privileged people to volunteer and have negative feelings minimised.

These six functional motivations are all self-interest related with the possible exception of the value function. In earlier literature, volunteering was mostly considered to be motivated by pure selflessness or altruism. Altruistic motives are more common in the initial volunteer stage, however these motives

change over time to more self-focused ambitions (Finkelstein, 2008). Lately the benefits of volunteering are viewed as more reciprocal, benefitting both volunteers and the community they serve (Cloke et al., 2007).

Grönlund et al. (2011) found in a study completed on the motivations of student volunteers across 13 countries excluding African countries that altruistic and learning motives were of the highest motives, followed by career and social motivations while protective reasons where of less prevalent. Gage and Thapa (2011) supports these finding as they also noted a dominance in the value and understanding function. Grönlund et al. (2011) however found great differences when they analysed the countries separately. Social motives for instance were highest in the USA, where protective reasons were most dominant in India, and Korea seemed to not find volunteering important to build their CV. This highlights the importance of why a South African perspective on this topic is of importance. Volunteering to a large extent is a social construct rooted in social norms and cultures as well as the political and economic arena. Time and space is of the essence when researching constructs like motivation and volunteering.

Understanding these psychological functions will be helpful for both recruitment and retention of volunteers. However, only the understanding, value and social functions are linked to factors listed as reasons to quit volunteering (Willems et al., 2012).

Functional theorists also agree with theorists of planned behaviour (Penner, 2004) that a rational decision is made when people decide to engage in volunteerism (Greenslade & White, 2005). Stated differently, people consider the personal benefits of volunteering before engaging in volunteer activities (Holdsworth, 2010). These functions include both personal and social motivations that may explain constant helping behaviour (Clary et al., 1998). Moreover, the function of volunteerism differs from person to person and rejects the notion of volunteerism being a pure altruistic act.

2.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Several theoretical approaches were applied in this research study. Firstly, the values of Community Psychology served as an ethical orientation towards the research study. Community Psychology is the psychology applied in working with communities or a section of the community such as a student volunteer project. *Peeps*: *P*revention, *E*mpowerment, *E*cological perspective, *P*sychological sense of community and *S*ocial Justice, were discussed as overarching values that guided the research.

Student volunteer actions geared at promoting social justice need to be carefully facilitated and monitored, otherwise it may have the opposite effect of reinforcing stereotypes and perpetuating the status quo. Hence, I discussed the Social Justice Model for CE as it provides guidelines in presenting a process where students are taken from a charity mind-set to that of a social justice orientation of

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volunteerism. Reflection, among others, was alluded to as a navigating tool to guide students on the path of developing critical consciousness. However, the process does not occur without challenges. Thus, I anecdotally provided critique surrounding the model.

Furthermore, volunteerism positively coincides with key impressions such as, forming a social identity, expressing concern for others and citizenship behaviour related to the notion of citizenship. Volunteerism also acts as a favourable platform for citizenship educational engagements.

The Functional Approach encapsulates six functions; Value function, Career function, Social function, Esteem function, Understanding function and Protective function that volunteerism fulfil. These functions differ for each person and relates to recruitment and retention of volunteers. Hence the awareness and fulfilment of expectations linked to these functions are essential.

Chapter two dealt with theoretical approaches that were employed in the study, in order to provide readers with the underlying thought patterns on how the study was conducted. Additionally, it also laid the foundation in answering the set research questions. Why do students volunteer? What support do students need to enhance their sustained volunteering participation? What facilitates student volunteerism at South African Universities?

The next chapter sets out to deliberate and critique the literature on the topic of volunteerism from a Community Psychology, Social Justice, and Citizenship approach within HE. Student volunteerism and reasons for volunteering is discussed in view of different motivational theories, yet highlighting the Functional Approach to volunteering.

Chapter 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature review provides context to the phenomenon of volunteerism. In this chapter, research recorded within past and current literature on the topic of interest are plotted and scrutinised. In order to understand the complexities tied to the concept of student volunteerism, I structured the discussion starting with a broad focus and moving on to its specifics.

This chapter starts by exploring a general perspective on volunteerism, including a discussion on the conceptualisation of the term volunteerism, followed by a brief description of the South African (SA) volunteer context. Volunteerism within higher education (HE) is discussed and attention focused on the areas of community engagement (CE) and graduate attributes. Next, I unpack the concept of student volunteerism and service learning programmes and form an argument based on the notion of community. The volunteer impact cycle is also discussed. Thereafter, a narrower focus is placed on the concept of motivation, since motivation is strongly linked to recruitment and retention. I conclude the literature review by presenting views and approaches on the topic of recruitment and retention within volunteerism.

Ultimately, the literature review sets out to engage with and critique the literature in building a discussion around the questions: Why do students volunteer and what support do students need to enhance their sustained volunteering participation? Attempting arguments around these questions will eventually lead to unpacking the question: What facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities?
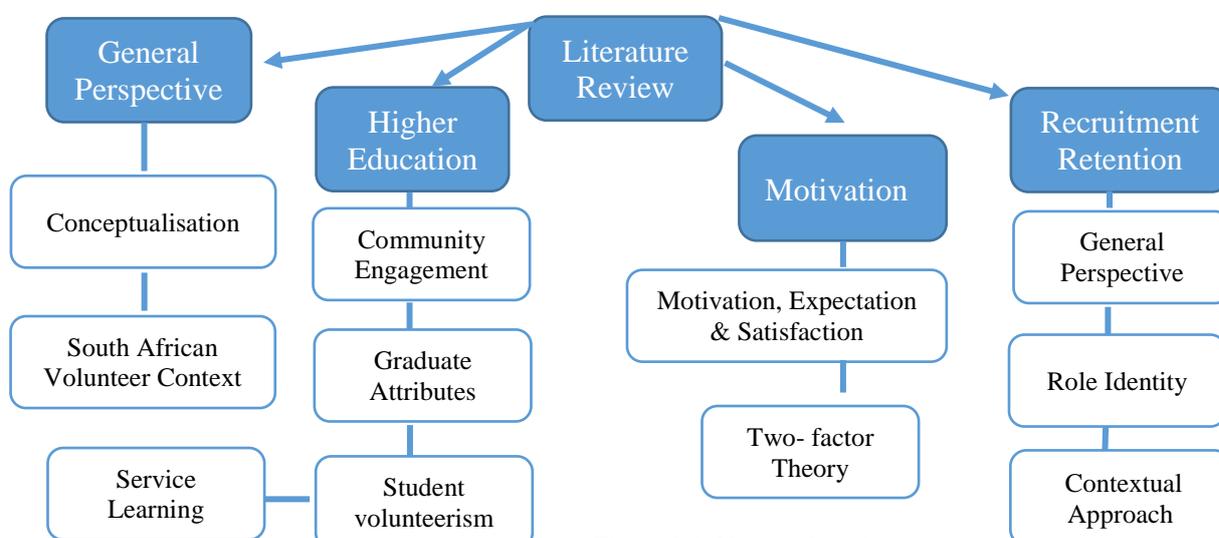
Figure 3:1 Chapter three layout

3.2   A GENERAL PERSPECTIVE ON VOLUNTEERISM

Volunteerism is a well-known global construct and one practiced extensively: understandably, the interpretation of what it means to volunteer varies across different contexts. This section aims to honour the richness of the concept of volunteerism by presenting an overall take on the phenomenon. Considering the complexity and enormity of the construct, I decided to narrow the discussion down to the conceptualisation of the term volunteerism, along with its South African context.

3.2.1   Conceptualisation

The widespread concern regarding the conceptualisation of volunteerism has led to the phenomenon being defined very differently by various groups throughout the ages. Over time, the notion of volunteerism has developed from being viewed as philanthropy to one of civic service or, otherwise stated, from a notion of charity to one of active citizenship. The term is commonly viewed by as human helpfulness, associated with care. However, volunteerism is separated from other forms of prosocial behaviour owing to its planned (not reactive) nature.

In the past, volunteers were primarily perceived as the privileged assisting the underprivileged. Volunteerism has therefore been largely situated in an *us* to *them* mentality. Lately, volunteerism is becoming more inclusive: with volunteering happening *for and by us*. Connected to the notion of volunteering being *for and by us*, a clear definition of volunteerism is becoming even more essential. The complexities and questions related to volunteerism are endless. Accordingly, a brief unpacking of the above-stated views will follow.

3.2.1.1   *Philanthropy to civic service – charity to active citizenship*

Volunteerism was first associated with philanthropy (Battistoni, 1997), and today it is increasingly likened to civic service (McBride, Benítez, Sherraden, & Johnson, 2003; Perold, Patel, Carapinha, & Mohamed, 2007). Philanthropy refers to a feeling of obligation experience by outsiders or the privileged; feeling compelled to help the less fortunate or *the other* (Battistoni, 1997), from there its association with charity. Charity elicits a feeling of superiority emerging from a "feel good giving".

The Social Justice Model for CE, as discussed in section 2.3.1, refers to charity as the initial stage of white critical consciousness development. According to this model, most privileged individuals enter the realm of volunteerism with a charity mentality. This is not wrong per se, however, a charity mentality does hold potential negative effects. It can instil a feeling of "*ag shame, poor us*" among the community members. Consequently, it can leave beneficiaries disempowered and dependent on the giver, highlighting the problems instead of encouraging possible solutions. This notion is also

encouraged by a "do for" mind-set opposed to a "do with" mind-set from the volunteers. In this sense, volunteers are not upholding the reciprocal element of social change volunteerism (Driscoll, 2009).

Ultimately, a charity orientation reinforces the status quo and curbs social change in the community. Awareness of social dynamics and an understanding of concepts such as discrimination, racism and classism are essential in order to prevent stereotypes being reinforced or assumptions about inequalities and other status quo being upheld (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). A charity approach leaves both the community members and volunteers disempowered. Volunteers are left with the perspective that the world is unfair rather than being empowered to build toward a more just society (Cipolle, 2010). It is clear that a charity approach does not promote HE's ability to transform society along with its students and staff (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011).

Drawing from South Africa's history, philanthropic acts might be considered as motivated by "white guilt". Wealth distribution in South Africa is still greatly associated with race, implying that most whites are viewed as "well-off" and most blacks viewed as less fortunate. Whites are mostly the social service providers and blacks those that are being helped. Volunteering thus becomes a means to counter the feeling of guilt of being privileged and would be expressed in a high display of the protective function (Clary et al., 1998). Considering that motives are not fixed and influenced by situations (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006), "white guilt" might have been a strong motive just after 1994, when the country entered a new era of democracy. However, white guilt might not have been a factor as argued that the tradition of volunteering in South Africa stayed relatively the same; pre- and post-apartheid (Foley, 2003). Nevertheless, as the Social Justice Model for CE states, most privileged people start volunteerism with a charity perspective. When students' experiences and interactions with the "other" are accompanied by sufficient information regarding the community they serve and deep reflection, they may move from charity to caring and from caring to a social justice frame. Motives are not stagnant and can change as the experience allows the person to change (Finkelstein, 2008; Grönlund et al., 2011; Holdsworth, 2010). A feeling of guilt can move from a negative to a positive perceived emotion like social responsibility.

Civic service, on the other hand, implies that the person is performing a service to his or her community for its improvement. It focuses on mutual responsibility, which establishes a reciprocal relationship between the volunteers and the community being served. Both parties are learning from and being empowered by one another. The process is developmental and aligned with goals of national reconstruction and development within South Africa, along with citizenship, interdependence of communities, and the balance between rights and obligations (Battistoni, 1997; Perold et al., 2007). Volunteerism is therefore a mechanism to enhance, express and learn responsive citizenship.

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Some scholars even prefer the use of the term "service" over that of volunteering, following disputes around matters of remuneration and compulsion (McBride et al., 2003; Patel, 2007). Most definitions, including that of Wilson (2000, p. 215), indicate that volunteerism is "any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group, or organisation and that offers no substantial financial reward". In this light, monetary benefits for services disqualifies the act as a volunteering act. Unemployed volunteers, as well as those living under the breadline, raise the debate about considering incentives for volunteering. As mentioned in section 1.2.2, South Africa's unemployment rate is 25.2%. Against this background, discussions are being held about whether the definition of volunteering should be reconsidered within an African context; re-evaluating the place for incentives (Perold et al., 2007). Wilson (2000) does not completely disregard incentives as he includes the word 'substantial' in his definition. This opens up a whole new debate about what constitutes substantial financial rewards for volunteering, since the word "substantial" is a relative term with various meanings in different contexts.

Although the shift from philanthropy to civic service, or charity to active citizenship, is a global phenomenon, it also depicts the process and cognitive transformation within the South African context. Active citizenship is high on the government's agenda in building towards a democratic state. Moreover, in order for volunteering to truly target the teaching of democratic values and active citizenship, the programmes must incorporate elements such as reflection, relating correct information about the community, accompanied by adequate process facilitation (Battistoni, 1997; Cipolle, 2010, Marullo & Edwards, 2000).

3.2.1.2 *Volunteerism as human helpfulness - expressing care*

Volunteerism is commonly perceived as "the manifestation of human helpfulness" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1516), a type of prosocial behaviour with the intent to benefit another (Penner, 2004). People volunteer out of genuine concern for others; "bringing ordinary ethics into extraordinary circumstances" (Cloke et al., 2007, p. 1099). Volunteerism as an "organised space of care" (Cloke et al., 2007, p. 1099) fosters interpersonal, non-structured helping, but not the other way around (Wilson & Musick, 1997). The Social Justice Model for CE identifies a sense of care as the second stage of developing critical consciousness. Within a volunteering context, a sense of care is fundamentally about the relationship between the volunteer and those they serve (Cipolle, 2010).

Care is an essential and universal value in almost all religions. Volunteer programmes are therefore a common conduit used by faith-based organisations to express this value of care (Berger, 2006; Penner, 2002). Religious people have been found to be more prone to volunteer (Gibson, 2008; Johnson, 2013) with a strong social responsibility attitude (Whitley & Yoder, 2015). Research has

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shown that religious institutions are feeder systems, as increased involvement in religious activities yield opportunities for formal volunteerism (Johnson, 2013). Thus religion as a form of cultural capital is suggested to be the social foundation of volunteering (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Furthermore, volunteering within religious institutions increases the likelihood of movement into other formal volunteering avenues over the adult life course (Johnson, 2013).

Nevertheless, warnings were signalled against reducing care to that of faith or political beliefs (Cloke et al., 2007). I am cognisant of the potential risk of such a reduction - therefore I separate care from that of a religious motivation. I argue that volunteering within a religious setting can also be motivated by motives of obligation; the need for a sense of belonging; or commitment to the church or other religious structures. The volunteering act is enhanced by both religious values (care) and social ties (church organisation) (Johnson, 2013). Thus, not all volunteering actions within a religious setting are necessarily motivated by care. Harris and Roose (2014) found that young Muslims in Australia connect elements of Islam with good citizenship. In other words, when one would like to recruit Muslim immigrant youth to participate in civic action, one would have to relate it to their faith (Harris & Roose, 2014). Their faith - the connection made between the volunteer programme and Islam - serves as motivation to participate. Their religion, combined with citizenship becomes their motives for participating, rather than general care. Similarly, immigrants in Canada were found to be more prone to volunteer at religious organisations, based on religious motives, in turn helping them gain social and human capital (Handy & Greenspan, 2009). I also distinguish a faith-based motive from that of the value function, as I argue that at times the expression of a concern for others is more strongly motivated by an evangelistic approach. In such a case, the motivation to participate is faith-based instead of purely the value function or care.

3.2.1.3 *Volunteerism as a planned, prosocial behaviour of choice*

Volunteering is not merely helping people; it is a "distinctive form of prosocial action" (Omoto & Snyder, 2002, p. 847; Penner, 2004). Accordingly, many scholars (Omoto & Packard, 2016; Penner, 2004) separate volunteering from other forms of prosocial behaviour, based on four attributes of volunteering; 1) it is a planned action; 2) it is a long-term behaviour; 3) it is non-obligatory, and 4) it occurs within an organisational setting. These four attributes are encapsulated within the definition for volunteering as proposed by Penner (2002; 2004). This notion is supported by the theory of planned behaviour, which states that a person's intentions are the closest antecedent that leads to behaviour (Ajzen, 1988).

Unlike bystander activities, volunteer actions are mostly proactive and require time and commitment as opposed to merely reacting to a present need (Omoto & Packard, 2016; Penner, 2004; Wilson,

2000). Even volunteer motives are contemplated beforehand, while recognising that motives might change over time (Holdsworth, 2010).

Volunteers do not wait for a problem to arise, but seek for volunteer opportunities without any promise of prior commitment to the people they serve (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Packard, 2016; Omoto & Snyder, 2002). Most definitions of volunteering require the volunteer to have executed a choice to whether or not he/she would partake in the activities. Even so, Grönlund et al. (2011) raise the question of whether volunteering is an individual choice, or if volunteers are obliging to social norms? It has been said that many women used to volunteer as an act of adhering to society's expectation of expressing their caring, motherly nature (Petrzelka & Mannon, 2006). However, it can be argued that not all women volunteer, and, although volunteering might become the social norm, not all people adhere to it. Whitley and Yoder (2015) also found that female liberals had a strong social responsibility attitude that in turn motivated them to volunteer - in contrast to the theory of motherly nature as motivation. Moreover, scholars like Snyder and Omoto (2008) consider these social norms as a diluter of personal choice. According to them, there should be no feelings of personal obligation or expectation. Participation in volunteer activities should be of the person's own free will and not resulting from social obligations.

On the other hand, Penner (2004) argues that volunteering is a decision and a choice influenced by a number of factors. These factors include a person's demographic characteristics such as his/her educational level and income; personal attributes, for example, a person's needs and beliefs; social pressure, like being asked to volunteer by someone you regard highly; and volunteer activators, referring to any stimuli that activates the desire to volunteer.
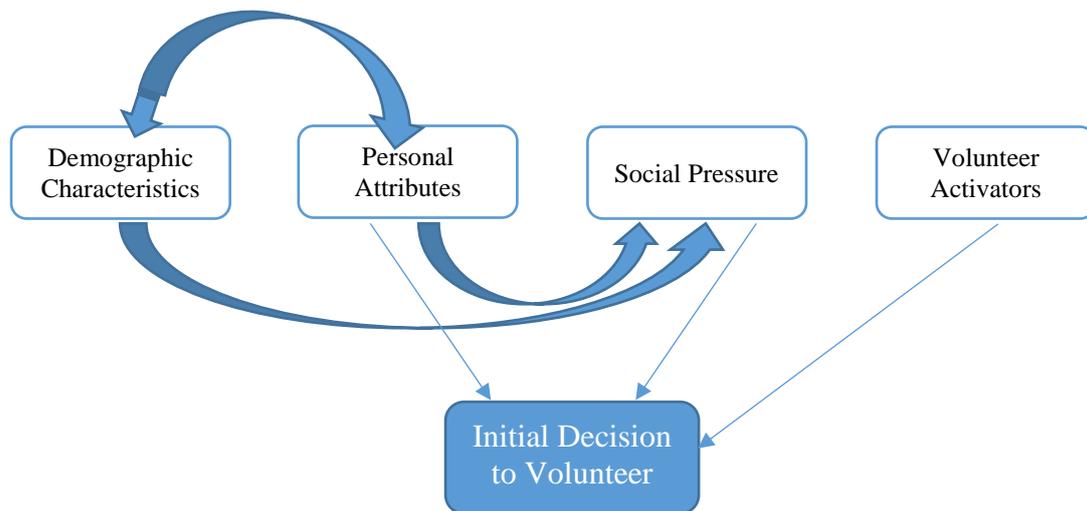
Figure 3:2 A schematic model of the decision to volunteer (Penner, 2004)

It should be noted that not all these factors are causal variables in the decision to volunteer. For instance, demographic characteristics indirectly influence a person's decision to volunteer (Penner, 2004). One can argue that people with a high level of education are assumed to be more knowledgeable and aware of global issues (Wilson, 2000), with a strong social responsibility attitude (Whitley & Yoder, 2015) that may lead to volunteer action. It can also be argued that those who earn a high income might have more free time to volunteer, and do not need any remuneration for their services.

Moreover, whether or not a person's decision to volunteer is influenced by a number of outside factors, the act of volunteering can still be viewed as a planned, prosocial action of one's own choice.

3.2.1.4   The inclusive volunteer community

The concept of an inclusive volunteer community raises the question of who volunteers. There is a general perception that volunteers do not need financial compensation for their services, and that they are skilled and knowledgeable. Research confirms that people with prestigious jobs tend to volunteer more than others (Wilson, 2000). Nonetheless, people who would generally be the beneficiaries of volunteer services are now becoming the service providers. Patel (2007) found that across five southern African countries, many poor people were volunteering. This finding questions Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs, stating that people's actions aim to, firstly, satisfy their basic physiological needs such as water, shelter and sex. After these needs have been met, people progress to working towards a stable job and saving money. According to this theory, one would not expect people to volunteer when these basic needs are not being met. In part, volunteers do not only include the have-nots in terms of material possessions, but also marginalised groups, such as the handicapped and prisoners (Gillette, 2003), as well as direct victims of disasters (Plummer et al., 2008). Also, students

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from rural villages started to volunteer in response to recognition for their new positions, and ability to give back to their communities (Geng, 2008). This illustrates how volunteering has evolved to the point where services rendered are "by" and "for" the masses (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011). In this regard, volunteering offers people a sense of ownership of both their own future, and that of their community (Gillette, 2003). Volunteering also challenges the dichotomy between us and them. People seem to be able to recognise what they have in comparison to those who have far more. Conversely, people are also able to recognise the benefits of volunteerism in satisfying their own psychological needs.

Volunteerism has progressed from the idea of "us" going to "them" - or the fortunate to the less fortunate (Battistoni, 1997) - to a more inclusive view of the volunteer community. It must be noted, however, that the notion of an inclusive volunteer community is still being conceptualised and theorised for better understanding and implementation.

3.2.2   The South African volunteer context

Research has shown that developed nations tend to emphasise the experience of volunteers, compared to developing nations, who would rather focus on the service being provided to the community (McBride et al., 2003). I argue that within South Africa the focus is equally distributed.

As mentioned in section 1.2.2, South Africa has a rich NGO culture that acts as a volunteering vehicle to address many of the social issues in the country. In this regard, the focus is mainly on the service being provided to the community. Two of the main social dilemmas in South Africa is the high unemployment rate, tied to the fact that half of the working population earns a salary beneath the breadline, only R577 per month (StatsSA, 2012). Volunteering among the youth has therefore become a means to enhance employability (Foley, 2003; Patel, 2007; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014), leaving the experience of the volunteer to become as important as the service being delivered to the community. Above all, volunteering is a twofold opportunity to alleviate poverty and address unemployment. Accordingly, the National Youth Service volunteer programmes focus primarily on the development of skill, nation-building, poverty alleviation and the enhancement of employability among the youth of South Africa (Foley, 2003). Yet, the volunteer sector made a contribution of only 20% to youth employment (StatsSA, 2011). Youth and student volunteerism in South Africa remains a catch 22 situation. With 25% of students receiving financial aid (Green Paper, 2012), it is understandable that many of them will opt for paying jobs, for example waitressing, before they choose volunteering. However, Holdsworth and Quinn (2010) found that many student volunteers have other paying jobs as well.

Volunteerism within the sporting arena has enjoyed much attention, to the point where South Africa's Sport and Recreation Department employed a full-time volunteer manager (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008). The value of volunteers at sporting events has also led to the establishment of the Varsity Volunteer initiative for South Africa, which sets out to build a vibrant volunteer culture and train student volunteers for big sporting events (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008). Volunteering at sport events is in many forms different from social community volunteering. Regardless, it does add to the overall volunteer culture within the country, where people are willing to offer their time and skill without expecting any remuneration (Wilson, 2000). In hindsight, the ethos of volunteering in terms of serving a community and a country is being boosted through sport volunteering. In a previous study, South African sport students indicated care as a strong motive for volunteering, along with social responsibility (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Additionally, students believe that they have the ability to solve problems (van den Berg et al., 2015). Similarly, the broader South African population expressed the willingness to contribute to nation-building efforts, in other words active citizenship, as a motive for volunteering (Patel, 2007). Citizenship as a motive was also highlighted as dominantly related to South Africa within a study across five southern African countries (Patel, 2007).

When speaking of services being provided to the community, it is essential to consider the discourse used by the Apartheid government to establish a divided society and impose different government responsibility on different 'communities' (Yen, 2007). The notion of community and its impact on volunteerism will be discussed in detail in section 3.3.3.1. It must be noted that community is both "*context* and *process* for volunteer efforts" (Omoto & Snyder, 2002, p. 848). With regards to *context,* it is important to consider that most communities where volunteer organisations are active are what is known as "previously disadvantaged communities". The interplay between the community and volunteers is therefore of importance to deliberate. With regards to *process*, one needs to take into account the connections volunteers have with communities, and keep this in mind as contributing factors in terms of motivation and sustained volunteer action (Omoto & Snyder, 2002).

Volunteerism and service learning (Le Roux & Mitchell, 2008) are not widely researched in developing countries like South Africa (Perold et al., 2003; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). This is concerning, since student volunteerism in South Africa is appearing to decline (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Many efforts have been made to address this need for research. Volunteer and Service Enquiry Southern Africa (VOSESA) together with the Global Service Institute, have delivered publications focusing on the latest development in service and volunteer programmes as well as policies. VOSESA's aim is to provide a platform for knowledge about civic service and

volunteering in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)[10]. Regrettably, the organisation had to close its doors due to a lack of funds. VOSESA celebrated its tenth year anniversary in 2013; unfortunately, it was also its last year of operations.

Few studies have been conducted on student volunteer motives at South African universities (Stuurman, 2008). Stuurman (2008) discovered that students' reasons for volunteering included: *Career function* - to gain entry into the honours programme; *Understanding function* - to test abilities and develop new skills; *Esteem function* - to be a role model, a sense of belonging, a substitute family, and the opportunity to form new friendships; *Social function* - social obligation, social exchange, and good organisational credibility; *Faith-based* - Christian beliefs, as well as relaxation and fun. Compared to Australian students, South African students indicated more altruistic motives for volunteering (van den Berg et al., 2015).

The role of HE has been contested, especially within the South African context, where it was called upon to help develop a democratic society and enhance its social impact. Government has steered the transformation agenda of HE institutions in three directions, namely; higher access and participation; responsiveness to social needs; and greater collaboration with all sectors of society (Erasmus, 2005). I argue that student volunteerism is a vehicle to execute HE's transformation agenda. Firstly, volunteerism in schools markets the university to learners, helping to bridge the ivory tower image. Secondly, most student volunteer programmes are aimed at addressing a societal need. Through interaction, students become more aware of the social issues and other problems – this awareness might spark new and fresh ideas for research and operational methods. As a result, students become more responsive to the needs of the greater society. Thirdly, student volunteerism allows for universities to build partnerships with organisations in the community, such as schools, clinics and NGOs. Reciprocal relationships are established between universities and communities. These connections are by no means that simple, though, and are influenced by policies and other scholarly arguments. Consequently, this chapter further discusses HE's position on the topic of student volunteerism.

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[10] SADC consists of 15 Southern African nations of which South Africa forms a part.

There are many aspects to take into consideration when unravelling the definition of volunteerism. I have touched on a few only. It is important to note that the definition of volunteerism is continuously evolving as society develops. Whereas volunteerism was typically viewed as altruistic behaviour, associated with human helpfulness, care and charity work; its definition and understanding have expanded to include broader transformational societal concepts such as social justice, civic work, citizenship and social responsibility, among others. The benefits of volunteerism have also been recognised not just for individual gain, but also for the advancement of society. Within the South African context, many societal changes have occurred, and where people initially volunteered to fight for a just society in opposition to the Apartheid government (Perold et al., 2006), volunteerism is now geared towards building a democratic country and establishing social justice. However, minimal research has been conducted on the topic of student volunteerism within the South African context (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014).

3.3   VOLUNTEERISM AND HIGHER EDUCATION

This section of Chapter three aims to depict the policies and structures related to the HE institutions within which student volunteerism is situated. Most of the interaction between HE institution and its surrounding communities is situated within the structure of community engagement (CE). The concept of CE will therefore be discussed on various levels, including the policies from which it derives, its conceptualisation, and how student volunteerism operates within this structure. Furthermore, I will discuss the notion of graduate attributes and its pedagogy to develop socially responsible citizens, amongst others. Thereafter, the focus will shift to a general discussion on student volunteerism and service learning.

By the end of this section the reader should have a clear indication of the different levels of influence (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and accountability structures that impact student volunteerism and its operations within HE institutions.

3.3.1   Community engagement within higher education

There is widespread consensus that universities should go beyond the traditional way of teaching and research. Many scholars have been writing about a socially responsible university and its function (Chile & Black, 2015; Erasmus, 2005; Gallant, Smale, & Arai, 2010; Harkavy, 2006; Ostrander, 2004). Subsequently, people have been lobbying for a constructive space where universities can accept their social responsibility and direct all efforts to having a social impact on their surrounding communities and the world.

The international CE movement was set alight at the World Conference in 1998, held by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). In response, various platforms were established, such as the Tallories Network[11]. Universities in South Africa as well as the Southern African Development Community (SADC) established the South African Higher Education Community Engagement Forum (SAHECEF), and Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA), where the notion of CE and its effective execution are debated and regulated. The latter was formed to address developmental problems beyond a national level (Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011).

Furthermore, CE within South Africa was launched through the release of the Education White Paper 3 (1997). A transformation agenda for HE was introduced, stating the three core values of South African universities, namely: Teaching and learning; research; and community engagement. CE has thus become the structural conduit for universities to expand its role and impact in society. Civic service, of which volunteerism forms part, has benefitted from the policy push in South Africa (Perold et al., 2007).

There have been many debates on the conceptualisation of CE (Hall, 2010; Muller, 2010; Nongxa 2010; Slamat, 2010). Some argue that it should form part of the third sector, thus limiting it to public goods (Hall, 2010), whereas others argue for the inclusion of private benefits for both the university and those who engage with the university, thus contesting against universities becoming development agencies (Slamat, 2010). On the other end, Nongxa (2010) reasons that we should rather celebrate the diversity in definitions.

Nonetheless, one can contend with defining CE as the interaction between universities and the broader context within which they are located (Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011). The partnership between HE

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[11] "The Talloires Network is an international association of institutions committed to strengthening the civic roles and social responsibilities of higher education." http://talloiresnetwork.tufts.edu/who-we-ar/ Retrieved 1 March 2016. All three participating universities in this study are part of this global network.

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institutions and its broader communities should be a reciprocal relationship of mutual benefits for both parties (Driscoll, 2009). Building reciprocal partnerships challenges possible spaces of exploitation and a charity mind-set, as the community is involved in the process of identifying their own needs along with development challenges (Netshandama, 2010). It also highlights the fact that both parties are knowledge partners who add various resources to the relationship to create mutual benefits (Chile & Black, 2015). Within this relationship is a "cluster of activities" used to express CE (Hall, 2010, p. 7). These activities include service learning, problem-based teaching, and community-based and participatory research that addresses specific wants and needs along with staff and student volunteer programmes (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Hall, 2010). Although there may be discrepancies in its conceptualisation, there seems to be agreement that CE should be integrated into the core knowledge generating mission of universities (Chile & Black, 2015; Driscoll, 2009; Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011).

The Education White Paper 3 (1997) emphasises HE's role in being responsive to societal needs. The Ministry of Education's National Plan for HE, released in 2001, reiterated the White Paper's sentiment, highlighting the need for universities to be responsive to current social issues. It has however been a challenge to perceive the objectives of these policies in practice (Hall, 2010). Most South African HE institutions placed CE at the bottom of their priority lists and little to no funding has been allocated to CE. Some may even claim that the gap in practice is a form of resistance to CE (Hall, 2010), whereas others ascribe this response to a "poor collective understanding of the academic profession in the 21st century" (Nongxa, 2010, p. 65). One should consider that the notion of CE in South Africa is tied to the government's transformation agenda for HE, challenging traditional mind-sets on the role of HE. A bumpy journey was anticipated from the onset in terms of the acceptance, ownership and execution of the policy.

It is clear that CE at HE institutions are managed with a top-down approach, where policies are driving the notion of a socially responsive university. Whether international, national or institutional, these policies provide structure and support for CE activities such as student volunteerism. Accordingly, student volunteerism and service learning programmes provide the space to address societal needs, and the structural support to foster active citizenship and socially responsible leaders among students (Chile & Black, 2015; Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011; Marullo & Edwards, 2000). Student volunteerism is a central part of CE but it should be noted that CE goes far beyond student volunteerism (Driscoll, 2009; Hall, 2010; Muller, 2010). In fact, some scholars have reservations about the inclusion of volunteerism as a relevant form of CE, owing to the absence of reflection and reciprocity in its traditional definition (Briere & Foulkrod, 2011). In order to achieve HE's goals of learning and being

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socially responsible, the engagement should enrich the learning of students and bring different perspectives and insights to the challenges faced by society.

The current tension between service learning and student volunteerism in terms of reciprocity might be resolved by what I term *structured volunteerism*. Structured volunteerism still differs from service learning as the activities are not per se linked to any specific academic module or curriculum. Whereas volunteerism is viewed as being on the far end of the service learning spectrum (Wilson, 2013), structured volunteerism might be a bridge between the two by incorporating reflective activities that will contribute to the student learning process. Adding to the learning component of student volunteerism, as a form of CE, is the notion of graduate attributes - to be discussed in the following section. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the term 'student volunteerism' with relevance to this thesis includes both structured and non-structured volunteering, as well as service learning.

3.3.2   Graduate attributes

Universities worldwide aim to produce graduates who are fit for the workplace, on par with international skill levels, and who are responsive citizens. Chile and Black (2015) summarise the outcomes of the UNESCO (1998) world conference papers on university's social responsibilities as follows:

Article 1

(a) Educate highly qualified graduates and responsible citizens

(b) Educate for citizenship and for active participation in society

(c) Train young people in the values that form the basis of democratic citizenship by providing critical and detached perspectives

Article 2

(d) Enhance critical and forward-looking functions

Article 9

(e) Educate students who can think critically, analyse societal problems, look for solutions, apply said solutions, and accept social responsibility (Chile & Black, 2015, p. 237).

As a state institution, universities are taking up the responsibility to shape active citizens. Student volunteerism at HE institutions can be viewed as a vehicle to address the development of graduate attributes and its alignment with national policies. The South African government has stipulated in The Education White Paper 3 (1997) that HE institutions should be producing

… graduates with the skills and competencies that build the foundations for lifelong learning, including; critical, analytical, problem-solving and communication skills, as well as the ability to deal with change and diversity, in particular the tolerance of different views and ideas (Education White Paper 3, 1997, p. 10)

Graduate attributes have since become a buzz word among university management. Demands for well-rounded graduates also originate from the working sector. Employers have challenged universities to present them with capable and suitable candidates in terms of knowledge, skill and attitudes (Clinton & Thomas, 2011). These expectations from both higher education institutions and employers are sometimes misunderstood. In answer, employers together with Government have set out guidelines for universities to be able to meet their expectations in producing well-rounded graduates. As a result, universities developed graduate attribute policies in accordance with its teaching and learning approaches.

Each university therefore sets up its own graduate attributes and strives to develop these attributes within each student throughout his/her academic life. Stellenbosch University (SU) articulates their graduate attributes as follows:

1. Shaping developed and well-rounded people whose potential is enhanced to the fullest;
2. Educating and shaping people who are competent and equipped for professional life;
3. Shaping people who are adaptable and equipped for lifelong learning;
4. Shaping people who can play a leadership role in society as responsible and critical citizens in a democratic social order;
5. Training people who are capable and equipped, through the application of their high-level skills, to play a constructive role in the responsible and sustainable development of the country and society, and who, in so doing, contribute to the well-being and quality of life of all people;
6. Shaping people who are equipped to function effectively in a multilingual context.

The University of the Western Cape (UWC) outlines their graduate attributes in the UWC Charter of Graduate Attributes. UWC groups its attributes according to global generic attributes; scholarship, critical citizenship and the social good, and lifelong learning (Barrie, 2004).

Students have become more aware of the importance of obtaining the desired graduate attributes, realising that it enhances employability. Graduate attributes add to professional broad skills: consequently students are seeking opportunities to develop these skills and attributes outside of the curriculum. Employability has thus become a motive for volunteering, as indicated by students from England (Holdsworth, 2010). Holdsworth (2010, p. 435) warns that:

"We need to recognise that volunteering will lose many of its positive attributes, that it can be fun and scary; it can take students outside their comfort zones, to meet new people and experience challenging situations. These contingent qualities of volunteering are too valuable to be lost at the expense of emphasising skills and employability alone."

Even when not being pursued directly, it is these qualities of volunteering that set one student apart from another in terms of employability. Bringle and Steinberg (2010) identify what they term as the seven core elements of the civic-minded graduate: academic knowledge and technical skills; knowledge of volunteer opportunities and non-profit organisations; knowledge of contemporary social issues; listening and communication skills; diversity skills; self-efficacy; and behavioural intentions. Civic-minded, or socially responsive graduates should thus be able to present the above listed attributes.

In part, when the attainment of knowledge is viewed as the main goal of education, the educational system fails to develop intellectual habits that foster the desire and capacity for lifelong learning and the skills needed for active participation in a democracy (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999). Combining traditional education, lectures and text books, with practical learning, such as that provided by volunteering, will result in a more rounded graduate. Volunteering thus becomes a form of active learning, and needs to be an organised part of the education system. Volunteerism including service learning courses are ideal structures to pursue within the development of graduate attributes and that of active citizenship in HE institutions.

3.3.3   University student volunteerism and service learning

Student volunteerism is a unique form of volunteerism considering that it occurs within the structure of universities. This structure currently caters for two types of volunteering: volunteer driven, student led societies, and off-campus volunteering in partnership with an established volunteer organisation (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014). Student societies are change agent vehicles at universities and are referred to as "a group dedicated to a cause in a domain such as culture, politics, or social action, guided by a constitution and elected posts" (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014, p. 410). Differences in the types of student volunteerism and its impact on students are yet to be researched.

Considering the perception that students have free time, and most likely do not need remuneration for their skill and expertise, this cohort is one favourable to volunteer. Curiously, not all students volunteer. Student volunteerism is in fact decreasing (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). A lack of time has been reported as a major constraint to volunteering (Gage & Thapa, 2011; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Other constraints that keep students from volunteering include: not knowing how to become involved (Handy & Greenspan, 2009); too many other commitments; and too many work

responsibilities (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Research suggest that students coming from high income households with low materialistic value are more likely to volunteer (Grönlund et al., 2011). Students from individualist cultures report more individual-orientated motivations, such as resume building, while students from democratic cultures report more community-orientated, altruistic motives for volunteering (Grönlund et al., 2011).

For the purpose of this study, service learning is viewed as a form of student volunteerism. There are mixed opinions among academics about the inclusion of service learning in the broader term of volunteerism. Nonetheless, most of the definitions for service learning are in agreement with one another, with a slight difference in focus depending on the organisation, learning institution or country. Definitions mainly include the notion that service learning is experiential learning or active learning where students are engaged in the learning process (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999) through doing community work relating to their course work (Beehr, Le Gro, Porter, Bowling, & Swader, 2010; Parker et al., 2009). Thus, a service learning education experience should be credit-bearing and curriculum based (Bringle & Hatcher, 2004). The service process should be reciprocal: community needs should be met and students ought to attain professional skills and a sense of social responsibility (Bringle & Hatcher, 2004; Parker et al., 2009). Hence, Bringle and Steinberg (2010, p. 428) argue that "service learning is not only about *serving to learn*, but also about *learning to serve"*.

Stukas, Snyder and Clary (1999, p. 59) refer to service learning as "mandatory volunteerism". The term highlights both the similarities (free service to the community) and differences (obligated service) between volunteerism and service learning. Some students perceive service learning as a burden or obligation, feeling they have no control over time as a resource (Beehr et al., 2010). The mandatory aspect, although not an exclusive factor (Dienhart et al., 2016), has a negative effect on students' future intentions to volunteer and their retention rate (Stukas et al., 1999). There are also arguments in favour of service learning to be included in the definition of volunteering, based on the fact that service learning is not associated with payment (Le Roux & Mitchell, 2008). Nonetheless, service learning has potential positive implications for student volunteerism. It can act as a means to address the decline in volunteerism or civic involvement (Campbell, 2000) and it has the potential to educate youth for active citizenship (Clark et al., 1997).

It is crucial to note that a *service* is being delivered and *learning* is taking place. It is thus both a pedagogical tool (Erasmus, 2005) and a transformation vehicle. The core difference between service learning and volunteering is that service learning has specific learning outcomes, deliberately integrating community service activities with educational objectives. Volunteering, on the other hand, might entail educational benefits; however, the learning process within volunteering is more organic than deliberate.

Reflection is a core part of the service learning process as it connects experience to specific learning outcomes and theory (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Netshandama, 2010). It is also considered a navigating tool (Cipolle, 2010) that helps students toward growth and informed action (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999). Moreover, reflection encourages critical thinking and teaches students to examine key concepts like discrimination, power relations, equal opportunities and freedom of expression. Facilitators of these processes should be alert to students who might not relate the above-mentioned concepts to their own perceived community, in this way creating a hypocritical space of injustices only occurring outside of the boundaries of HE (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011).

Furthermore, HE should avoid a too strong focus on learning where the benefits of participation for the students outweigh the potential contributions to communities (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2010). Student volunteer benefits should not be viewed as automatic, but should be deliberated in the context of a social justice orientation. A social justice orientation will help to unpack the controversial views on student volunteer benefits in terms of its reciprocal relationship with the community. A risk-benefit analysis should be taken for both students and the community.

3.3.3.1   *Notion of community*

Student volunteerism involves three parties: the students, the university, and the community. Unravelling the paradoxical spaces allows us to look critically at the relationship between these three parties (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). Our understanding of the interplay and connection between these groups is largely influenced by our notion of community.

Community is a complex concept with multiple nuances that add to continuous debates of its meaning. People attach meaning and understanding to the term based on their lived experiences and social associations. A community identity can, however, be defined based on a collection of viewpoints drawn from geographical spaces, a psychological sense of community, and political beliefs and practices. Moreover, when interacting with a community or group of people, it is important to note that at different times, different perceptions of community are important and that the notions of community are interrelated with one another (Yen, 2007). Community is defined within CE as "anything from a university's own staff and students and a community of practice to civic organisations, schools, townships, citizens at large and "the people" in general" (Hall, 2010, p. 2). The term is also defined within a service learning context as "those specific, local, collective interest groups that participate in the service learning activities of the institution" (Netshandama, 2010, p. 343). Drawing from Hall's definition, all three parties involved in student volunteerism are in fact three distinguishable communities that may overlap for certain individuals.

Within the context of South Africa's history one needs to note the political ideology describing community, in establishing exclusion among racial groups (Yen, 2007). Community was consequently used interchangeably with words like "race", "ethnic groups" and "people" (Yen, 2007, p. 53). As a result, the socially constructed nature of these communities was bypassed by their Apartheid ideology of difference among racial groups (Yen, 2007). This left some groups empowered and others oppressed (Rohleder, Swartz, Carolissen, Bozalek, & Leibowitz, 2008). Slamat (2010) highlights the fact that each South African University has its "traditional" community defined by race; Universities being dominated by a specific group of people. This is mainly due to South Africa's history of Apartheid and the Groups Areas Act of 1950. Consequently, the political notion of community is linked to the geographical notion of community.

The Apartheid government used to divide racial communities with streets and train tracks. I currently live on the right-hand side of such a street. Whites used to stay on the right-hand side and coloured people on the left-hand side. Ten minutes from my home, also on the right-hand side, is the engineering faculty where I teach. Approximately 200 meters from the engineering faculty is a neighbourhood where one of the service learning initiatives take place. Because of its close proximity the students were asked to walk to the site. Anxious giggles erupted in class, as some communicated fear of entering the community. I posed the question to the students, all white middle class, asking them whether they consider themselves part of the same community, considering it is one street that separated them. Off course, they had not. The geographical boundary of a street 200 metres away is a fraction of a divider in light of racial and class divides between the two communities. The assumption is often made that students are not a part of the communities they live in and where they volunteer (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011).

Often students have dual attachments to both the university community and the community they serve. It is possible that for some, the university acts as both an oppressive and a liberating space, as they become aware of being privileged and underprivileged, through the volunteer space (Henry, 2005). Community is also defined by shared interest, beliefs and language (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006). This argument highlights the recurring question: What constitutes a 'community' and 'community identity'? At times, the volunteer and the individual receiving the service is essentially part of the same community, mostly based on common interest and collective goals, as well as broader geographical boundaries. Understanding the above-mentioned notions of community largely impacts our views on volunteerism, especially when it involves above discussions on service, learning, and the implementation of values such as empowerment and social justice.

It is, however, our political notion of community that makes us feel most uncomfortable with the thought of the service provider also benefitting from the process. Investing in the personal

development of the volunteer and specifically a student volunteer, who will most likely contribute to the economic, skilled part of the country's population, entails investing into a more socially responsible citizen, who would hopefully have an impact on an even larger part of society when working in his/her profession. The pillar of social responsibility within service learning is crucial in the bigger vision of developing a country. In a study conducted by Parker et al. (2009), students expected their service learning experience to have a long-lasting impact on their lives, with more than one third of the students mentioning that they would like to continue volunteering as part of their future development (Parker et al., 2009). However, volunteering as a vehicle to a more socially responsible citizen is not guaranteed. Battistoni (1997) argues that if service learning is to be a method of teaching young people about their roles and responsibilities as citizens in a democratic society, then content and strategies must model and support democratic principles.

Nevertheless, our critical notions of community beyond just geographical boundaries have the following shortcomings: 1) We perceive a community that, in reality, does not exist; 2) We imply romanticised notions of homogeneous or unified communities; and 3) We enforce Apartheid ideologies and perpetuate racial differences (Yen, 2007). A main advantage is, however, that individuals can construct community identity and derive meaning for themselves.

3.3.3.2   *The student volunteerism impact cycle*

The preceding sections highlight various relationships and their influence on student volunteerism. Students' reasons for volunteering are shaped across multiple levels along with the institutional support needed to sustain their participation. The impact of these relationships on each other and on the broader society is briefly unpacked within this section of the chapter. Relational impact can also be used interchangeably with the understanding of volunteer benefits.
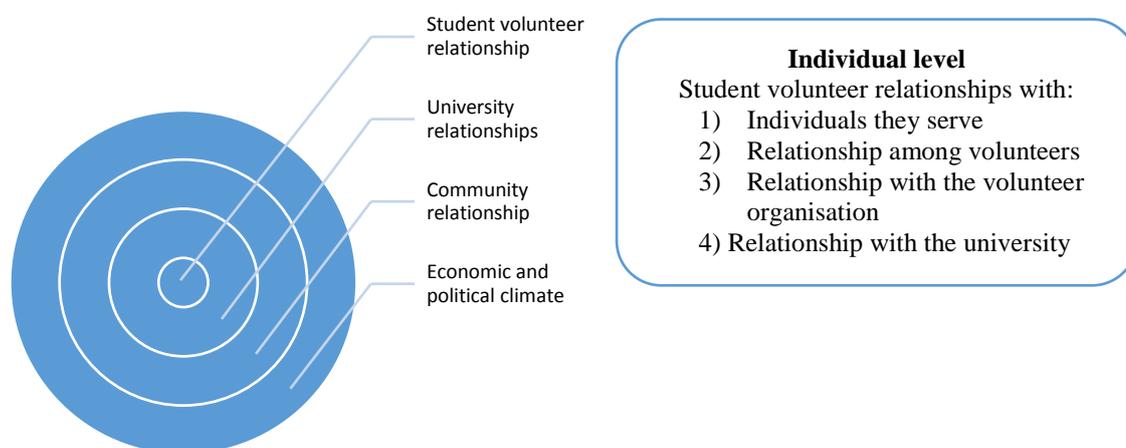
Figure 3:3 Student volunteerism impact cycle

The economic and political climate within South Africa led to the imperative construction of the Education White Paper 3 (1997). On both macro and exo levels, policies were drafted to establish and regulate institutional structures such as CE (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Regulations and policies on local government level that impacts student volunteerism should also be noted. For example, obtaining police clearance; this may take time keeping in mind that most students can only commit to volunteering for a semester, considering changes in academic timetables.

On a meso level, CE paved the way for a relationship between universities and their broader communities (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Both national policies and the relationship between the university and the broader community directly impacts student volunteerism and the student volunteer experience (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). For historical reasons, some universities do not have good relationships with their surrounding communities. In such cases, access to communities have to be negotiated by university management, staff and student leaders. When students enter communities as volunteers, they are not received as individuals, but more often as ambassadors of the university. Little research has been conducted on the benefits of a service learning or student volunteer programme for the university and the community (Eyler, 2002).

The support provided by the institution directly impacts student volunteerism. Le Roux and Mitchell (2008) argued that volunteer programmes ought to be mandated by top management structures of universities, although the success of such programmes are reliant on a 'bottom up' approach.

On a micro level, students engage in various relationships that direct their learning process. These relationships include the: 1) individuals they serve; 2) relationship among volunteers; 3) relationship with the volunteer organization; and 4) relationship with the university. Surujlal and Dhurup (2008) conducted research on sport event volunteers. This South African study investigated volunteers' perceptions of volunteer benefits. Findings show that social interaction, skill development and personal improvement are among the perceived benefits: "Building one's image were some of the key benefits derived from such social interaction" (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008, p. 112). It is also on this level where students are confronted with concepts such as power relations, discrimination, race and class. In part, the relationship with the university holds certain restrictions for student driven community projects that need to be considered.

Student volunteerism within HE is situated within the structure of CE. Community engagement is an international concept driven by policies and has specific transformational aims within the SA context. HE added the development of graduate attributes in response to requests from both government and the work sector to produce socially responsive citizens fit for the workplace. It has been debated whether service learning should be included in student volunteerism. The benefits of volunteerism are viewed within a volunteer impact cycle and the notion of community.

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3.4   MOTIVATION TO VOLUNTEER

Motivation as a construct has been broadly researched and documented. Over the ages, people have been trying to understand human behaviour. This search for understanding can be summarised in the question: Why do people do what they do? In this study specifically, I am interested to know why people volunteer. I am in agreement with other researchers (O'Dwyer & Timonen, 2009) who argue that knowing the answer to this question will help recruit volunteers, enhance volunteer participation and ensure retention.

Volunteering holds many benefits for the volunteer (Cloke et al., 2007) but it also comes at a cost. Many people who volunteer give up their time and skills, and in many instances even pay to volunteer (sometimes, volunteers have to pay members' fees, cover transport costs and contribute to programme resources). Although volunteering is a global phenomenon, not everyone volunteers.

Adding to the fascination with individual volunteer motives is the realisation that some people are recruited to volunteer, while others actively seek out volunteer opportunities. Although there are various recruitment methods, fundamentally people are asked to volunteer: a choice is being presented. Seeking out opportunities to volunteer implies that people contemplate that they want to volunteer in advance. They then actively look for places to execute this decision. Moreover, not everyone says yes to an invitation to volunteer and not everyone decides to pursue volunteerism. The question "Why do people volunteer?" has therefore been a favourite topic for many researchers (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Grönlund et al., 2011; Holdsworth, 2010; Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

Although there is a sacrificial component to volunteering, the act of volunteering is not entirely altruistic. Many volunteer out of self-interest, expecting some benefit in return. Motives are not stagnant, and can change over time (Finkelstein, 2008; Grönlund et al., 2011; Holdsworth, 2010; Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006). The environment (opportunities) as well as cultural values and life history all influence a person's decision to volunteer (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014).

Next, I discuss the construct of motivation, as it links to recruitment and retention of volunteers. I also present the two- factor theory of motivation.

3.4.1   Motivation categories

When volunteer expectations are met, it can result in volunteer satisfaction and subsequently sustained volunteer participation (Green & Chalip, 1998; Goslin, 2006). On the other hand, when volunteers are satisfied with the volunteer experience it may also lead to the termination of the volunteer act, because the purpose for volunteering has been reached. Volunteer termination following volunteer satisfaction is dependent on whether the initial motivation was external or internal (Beehr et al., 2010).

When a person volunteers with an aim to receive tangible rewards from others, such as a reference letter, volunteering is aimed at a specific goal, and becomes a means to another. When a student volunteers for personal career gains only, he/she might decide to volunteer for two months in order to be able to add the experience to a CV. After two months, the student will leave the organisation. Such motives are viewed as external or extrinsic motives. On the contrary, when an individual volunteers to receive intangible rewards, such as praise or the mere satisfaction of performing the task, motives are considered to be internal or intrinsic. A student who is internally motivated and is specifically looking for praise from his/her parents for doing something of purpose, might be engaged in the activity for longer, as receiving praise or recognition is an ongoing motivation. Such students are more prone to be impacted by the process of reflection and interaction, with other volunteers and those they are serving, and thus more likely to develop alternative motivations. Externally motivated students are not necessarily disqualified to enter the process of developing critical consciousness. The longer someone participates in a volunteer activity, the more opportunity there is for encounters that might change initial motivations for volunteering (Cipolle, 2010).

Beehr et al. (2010) mentioned that student motives for volunteering are mostly external. However, only the career function matches the extrinsic motivation's criteria, as it requires an outcome outside of the act of volunteering to be satisfied (Finkelstein, 2009), and most other studies reported that the more prominent motive for volunteering is linked to the value and understanding functions (Gage & Thapa, 2011; Grönlund et al., 2011).

When students are motivated by the career function one can use this motivation to enhance commitment. I previously managed a community project where we required student volunteers to have an 80% attendance rate in order to qualify for a certificate as proof of participation, or to request a reference letter. The students were also advised not to record the fact that they volunteered at that organisation on their CVs, unless they could present a certificate. The criteria were created because we knew some students' motives for volunteering would be linked to the career function. This measure was established to ensure volunteer attendance for the entire year and to enhance commitment. According to the external motives theory, the student would only be satisfied once he

or she received a certificate and reference letter. Furthermore, the career function is the only function that does not correlate with volunteer constraints (Gage & Thapa, 2011). Thus, if a student volunteers for career reasons, neither structural nor interpersonal constraints would prevent the student from reaching his/her goal (Gage & Thapa, 2011). However, external motives do not lead to the development of prosocial identity or a positive volunteer self-concept (Finkelstein, 2009). Also, when students are externally motivated, it inhibits the development of social justice values. External motives are ways to enhance commitment, but not so much sustained participation.

Other categories of motives can be pleasure-based or pressure-based (Gebauer, Riketta, Broemer, & Maio, 2008). Pleasure-based prosocial motives refer to those motives that generate pleasure; pressure-based motives are those where an obligation is being fulfilled. Volunteering does not automatically have a positive effect in terms of well-being, but a positive effect is related to pleasure-based motivation (Vecina & Chacón, 2013).

Self-determination theory (SDT) offers another perspective in categorising motives as either self-determined or controlled (Güntert, Strubel, Kals, & Wehner, 2016). Previous research indicates that motives related to value, understanding and social justice were positively associated with relatively self-determined motivation, opposed to the other functional motives (Güntert et al., 2016). Only these three motives were not encouraged by some form of control or pressure. Motives that are self-determined or intrinsic are viewed as high quality motives, resulting in more favourable outcomes such as well-being and performance (Güntert et al., 2016). Self-determined motives can be both intrinsic and extrinsic as in the case of the understanding functional motives.

Internal Intrinsic Pleasure-based Self-determinded	• Volunteer to receive intangible rewards • Volunteer motives generate pleasure • Positive effect on well-being • Rewards are ongoing, thus behaviour is sustained
External Extrinsic Pressure-based	• Volunteer to receive tangile rewards - an obligation is being fulfilled • Volunteer motives are to fulfill anobligation • Does not form prosocial identity

Figure 3:4 Motivation categories

Multiple studies on the topic of volunteer motivation have been performed around the globe. In England, it was found that students do not necessarily volunteer for CV purposes or even as wanting to do a good deed. Students were found to be reluctant to have their volunteer acts perceived as being all about furthering their CV or altruism (Holdsworth, 2010). Holdsworth (2010) argues that employability might be more of a planned benefit than a motive to volunteer. Holdsworth (2010) included questions such as making friends, meeting new people, networking, acquiring skills and work experience, as indicators of employability and a motive for volunteering. Three of the functional motives thus relate to employability namely; understanding, esteem and career. These three functional motives were prominent in a study conducted by van den Berg and Cuskelly (2014), and might be viewed as support to the theory that among some South African students, employability is a motive for volunteering.

Furthermore, it is important to investigate recruitment and retention of student volunteerism from the angle of constraints (Gage & Thapa, 2011). Constraints experienced by South African students appear to be mostly external factors, such as lack of opportunity and no easy access to transport (van den Berg et al., 2015). Interpersonal constraints have been found to correlate with all the functional motives except the career function, whereas structural constraints correlated with the value and understanding functions (Gage & Thapa, 2011). In part, students who experience interpersonal constraints – for example, not having anyone to volunteer with; friends do not volunteer; or not being asked to volunteer - will be less motivated to volunteer. Also, those who experience structural constraints - not having enough time; having too many other commitments; or lack of transport- will be less motivated to volunteer if they are motivated by the value and understanding function. These constraints affect both recruitment and retention. Understanding volunteer motives and expectations are essential to secure volunteer satisfaction in order to best recruit and retain volunteers.

3.4.2   Two–factor theory of motivation and satisfaction

The two-factor theory of motivation and satisfaction, first mentioned by Herzberg et al. (1959), proposes six factors as motivators that relate to job satisfaction. These six factors include: recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, responsibility and work (Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg (1966) also mentions ten de-motivators relating to job dissatisfaction. Swanepoel and De Beer (2006) summarised the ten de-motivators into six factors namely: restricting policies and rules; poor working conditions; poor leadership; lack of acknowledgement; absence of good interpersonal relations; and poor tangible returns. This theory implies that people are both motivated and demotivated at the same time, resulting in an experience of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The mentioned motivational components of the theory can also be translated as organisational support factors to ensure a positive atmosphere for volunteers in order to keep them motivated and satisfied.

There are other motivational theories, such as the self-determination theory (SDT), which aims to understand and explain job satisfaction. SDT argues that when people's universal psychological needs are satisfied - to be competent, autonomous and related to others - it leads to well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2014). This and other theories will be presented against the backdrop of the above-mentioned motivational and de-motivational components within the context of student volunteer organisational support.

Motivational components	De-motivational components
Achievement - the need to understand that your efforts are producing results	Restricting policies and rules
Work - a reasonable return for doing a good job	Poor tangible returns
Responsibility	Poor leadership
Recognition - shared credit	Lack of acknowledgement
Personal growth	Absence of good interpersonal relations
Advancement - promotion opportunity	Poor working conditions

Table 3:1 Two-factor theory of motivation: Comparison of motivational and de-motivational components

(Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006)

3.4.2.1 *Motivational factors*

Community volunteer projects are normally aimed at addressing social issues, for example the alleviation of poverty and skill development. This factor relates to the value function where students volunteer because of a concern for others or a specific cause such as education (Clary et al., 1998). Volunteers have the need to feel that they are making a difference. They also need to feel a sense of **achievement**, and have their efforts be construed as producing results. It is therefore important that the organisation continuously communicates its vision and mission and explicitly explain how the volunteers are helping to achieve these goals. Achievement also relates to the esteem function and the psychological need to be competent (Deci & Ryan, 2014). This has a positive domino effect: when people experience a sense of achievement, it leads to a feeling of competence, which in turn leads to the enhancement of self-esteem, and elicits a feelings of being important, ultimately constituting job/volunteer satisfaction. Volunteer organisations should try and communicate achievable short term goals to volunteers in order to tick off as something that has been achieved. Tutoring volunteer programmes could opt for once-off projects, such as painting a wall at the school, as a way of establishing short term achievable goals, as it is not always easy to note the difference you make in tutoring programmes.

Also, volunteers want to know that they are valuable to an organisation. The quality of their work should matter to the organisation. Because volunteers are not tangibly remunerated for their work, payment in **recognition** and other forms of compensation should amount to a **reasonable return** for

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doing a good job. One can relate this factor to the esteem function, because some students volunteer in order to enhance their self-esteem (Clary et al., 1998).

Additionally, volunteers want to know that they are part of something bigger than themselves and that they are not just doing odd jobs. For this reason, it is recommended that project leaders delegate certain **responsibilities** to volunteers. The more ownership the volunteer experiences, the more motivated he or she will be to do a good job. When people are responsible for certain tasks, they feel responsible to commit, otherwise they will let the organisation and the community down. If they do not have responsibilities, they may argue that they can come and go as they please, for their presence will not be missed. Students also volunteer because they want to learn more about the cause they are supporting, gain new perspectives, or explore their own strengths, relating to the understanding function (Clary et al., 1998). Students will be unable to obtain this knowledge if they are not hands-on and responsible for tasks - provided with the space to take initiative and make decisions. This also adds to a sense of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2014).

When volunteers have responsibilities and participate in decision-making, with a form of ownership in the projects, they also need to **share the credit** when organisational goals are achieved. Acknowledgement of work performed with excellence, or work that added to the desired results, is essential. Project leaders therefore inculcate a sense of achievement and dignity in their volunteers.

A central reason why students volunteer is **personal growth**, which is encapsulated in the esteem and understanding functions. Students want to know that they are growing as a person and that they are learning through what they are doing.

In addition, people have a natural progressive nature. Thus, projects need to provide opportunities for volunteers to be promoted within the organisation. Volunteers want to be able to climb the leadership ladder within the project, moving from a weekly volunteer to a group leader, to a day leader and to being part of the committee, and ultimately to a project leader. These possible advancement opportunities are great retention elements, as they are goal-oriented personal growth indicators. If there are no promotion opportunities, volunteers might experience boredom; a feeling that they have reached the ceiling of the organisation; or that they have reached a barrier to use their full potential within the volunteer setting.

3.4.2.2 De-motivational factors

Project leaders also need to be purposeful in trying to eliminate or mitigate the existence of de-motivational components. There are many **restricting policies and rules** that may hinder progress. Volunteers may become despondent when there are organisational rules that prevent them from moving forward. One such potential restricting policy is legal documentation required when working with minors, such as police clearance. Police clearance is in itself a positive way of protecting children, but within a volunteer context it limits volunteer participation because it is such a lengthy process, and many student volunteers can only commit for a short period of time.

Volunteering means giving up your time and rendering your services for free: when working conditions are not up to standard, volunteers may become de-motivated. **Poor working conditions** may also include logistical aspects such as lack of transport. Other conditions such as safety concerns may also cause volunteers to weigh the sacrifice as too big. Project leaders should communicate the challenges surrounding safety and availability of toilets, and try and compensate for it.

Project leaders are the driving force of the operations of the project. Thus effective and strong **leadership** is essential for any successful service learning and volunteer programme (Briere & Foulkrod, 2011). When leaders are not organised and the communication between themselves and volunteers is insufficient, volunteers may feel that their efforts are a waste of time. Leaders need to provide guidance to volunteers for the effective execution of programmes as well as the process of their own development and empowerment. Swanepoel and De Beer (2006) emphasise the importance of communication and motivation within a group or an organisation. The researchers tie effective communication to effective leadership, correlating leadership with motivation and mobilisation. In their opinion, more attention should be paid to leadership in the process of motivating people to action and sacrifice. It would thus be important to consider leadership and communication strategies during volunteer recruitment phases, as well as during the programme, in order to motivate and retain volunteers.

Lack of acknowledgement is on the opposite end of the motivation factor, and is linked to the need for recognition. People want to know that the work they do is of value and being noticed. In a study by Campbell et al. (2009), conducted in rural SA, various obstacles to youth civic participation were identified, for example, lack of meaningful inducement, like recognition, and few opportunities for personal growth and skill development. Volunteers are not recognised by a system, but by people. Relationships are key in any volunteer organisation. When these relationships are not healthy, it prohibits the volunteers from forming a sense of belonging and building a strong volunteer role-identity. These **interpersonal relations** include both the relationship between project leaders and volunteers, as well as the relationship between volunteers. One of the reasons mentioned by student

volunteers for volunteering was that the project was a 'substitute family'; they felt a sense of belonging and were able to make new friends (Stuurman, 2008).

Volunteers do not receive any valuable **tangible return** for the services they deliver, considering that finances are viewed as the best tangible reward. Volunteer organisations thus need to ensure that all the motivators are in place and that volunteers do obtain the appropriate non-tangible returns for their work.

3.5   VOLUNTEERISM: RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

Motivation is not the only factor that links to recruitment and retention. Hence, this section of the chapter specifically sets out to discuss these additional factors. I start by introducing the idea of being predisposed to volunteer, along with general recruitment factors. Next, I explain the theory of role identity, and continue with a contextual and organisational approach to recruitment and retention.

People are dissimilarly predisposed to volunteerism (Penner, 2004). Factors like education and salary level and personal traits, among others, have an impact on a person's decision to volunteer. Future focused individuals are more likely to volunteer (Maki, Dwyer, & Snyder, 2016). Likewise, those from a higher socio-economic status are more likely to believe that volunteering is important and are more likely to be asked to volunteer (Wilson & Musick, 1997). On the contrary, black people may present lower volunteer rates than white people because they are less likely to be asked (Hodgkinson, 1995). Neufeind et al. (2014) also proposed that justice disposition such as belief in a just world can predict the extent of volunteering.

People carefully consider whether or not they will participate in volunteer actions, therefore one can argue that persuasive appeals might act as a recruitment tool (Penner, 2004). Subsequently, one of the biggest motivators for people to engage in volunteer work would simply be saying yes to being asked to volunteer (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011). Asking is therefore the first step of the recruitment process. Asking can occur in numerous ways and on multiple platforms, such as direct (face-to-face) recruitment, pamphlets, radio and television advertising, using social media tools, or posters. Recruitment can be construed as a marketing campaign of the organisation and its services. The goal of a recruitment strategy is to bring about awareness of an organisation or a social concern, and to invite people to join. People are unable to respond to a need for volunteers if they are not aware of the fact that volunteers are needed. Studies have shown that "not knowing how to become involved" was a constraining factor for not participating in volunteering actions (Handy & Greenspan, 2009; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014).

Factors like finding the right number of suitable people interested in becoming volunteers, at the right time, are also key to effective recruitment (Williams, 2001). Volunteer intakes and recruitment drives

should be specific to the societal patterns of the group you are recruiting from. For instance, a university year is divided into two semesters. Students normally plan around a semester as timetables change between semesters. Within this context, having two recruitment drives, one at the start of each semester, would seem sensible. Recruiting too many volunteers is not recommended, as it may increase the possibility of volunteers not feeling needed in an organisation, in turn leading to volunteer attrition.

Organisations should use cohort specific strategies to recruit and facilitate potential volunteers. Volunteerism is life course specific in terms of resources needed for volunteering. Older cohorts rely on human capital and social integration to expand volunteer hours and organisational involvement, while younger people need more spiritual and social support (Tang, 2006).

Vecina and Chacón (2013) suggest that it is useful to investigate the consequences of a behaviour to explain why people keep on doing what they do. In other words, we need to be aware of the benefits of volunteering to help direct retention efforts. Motivation is also strongly tied to benefits (Güntert et al., 2016). The functional approach argues that people volunteer to fulfil a function (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Thus, one's motivation to volunteer is to obtain a certain benefit. Benefits are both objective and subjective and include psychological well-being, physical health and skills enhancement.

3.5.1   Role identity: recruitment and retention

A substantial number of research has been conducted on the impact of role identity on volunteerism. Some argue that role identity (Marta & Pozzi, 2008) and level of commitment (Finkelstein et al., 2005) are the two best predictors of a person's intention to volunteer. In terms of role identity, a person forms a prosocial identity, and prosocial behaviour is thus not an act but a state of being. Likewise, when a person volunteers he/she may develop a volunteer role-identity, indicating that being a volunteer has become part of the person's identity. Such a person will therefore sustain his or her volunteer involvement. In terms of recruitment and retention, Finkelstein et al. (2005) suggest that 1) existing volunteers share their experience with members of organisations to which they belong in order to recruit people, for example churches and civic groups; 2) volunteers focus on cultivating a volunteer role identity as a retention effort; 3) there is appreciation of events recognizing the efforts of the volunteers; and 4) t-shirts or other items are provided that allow volunteers to be recognized for their contribution in public. If these four suggestions are implemented, it can strengthen role identity and increase recruitment and retention.

I once organised a volunteer t-shirt day for one of my projects. The project ran three days a week: we realised that the Monday volunteers did not know the Wednesday volunteers. We wanted to build

project awareness on the university campus, as a recruitment strategy, and also we aimed to build a stronger sense of what we termed family- a sense of belonging- among the various volunteer groups. All the volunteers were asked to wear their volunteer t-shirts on a set day, with the instruction to high-five (a hand-slapping gesture) anyone wearing the same t-shirt, asking their name. With over 100 active volunteers, this strategy created enormous curiosity. Referring to the suggestions by Finkelstein et al. (2005), I would argue that the act also contributed to the strengthening of volunteer role identity. The project was held in high regard on campus, contributing to a sense of pride for being a volunteer associated with the project.

On the flipside, within a strong volunteer identity, volunteering can become habitual and therefore might shift away from the cause at hand (Cloke et al., 2007). Thus, if volunteer programmes are not rooted in social justice and active citizenship, a mere volunteer identity poses risks.

3.5.2   A contextual and organisational approach to recruitment and retention

Both dispositional variables and organisational support (Hidalgo & Morena, 2009) are important predictors of long-term volunteerism among the youth (Marta & Pozzi, 2008). Volunteerism is mainly explained by theories that focus on individual attributes like motives, rational action, social connections and organisational activity. Less attention has been paid to contextual effects on volunteering, such as the impact of organisational (van Vianen et al., 2008, Willem et al., 2012), community and regional characteristics on individual decisions (Wilson, 2000). Taking contextual effects into account, calls for an ecological approach to volunteerism (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Lewin, 1952).

An understanding of human behaviour can aid in effective prediction of who will join an organisation. Lewin (1952) explained human behaviour with the formula B = F (P, E). Behaviour is equal to the factor of the person and the environment. To fully understand behaviour, one has to consider both the person and his or her environment. By understanding behaviour, one can alter and direct behaviour. Within a university setting, there might be multiple contextual reasons for a student to engage in volunteerism. Some students might volunteer because their residence assigns a certain percentage placement point for volunteering: the students can earn extra placement points by volunteering, giving them the option to choose a single room for the following academic year.

Students have countless opportunities available to them to volunteer, necessitating the establishment of a person-environment fit between the student and the organisation in terms of vision, mission and values. The correct person-environment fit can result in volunteer satisfaction and commitment (van Vianen et al., 2008). When a volunteer's personality attributes match that of a prototypical member

of the volunteer organisation, it will increase the chance of more satisfaction and commitment to volunteer work (van Vianen et al., 2008).

Briere and Foulkrod (2011) mentioned six factors that contribute to the sustainability of community volunteer projects: inclusive goal setting (reciprocity/ownership); common good and altruism (volunteer motives); reflection (volunteer learning component/navigation tool); leadership (organisational support); flexibility to change; and commitment (sustained involvement). These factors can also be translated to recruitment and retention factors, as volunteers are a large component of determining a project's sustainability (Finkelstein et al., 2005).

Inclusive goal setting relates to the core element of CE, namely reciprocity. The activity should be a joint partnership with the community, where the community defines its own needs and share in mutual benefits (Driscoll, 2009). When student volunteers participate in this process, they are exposed to the viewpoint of the community, and the interaction allows for a deeper awareness of others (Cipolle, 2010). Furthermore, as it is important for the community to have a sense of ownership of the project, it is equally important for the volunteers to share in decision-making and responsibility in order to sustain involvement.

Potential volunteers' decision to volunteer is affected by what they can contribute to the organisation and the organisation itself (Penner, 2004). The characteristics of the organisation are therefore important, along with the exchange between the volunteer and the organisation (Penner, 2004).

Volunteering mostly occurs within an organisational setting (Omotto & Snyder, 1995; Penner, 2002). When referring to volunteer retention, we are arguably also discussing the retention of volunteers in terms of the specific organisation that they signed up for. It is therefore understandable that organisational factors would be a big contributor to retention strategies. There are discrepancies in the research on how organisational and other factors relate to retention. Some suggest that volunteer commitment towards the organisation is the core variable that predicts volunteer retention (Chacón et al., 2007), but motivation does play a role in the earlier stages of volunteering (van Vianen et al., 2008). Yet others (van Vianen et al., 2008) found that organisational personality fit correlates with effective commitment, but not with retention. This implies that although one can increase commitment by ensuring personality fit, it does not mean that it will impact a volunteer's decision to stay. Other scholars (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995) support the notion that volunteer satisfaction and commitment relates to sustained volunteering.

Part of the solution to the problem of volunteer turnover may lie in developing a better understanding of the process through which volunteers become motivated to work in an organisation (Dhurup & Surujlal, 2008). Attitudes toward an organisation play a role in whether or not a potential volunteer

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will sign up to volunteer (Penner, 2002). These attitudes will also lead to retention as so far as volunteers form ties with an organisation and might therefore be reluctant to terminate their volunteer contract.

3.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Volunteerism is a universal activity that has been conceptualised and construed from different perspectives throughout the ages. I therefore debated various notions of volunteerism. However, not all notions are warmly welcomed within student volunteerism. Attempts are made to move perspectives of charity to that of social justice and active citizenship. The general feel is still that volunteer behaviour stems from care as an expression of our humanness, however volunteerism is not an all altruistic act. Volunteering holds crucial benefits to both the volunteers and those they are serving. Volunteerism is also moving to a more inclusive volunteer community where service are rendered 'for the people, by the people'.

Unemployment and other social dilemmas faced by South Africans pose a threat to volunteerism in the country. The need for volunteerism to be accompanied by some form of remuneration is a topic of discussion on various platforms. The benefits of volunteering as a means to improve employability have become essential in the South African context.

The epistemology and theorising of volunteerism in HE are becoming increasingly important. Student volunteerism in its practice at HE institutions holds both valuable benefits as well as critical challenges. It can either expose the paradoxical spaces of universities or perpetuate injustices and other forms of oppression. Student volunteerism is strongly linked to constructs such as graduate attributes and the development of social justice values. There is agreement that these outcomes cannot be reached without sufficient intervention and support from universities. Nevertheless, support structures such as guided reflection and volunteer support staff are not always visible within university structures. Volunteerism is being supported by government and university policies, but it should be noted that effective volunteer programmes are driven from the bottom up where staff, students and community members all play an important role.

Motivation, as an antecedent to the volunteer process, is the starting point of any recruitment and retention strategy. Motivation is linked to volunteer expectations, while expectations in turn are related to volunteer benefits. The two-factor theory for job satisfaction was applied to a volunteer organisation. Motivation and demotivation factors were linked to organisational support factors that are required to sustain volunteer involvement. These factors were also linked to functional motives. A volunteer role-identity is also found to be related to recruitment and retention, along with additional contextual and organisational factors.

Understanding the construct of motivation and its related theories will help answer the question of why students volunteer? Student volunteerism does not occur within a vacuum. It is situated within HE, its structures and related policies. Community engagement as a pillar of HE houses student volunteer activities. Having a clear understanding of the above and how it influences student volunteerism will help construe what support students need to enhance their sustained participation in volunteer programmes. Incorporating the above within the South African context ultimately contributes to an understanding of what facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities.

The following chapter aims to provide a comprehensive account of how the study was conducted by discussing data collection and analysis. A holistic picture of the philosophy and methodology that were employed are also presented, together with other related elements.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter four provides a comprehensive description of the methodology employed in this study. I start by presenting the underpinning research philosophy used to guide the research process. As a researcher, I wear an ontological and empirical lens embedded in constructivism, where the basic assumption is that reality and knowledge are constructed rather than discovered. This paradigm is also referred to as an interpretive framework due to the view held that reality is interpreted through the experiences of people.

A detailed discussion of the research design and methodology is provided. The study embraces a multi-instrumental and multi-level case study design. Data were triangulated by the use of various instruments and techniques as well as different participants. Subsequently, I made use of a mixed methodology that included both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

I continue by presenting a step by step explanation of the research procedures used in this study. It should be noted that the entire research process sets out to investigate student motives for volunteering along with the organisational and institutional structures supporting student volunteerism within the South African (SA) context.

My personal background's relevance to the topic of investigation is reflected upon in the section called reflexivity. This section is included in acknowledgement of the experiences and values that I, the researcher, bring to the research process. I end this chapter with a discussion of the ethical considerations addressed in the research.
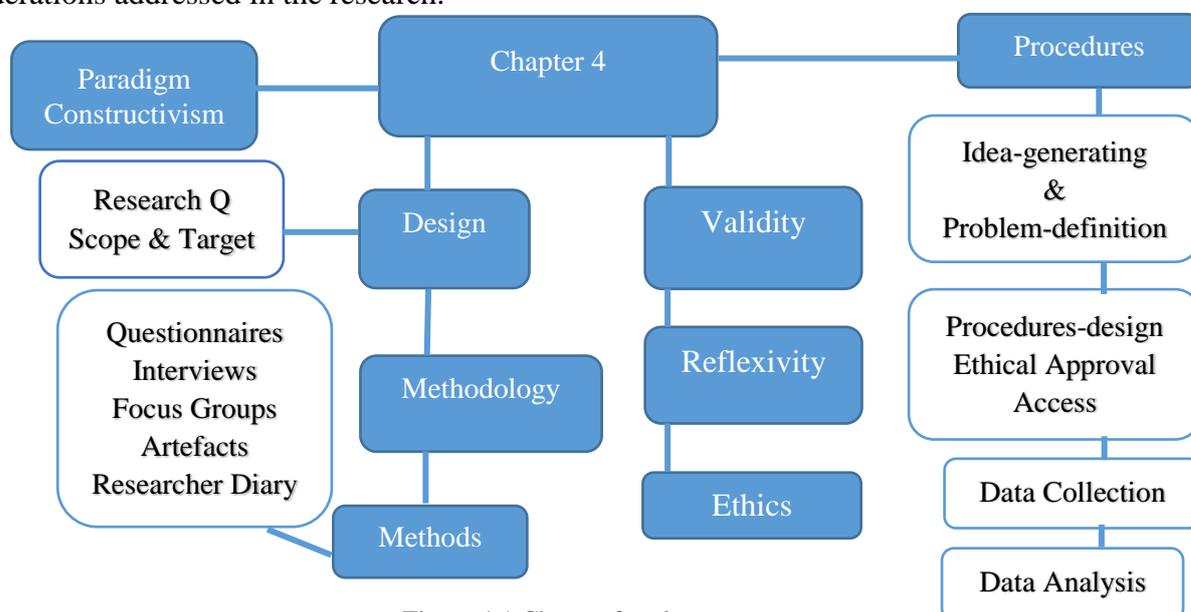
Figure 4:1 Chapter four layout

4.2 PHILOSOPHICAL BACKGROUND

This section recognises that the research process started long before the data collection stage. This part of the chapter invites you, the reader, to engage in the knowledge process of how decisions were made. It introduces the research paradigm from which most decisions were made (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thereafter, a discussion on objectivity and power relations within qualitative research is presented. This argument is included taking into account the consideration that both the researcher and the participants are subjective beings (Alvesson, 2002; Harvey, 1990; Merriam, 2009; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010).

4.2.1 Constructivist research paradigm

A paradigm is known as a "basic belief system or worldview that guides the researcher" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 105). The researcher's assumptions of knowledge and reality ultimately lead to his or her thought patterns. The research paradigm adopted by the researcher therefore directly influences decisions made within the research process (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Paradigms offer a viewpoint of science that addresses questions of ontology (assumption on reality), epistemology (knowledge) and axiology (values) - the research methodology flows from this (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Maxwell, 2013). Over the years, thought patterns and ways of interpreting and explaining the world (world views, philosophies and paradigms) have highlighted a distinct ontological perspective. Within the postmodernist[12] worldview, reality is constructed through the interpretations of people as opposed to an external discovery. Moreover, the postmodern worldview relates to a constructivist paradigm.

Ontology

What is reality?
What does it look like? (Form & nature)
Where does it come from?
(Single or multiple)

Epistemology

Where do I fit into reality?
What is the relationship between myself and what can be known?

Researcher

Axiology

What are the underlying values that shape the research and the phenomena being studied?

Methodology

How do I reach what can be known?
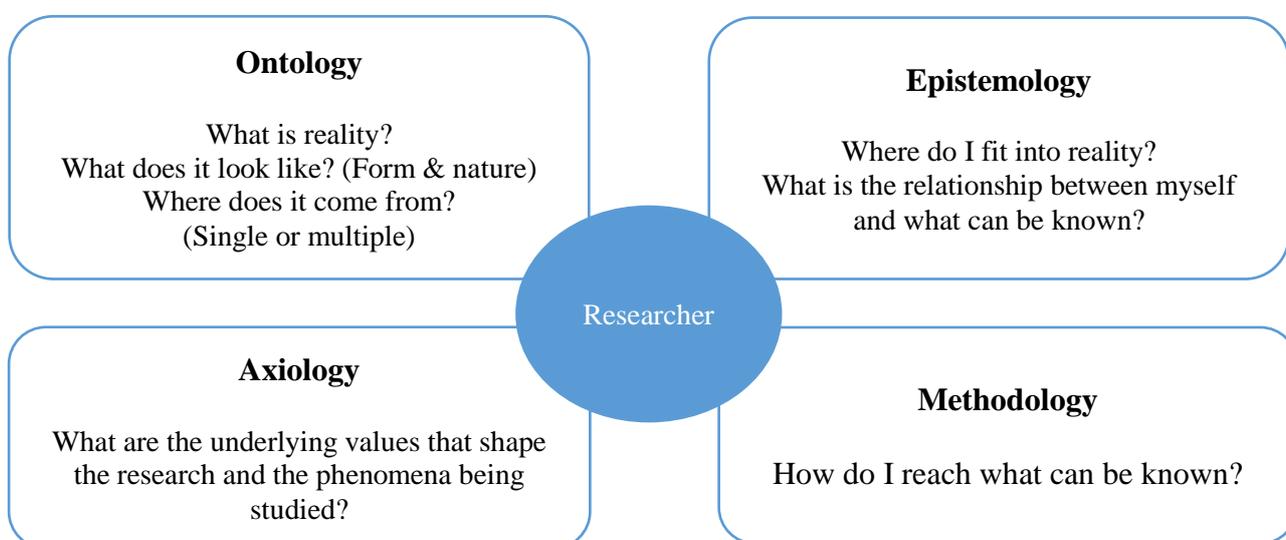
Figure 4:2 Questions leading to define paradigms (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010)

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[12] Postmodernism is a worldview whereby layers of meaning are created within multiple interpretations which lead to the construction of knowledge (Raskin, 2002).

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Constructivism was first and foremost a learning model before it became a research paradigm (Cobern, 1993). It challenged the view that people learn by transmission. Instead, it promotes the stance that learning is an interpretive process. We learn as we try to make sense of what we experience.

Initially, many were drawn to constructivism due to its perceived simplicity. However, several branches of the thinking pattern have evolved and for various people the term means something different (Cobern, 1993). Consequently, there are different forms of the paradigm expressed as personal, social and radical constructivism (Raskin, 2002). Moreover, within this study I work from a general constructivist perspective. The paradigm is discussed based on the questions of ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology. The discussion follows a specific order, noting that the ontological assumptions led to the epistemological assumptions, and axiological views gave way to the methodology employed in the study (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

Ontology is the philosophy around the basic assumptions about reality and truth. Constructivist argue that there is no single external reality (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010). Reality is primarily based on people's experience within their context. Reality is thus relative to the people who participate in the study. Hence, the phenomenon (volunteerism) is construed from the perspective of those directly involved (volunteers and supporting staff).

Constructivists reason that meaning comes from interpretation as opposed to mere sight, implying that meaning cannot be attributed to an objective reality. A rugby ball, for instance, is known to be a rugby ball based on history, its practical use and its form. However, John might interpret a collection of plastic bags compacted and tied together as a rugby ball. He might have been using this invention as a rugby ball for years and might never have seen a rugby ball as we know it. John's reality is constructed by his interpretation of the plastic bags based on his past experiences and beliefs. For John, the collection of plastic bags compacted and tied together *is* a rugby ball and thus his reality. In another instance, someone might recall skydiving as a fearsome experience and another as exhilarating. The constructivist researcher will therefore describe and interpret both as real and correct from the view of the participant. Nonetheless, constructivism does recognise a shared reality through which reality is socially negotiated (Raskin, 2002). Reality is thus socially constructed by the interaction of individuals (Mertens, 1998). Moreover, constructivists assume that a single event can be interpreted through multiple realities.

The fact that constructivism is so strongly embedded in relativism is one of its main critiques (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010). However, constructivism does not entirely deny that there is an external reality (Jonassen, 1991). It simply states that people construct their own reality by interpreting experiences of the external world. It should also be noted that although this view of constructivism is in opposition

to positivism[13], it is not an example of solipsism. Solipsism[14] is on the far end of the continuum, stating that "the mind can only know its own interpretation and that reality is individualistic" (Jonassen, 1991 p.7). Moreover, constructivism is a middle way between the two extreme opposite views of positivism and solipsism.

Furthermore, an **ontological** constructivist view implies that the researcher gathers information from those directly involved (volunteers, project leaders and supporting staff). The research provides a voice for all active volunteers and leaders and then searches for a shared reality amongst all the individual interpretations of their experiences.

Epistemology is concerned with the relationship between the researcher and what can be known, and therefore addresses the question "What is knowledge?" Constructivists assume that the researcher and the participants are interrelated, both influencing each other (Mertens, 1998). People partake in processes of interpretation and explanation of their own and other's actions: in this light, everyone engages in the process of knowledge construction. Therefore, I did not enter the study as an expert: however, I entered into a joint process of knowledge construction with the participants. Consequently, participant ideas and interpretation were not measured against outside interpretations, but were incorporated as new knowledge gained.

Axiology pertains to the nature of ethical behaviour (Mertens, Homes, & Harris, 2009) and values. Constructivists state that research is influenced by values but not driven by it. Based on its ontology that there is no single reality and its epistemology that the researcher and the participants are interrelated and that both are part of the knowledge construction process, constructivists do not acknowledge one party's values above another. Therefore, it is not value driven per se. It should be noted that, within this study, decisive guidance was applied to the execution of the research, based on the values of community psychology.

Methodology is the way in which data is collected and is therefore the practical result of the ontology, epistemology and axiology. Owing to constructivism being embedded in relativism and the importance of people's experience, the primary source of data is people's words (Merriam, 2009; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010). Accordingly, the majority of the research is qualitative in nature (Mertens, 1998). Participants' interpretations of their reasons for volunteering were required to

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[13] Positivism defines the world by fixed laws of cause and effect (Muijs, 2004). Research is thus objective and removed from the researcher.

[14] Solipsism is the philosophy that only the self is real and that knowledge of anything outside the mind is "unsure", thus the self cannot be aware of anything else except itself.

answer the research question. Therefore, self-reporting, open-ended questionnaires, along with interviews and focus groups, were applicable to this study.

However, constructivism does not use qualitative methods exclusively, but also acknowledges the use of quantitative methods (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010). The use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single paradigm has been deliberated among scholars (Bryman, 2008) in what may be referred to as 'paradigm wars' (Maxwell, 2013; Muijs, 2004). Many argue that qualitative and quantitative methods are underlined by different worldviews, with the one being subjective (qualitative), and the other being realistic and objective (quantitative) (Muijs, 2004). Plowright (2011) rejects the notion of qualitative and quantitative methods. He argues for an integrated methodology framework that challenges the idea of only one method being embedded in one paradigm.

This research used the Likert scale method to gather volunteers' subjective opinions in a guided and structured manner, expressed in numerical form. This method is quantitative in nature due to the fact that numerical data is being collected (Muijs, 2004). The quantitative component of this research was employed to triangulate data gathered by qualitative means. The Likert scale items formed part of a questionnaire that also included open-ended questions on the same topic. Consequently, it provided more depth of insight and understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

4.2.2   Objectivity within qualitative research

Social science concerns itself mainly with the study of phenomena that directly involve human beings. Not only are the participants human beings, but so is the researcher (Alvesson, 2002), acting as a "filter through which data are collected, organised, and interpreted" (Lichtman, 2006, p. 202). Consequently, as researchers, we are never fully removed from the entire research process (Merriam, 2009; Muijs, 2004). My one friend used to say 'I am not an object, so I am not objective.' Hence, objective observations within the social science domain can be considered a myth. The observations made by the researcher are socially situated in both the worlds of the researcher and the participant (Alvesson, 2002).

I realised that as a qualitative researcher, I was still trying to defend my tacit knowledge gained through my experiences, as if my study is being viewed in a quantitative setting. It becomes clear that possible researcher bias needs to be accounted for. However, we also need to learn to celebrate the researcher's experiential knowledge as valuable added data (Maxwell, 2013). Nevertheless, I have included self-disclosing sections within the thesis where I reflect on my personal views of the research, to be seen in sections 1.8 and 4.2.1. During the research process, I also critically reflected on myself and discuss my considerations in section 4.8.

4.2.3   Power relations within research

Awareness of the subjectivity of both the researcher and the participants brings about awareness of possible power dynamics displayed on various levels and in multiple forms. These relationships are interplayed by culture, economics, politics, history and other social constructs (Kagan et al., 2011).

Most participants within this study were undergraduate university students. I had to be aware of the hierarchically perceived power given to a PhD student in relation to that of an undergraduate student. Power dynamics come into play when comments made as researcher or PhD student are perceived as carrying more weight compared to that of the participants. It is when a participant would agree with the researcher due to his/her academic position.

On the other hand, Ballamingie and Johnson (2011) refer to the concept of researcher vulnerability - a place where the researcher is left powerless by the participants – in terms of time and availability, as well as providing the documents needed and being on time for degree purposes. Within the interview process, the researcher is normally viewed as the one who needs to be aware of power dynamics and influences in relation to the participants. However, throughout the research process the researcher relies heavily on the participation of the participants to successfully complete the process. In this regard, the participants hold the larger part of the power or control over the research. I had instances within this specific research process where I literally felt disabled in terms of participants' responses. It was impossible to work within a time frame for data collection, as these processes relied on the participants' cooperation. There were instances where I was on my way to collect the data and only then was I notified that they were no longer available for that day. Other instances involved multiple emails, telephone calls and visits without success of establishing interview times.

Kagan et al. (2011) thus correctly argue that power relations operate reciprocally, implying that both the researcher and the participant has power over each other, although the balance of power might differ at different times of the research process. Awareness of these possible power relations are critical in order to try and counter the effect it might have on the richness of the data gathered and the authenticity and honesty of the research process.

The power dynamics do not only play out between researcher and participant, but also among participants, especially within focus group dynamics. Here the "power at play" might not be caused by academic levels but socio-demographic constructs such as race, gender and even language. Demographical differences and the perceptions thereof may lead to a lack of trust. People may also feel as if they have to fake 'good' to show themselves in the most positive light, which may lead to what would be viewed as socially approved answers.

Within the constructivist paradigm and qualitative research, the research process is viewed as a co-production of knowledge between the researcher and the participants (Karnieli-Miller, Strier, & Pessach, 2009; Mertens, 1998). This epistemological perception of knowledge production helps to minimise power dynamics between the researcher and the participants. Above all, an atmosphere of trust should be established between the researcher and the participant in order for the participant to feel free and comfortable to share his or her story. Power relations are managed through recognising its existence along with self-reflection, awareness of self and others.

4.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design presents an overview of the methods chosen and the reasons for the choice made (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Within this thesis the entire research design is divided into sub sections namely 1) research design, 2) methodology, and 3) methods. The research design sub section therefore includes the research problem statement, providing a description of what led to the research question. Thereafter, the research question is stated. Next, an overview of where the research took place is provided (location of the research), as well as who the participants in this research were (target group).

4.3.1   Research problem statement

The core challenges related to volunteering were mentioned in the previous chapters. These challenges included factors such as unemployment and poverty, as well as the lack of funding within the NGO sector, that relies heavily on volunteers for its existence. Against this background, it is important to understand why people volunteer, who volunteers, how to successfully meet volunteer expectations, and how best to manage volunteers in efforts to recruit and retain them. Having a well-researched framework for recruitment and retention of volunteers will help organisations to be more effective in their volunteer programmes. As mentioned earlier, the current research also fills a gap in the literature as little research is available on recruitment and retention of student volunteers. Furthermore, even less research on this topic has been conducted in the global south, and a decrease in youth volunteerism has been noted (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014).

4.3.2   Research question

The research question within this study consists of both primary and secondary questions in its quest to explore the phenomenon of student volunteerism and specifically the aspects of recruitment and retention. Consequently, it aims to clarify what the study intends to understand (Maxwell, 2013). The secondary questions aim to ultimately answer the primary question: What facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities?

The secondary questions ask:

1) Why do students volunteer?

2) What support do students need to enhance their sustained participation in volunteer programmes?
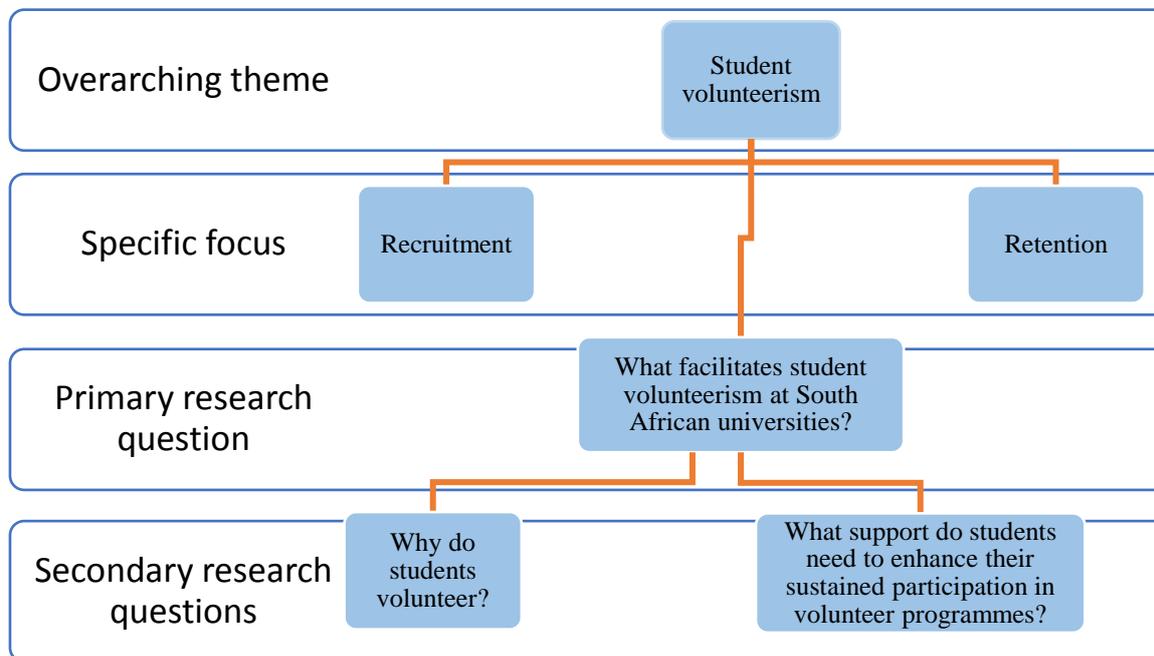
Figure 4:3 Research question layout

The construction of the research questions can also be explained by the implementation of the volunteer process model. The volunteer process model (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Omoto et al., 2010) consists of three stages, namely, the antecedent, experience and consequence stages. The stages are accompanied by three levels of analysis - the individual, organisational and social system levels.
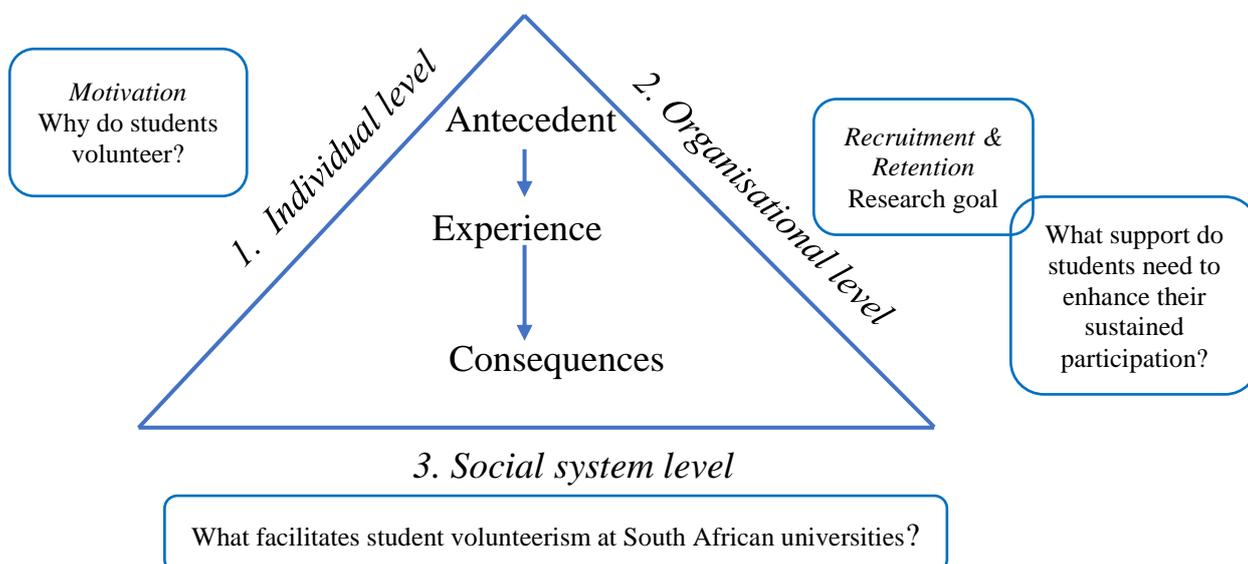
Figure 4:4 Research question linked to the volunteer process model (Omoto & Snyder, 1995)

At the individual level, the model calls attention to the activities and psychological processes of individual volunteers. The secondary research question of why students volunteer is thus situated on this level. At the organisational level, the model focuses on the goals associated with recruiting, managing, and retaining volunteers. The research goal that aims to compile guidelines for effective recruitment and retention of university student volunteers within South Africa, is therefore situated on this level, along with the other secondary research question that asks what support students need to enhance their sustained participation. At the social system level, the model considers the linkages between individuals and the social structures of their societies, as well as collective and cultural dynamics. It is on this level that the primary research question is positioned, examining what factors will facilitate student volunteerism at South African universities.

The reasons for volunteering are linked to the first stage of the volunteer process model, namely the *antecedent* stage. The second stage, the *experience* of volunteers and whether or not volunteer expectations are being met, will ultimately lead to the *consequence* - whether volunteers will be retained. Organisational support is pivotal for creating a positive volunteer experience and meeting volunteer expectations. The research question is therefore structured in such a way that it relates directly to the entire volunteer process.

4.3.3 Scope of the research

Participants consisted of enrolled students from three Western Cape universities. Six volunteer community projects were selected as case studies. Two of the case studies were associated with one of the three Western Cape universities. Two measures were set in place to ensure confidentiality: 1) case studies are referred to under pseudonyms, and 2) associated universities are also cited under pseudonyms.
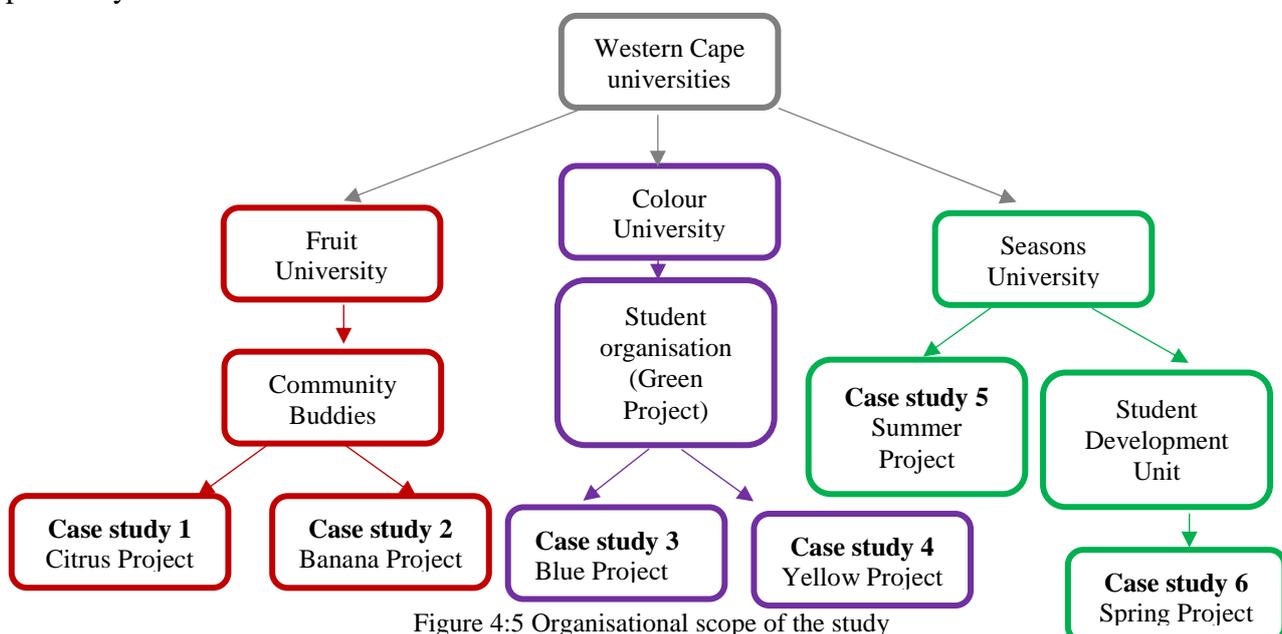
Figure 4:5 Organisational scope of the study

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4.3.4   Target group

The target group can be divided into three focus areas or levels of inquiry. University based community projects were used as case studies. Within these case studies attention was given to the project leadership and student volunteers. The study also considered the impact of the university culture, therefore adding a focus on specific university staff involved in student volunteerism.

1. University based community projects

A total of six university based community projects were enlisted in this study. Two of these community projects were respectively linked to one of three universities in the Western Cape. All six projects made use of student volunteers. University management who are directly involved in student volunteerism was approached. Five interviews were conducted with strategic university staff members from each university.

- Season University – two interviews
- Fruit University – one interview
- Colour University – two interviews

2. Project leaders

Interviews and focus groups were held with the leaders of each of the community projects. In total three focus groups and thirteen interviews were conducted.

- Case study 1: Citrus project – one interview and one focus group
- Case study 2: Banana project – four interviews
- Case study 3: Blue project – one interview and one focus group
- Case study 4: Yellow project – four interviews
- Case study 5: Summer project – two interviews and one focus group
- Case study 6: Spring project – one interview

3. Student volunteers

Seventy active volunteers across the six case studies completed the questionnaire. The criteria for volunteers answering the questionnaire were:

- Volunteer must be enrolled as a student at one of three participating universities.
- The individual must be an active volunteer in one of the projects selected in the study.

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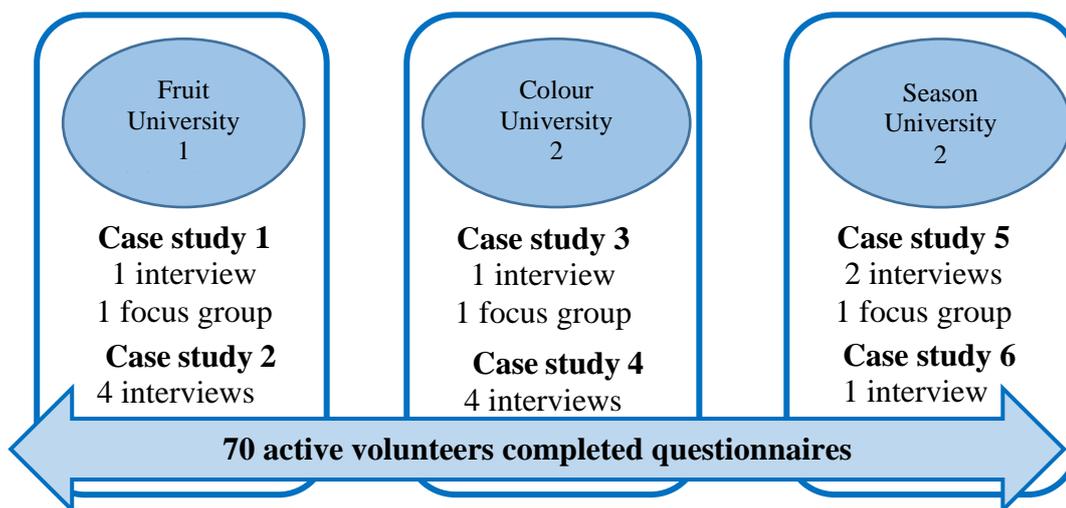
Figure 4:6 Visual presentation of the target group

4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

An appropriate methodology to both the researcher's paradigm and the research question is essential (Somekh & Lewin, 2011). Constructivists argue that reality is constructed by the individual through his or her interpretation of the world. Participants convey their reality through their words. Taking this theory into consideration, this study is mostly qualitative in nature.

The research question at hand aims to investigate a phenomenon that is complex (Holdsworth, 2010) and subject to change. Therefore, in order to best understand and explore the phenomenon under investigation, I decided to incorporate a variety of methods. As a result, the process of inquiry can be defined as a mixed methodology (Creswell, 2009), multi-instrumental and multi-level, (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) case study design, where parts of the data were triangulated.

4.4.1 Mixed methodology

Within this study, employing a mixed methodology refers to the fact that both quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry were used (Bryman, 2008). Making use of both methods have several advantages. Firstly, it provides a more comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon studied (Creswell, 2009). Secondly, it allows the researcher to explore and explain the findings. Thirdly, it compensates for the weaknesses of both methods (Bryman, 2008; Creswell & Clark, 2011) considering that the data were triangulated.

The study is, however, mostly qualitative in nature, with the use of different methods. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously as the data were triangulated. Moreover, qualitative and quantitative data were compared in order to establish any similarities or dissimilarities.

Arguments against the use of a mixed methodology were presented based on the notion that research methods are linked to paradigms and thus carry epistemological commitment (Bryman, 2008). All the same, others argue that constructivism as a paradigm welcomes both qualitative and quantitative methods (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010). I concur with Plowright (2011) that the methodology of this study is more of an integration than a mere mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches, as parts of the qualitative data were also quantified by adding numbers to written statements. Plowright (2011) argues that one should be focused on characteristics of integration, focusing on how different elements were unified into a coherent whole (Plowright, 2011).

4.4.2   Multi-instrumental case studies

This research study consists of multiple case studies within a bounded system (Creswell, 2007). A case study is a design (Simons, 2009) that may be used to conduct a research study. Case studies are used to explore the individuality of a single case (Simons, 2009). The case therefore is viewed in its uniqueness in a set space and time. The six cases used in this study were approached as instrumental case studies, as the main goal was to gain understanding of the subject of student volunteerism (Stake, 1995).

When conducting case study research, two central questions are asked: "How does this work?" and "Why did it work like that?" Within this study, I examined six different case studies in an attempt to answer a specific research question. In addition to asking, "How does this work?" and "Why did it work like that?" I also asked:

- "What is similar across these different case studies?"
- "What is different and why?"
- "Are there any patterns or themes that can be identified?"

Within the use of multiple cases, the case study approach therefore becomes more that only exploratory, since it searches for themes across case studies as it aims to answer a research question. It is advisable to avoid generalisations (Silverman, 2010); for this reason, no fixed conclusions were made. Instead, recommendations and suggestions were made in response to the findings. Nonetheless, due to the fact that the six cases are multi-variant, it may simulate conditions that may be applicable (Patton, 2002) and transferable (Merriam, 2009) to other organisations.

The case study design (Yin, 2009) was considered the most appropriate approach to answer the research question, because of this design's aspiration to understand the complex social phenomenon of student volunteerism. Purposive sampling was applied as case studies were selected by specific criteria and not solely based on convenience and accessibility. Two community projects at each participating university were chosen as a case study. The criteria for the case studies included: 1) the

volunteer should be associated or in relationship with one of the participating universities; 2) the participant must be a student volunteer; 3) the participant needs to be volunteer who attends on a regular basis; and 4) the volunteer must provide an ongoing service within the community.

4.4.3 Multi-level case study

The study is multi-level: data were gathered at three levels that can be viewed as different participant groups (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). In this study, the levels are as follows:

1) Individual level (student volunteers);
2) Organisational level (project leaders);
3) University level

On the first level, data were gathered by means of a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of three sections: 1) demographic information, 2) closed Likert scale questions (Clary et al., 1998; Greenslade & White, 2005) and 3) open-ended questions.

On the second level data were gathered by means of semi-structured interviews with various community project leaders. Annual reports were also perused and included in my interpretation of the findings. On the third level, data were collected from affiliated university representatives using semi-structured interviews and a review of community engagement reports of the universities involved. The third level explored extended organisational (university) support for volunteers.
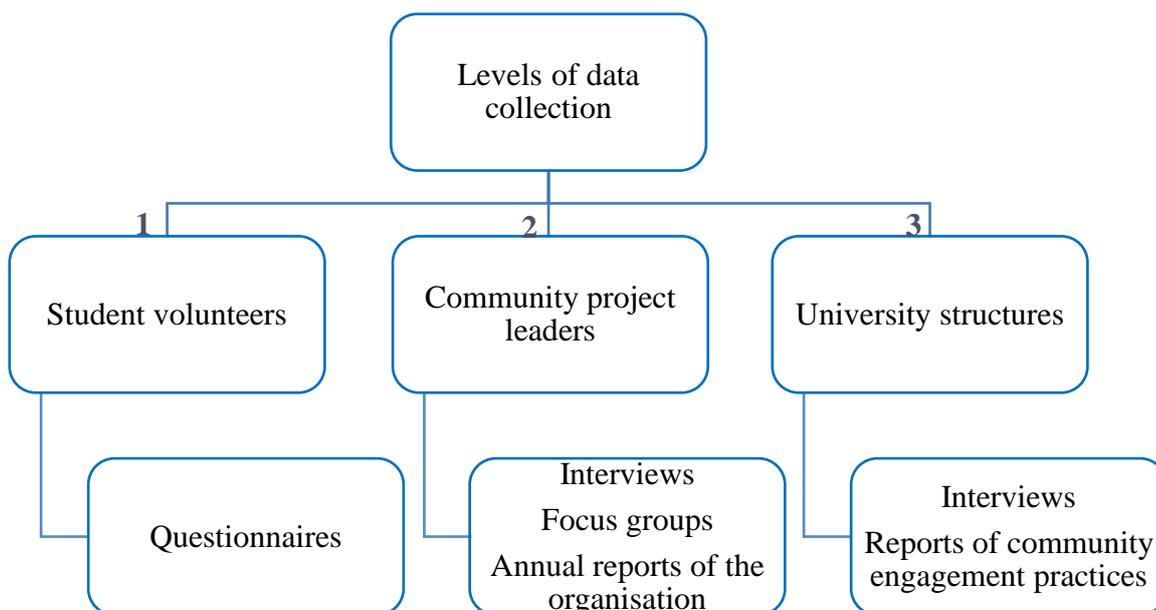
Figure 4:7 Levels of data collection in this study

The case study design allowed me to investigate the unique context of every case (Flyvbjerg, 2011). It assisted in broadening my perspective of the context involved in shaping opinions as well as

motivations. The fact that it was a multi-level case study provided me with an ecological perspective to the phenomenon being studied. It also positioned me to be able to link causes and outcomes (Flyvbjerg, 2011).

4.4.4   Triangulation

Triangulation is the use of different data collection techniques and / or sources within one study (Saunders et al., 2009) with the aim to strengthen the study (Patton, 2002). In other words, data can be cross checked for credibility and reliability (Merriam, 2009), which may lead to richer insights into the topic of student volunteerism. I used two forms of triangulation, namely multiple sources of data and multiple methods (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002; Saunders et al., 2009). The different sources included student volunteers, organisational leaders and university staff. The methods comprised of a Likert scale questionnaire, open-ended questions, as well as interviews and focus groups, all targeted at an investigation into student motivation for volunteering and the support needed to sustain involvement. Furthermore, triangulation provided comprehensive data from different angles: I could examine where the different data overlap. This intersection of data could be interpreted as the "true" state of affairs (Silverman, 2010).

4.5   RESEARCH METHODS

The mixed methodology employed in this study is embedded in the research paradigm. Constructivism welcomes both qualitative and quantitative methods in the discovery of what can be known. However, the means by which data were collected and analysed were largely situated within the qualitative methodological framework. Different methods were used including: questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, the researcher diary and artefacts. These methods were triangulated in order to present different ways of investigating the phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2009; Silverman, 2010).

4.5.1   Questionnaires

Data were collected from active volunteers by means of questionnaires. Questionnaires were chosen as a method because it is less time-consuming and more than affordable than interviews. The active volunteers were the largest group of participants, as 70 questionnaires were completed across the different participating projects. The questionnaire also provided the space to incorporate both quantitative and qualitative questions in the form of a closed Likert scale section and an open-ended section.

The questionnaire used in this study was constructed by the researcher. Clear basic instructions were provided as an introduction to the questionnaire. The instructions included an explanation outlining

the study as well as guidelines on how to answer the questions. The questionnaire[15] was divided into three parts: 1) demographic participant information, 2) closed Likert scale questions assessing motives for volunteering, and 3) open-ended questions. The open-ended questions were set to verify or bring into question the data retrieved from the closed Likert scale questions.

Section one allows the researcher to answers the question: "Who volunteers?". The demographic information includes questions on age, race, gender, academic year of study, course the volunteer was enrolled in, how long the volunteer was volunteering at the project, if the volunteer was part of a service learning programme, and if the volunteer volunteered at any other project before volunteering at the participating project.

I would like to briefly discuss the inclusion of race in the demographic section. The questionnaire has five boxes representing different race groups from which the participants could select one. These race groups are as follows: White, Black, Coloured, Indian and Other. These classifications were based on the old Apartheid Population Classification Act of 1950-1991[16]. I am aware of the fact that this might have caused some form of uneasiness among some participants. Owing to holistic approaches followed within this study the inclusion of race as set in the questionnaire was crucial, however. Firstly, it would present the opportunity to offer statistics around racial distribution among volunteers, as some research on volunteers in the global north has suggested that it is mostly white middle class men (Yarwood, 2005) who volunteer, whereas in a southern African and local community based contexts, it appears that mostly black, poorer women volunteer (Patel, 2007; Perold et al., 2006). This racial demographic among student volunteers in the global south may be interesting in the context of the literature. The same argument can be made in terms of gender, as women appear to report 'helping others' to a larger extent than men, thus supporting arguments that care is rooted in gender role definition (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

The Likert scale section of the questionnaire presented the participants with statements and questions where they had to indicate if they strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). This section was not constructed by the researcher. It was incorporated with the permission of Greenslade and White (2005)[17]. The Likert scale questions are a version of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) by Clary et al. (1998) that sets out to assess motives for volunteering based on functionalist theories.

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[15] The questionnaire is attached as Appendix 3.

[16] Individuals living in South Africa were classified under this Act during the Apartheid era. A person's rights were determined based on his or her classification.

[17] Permission letter to use the closed Likert scale is attached as Appendix 2.

According to functional theorists, the six motivation functions are good determinants for the prediction of both reasons to volunteer and reasons to remain volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). I decided to use the functional approach due to its broader conceptualisation of social influences by including aspects of perceived pressure from others as well as social benefits.

The questionnaire was self-administered, meaning the participants were required to read and answer the questionnaire by themselves (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Graziano & Raulin, 2010). Having self-administered questionnaires were appropriate for this study since the participants were sufficiently literate (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) to read and interpret the questions and adequately construct written answers.

The questionnaire was developed in English. Due to the fact that the participants were university students I made an informed decision that English as a medium would be accessible to all. However, I am cognisant of the fact that South Africa has eleven official languages and that the participants were not necessarily all from within the Western Cape area. The Western Cape area has three predominant main languages, namely English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa. I had the option of translating the questionnaire in the above-mentioned three languages, but that would not have necessarily represented the home languages of all the participants. I therefore decided to only use English as the language for the questionnaire since it is also mainly used as an academic language for university students at the three institutions included in the study.

Questionnaires in general hold some weaknesses for data collection. Owing to the fact that it is self-administered, it means there are limited interaction with the researcher while answering the questions. Participant answers can thus not be cross-examined and explained if not properly construed by the researcher. The settings in which the questionnaires were answered may also have added to acquiring superficial and rushed answers with the lack of context. The use of questionnaires can be validated by the researcher when taking into account the advantages and shortcomings of using a questionnaire in this study.

In order to avoid ambiguity, I used simple words and conducted pilot tests with three student volunteers from non-participating projects. Based on the feedback from the three student volunteers, alterations were made to the questionnaire. I tried to keep the questionnaire as short as possible, however it amounted to being four pages long. The response rate of the questionnaire was determined by the number of volunteers on the day of data collection, and not volunteers signed up for the project.

The time and place for the completion of the questionnaire were negotiated with project leaders. I was present at selected sessions of data collection, when volunteers completed the questionnaires.

Presence of the researcher can be both an asset and liability: because my presence varied, I will not discuss its influence on the data gathered.

4.5.2   Interviews

"The interview is a conversation, the art of asking questions and listening" (Fontana & Frey, 1994, p. 353). I conducted eighteen semi-structured interviews. Knowledgeable participants were selected to be interviewed. Although I entered the conversation with a list of pre-determined questions (Saunders et al., 2009), a space was provided for a free flow of conversation. I would listen carefully to what the participants said and would ask questions based on the conversation (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). At times, questions were added to the list, or some questions were held back, depending on the conversation (Saunders et al., 2009).

The authenticity of the interview method was brought under contention. Questions were posed, such as whether data obtained from interviews can contribute to the study of social realities (Silverman, 2010). Some argue that one cannot perceive the narratives gained from interviews as "truth" since it is context specific (Miller & Glassner, 2004). Within this study I accounted for Miller and Glassner's argument by employing a case study approach using multi-methods and by presenting a description of the context. However, the context within an interview stretches far beyond organisational settings. The interaction and relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee also accounts for context. Social identities of the interviewer such as race, gender, education level and class contribute to situated understandings of the conversation and data obtained (Fontana & Frey, 1994). To address these realities, I included a discussion on the notion of objectivity within qualitative research (presented in section 4.2.2) and paid attention to the awareness of possible power relations that might have influenced the responses of interviewees (discussed in section 4.2.3). I also kept a researcher diary (reflection on this process in section 4.8).

I infused relational principles when I conducted responsive interviews. These relational guidelines encompassed the building of a mutual trust relationship that was not dominated by the researcher and that outlasts the period of the research (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Another principle incorporated was to establish reciprocity between myself and the participants, where we gave of ourselves in terms of providing answers and sharing personal information and experiences. As a result, I embarked on the research process as a stranger to the participants and walked away as a friend.

Interviews were conducted with various leaders and role players within the participating projects. All interviews were voice-recorded and transcribed in a Word document. Transcripts and researcher interpretations of the transcripts were presented to participants for member checking. The interviews

were semi structured, meaning I made use of an interview guide to help navigate the conversation with the aim of answering the research question.

Interview Guide

Date:
Setting:
Participant:
Observations:

Introduce myself and the study
Complete the informed consent form

Explain your project: operational structure, vision, mission, goals
Explain your role in the project.
Explain the project's recruitment and retention strategy.
Elaborate on volunteer's commitment levels toward the project.
What factors might contribute to low commitment and participation levels?
Is the project open for service learning students and how would they enter the project?
Why do you think students volunteer at this project? What motivates them?
What may hinder students from volunteering at this project?

Figure 4:8 Interview guide used for semi structured interviews

4.5.3   Focus groups

A focus group takes the form of an informal interview where the researcher facilitates an organised group discussion (Lichtman, 2006). Three focus groups were conducted in this study. Some of the case studies had students leading sub programmes in the project. I therefore decided to have a focus group with these programme leaders. Factors such as deciding on the size of the group, number of groups or the composition of the groups (Lichtman, 2006) were not applicable as the focus groups were formulated within the structure of the case studies. Doing a focus group with the group of leaders was time and cost-effective compared to interviewing every leader separately (Stewart et al., 2009).

There are several advantages to using focus groups: a) participants tend to feel empowered (Neuman, 2011) as the interaction with fellow participants can elicit thoughts and ideas (Lichtman, 2006); b) the setting offers the opportunity for participants to question or explain their answers to one another (Neuman, 2011), as well as build on the responses of other group members (Stewart et al., 2009); c) the open-response format provides for a large and rich amount of data in the participants' own words (Stewart et al., 2009); and d) the researcher has the opportunity to interact directly with participants and observe non-verbal responses (Stewart et al., 2009).

However, the outcome of a focus group may be one-sided if there is a very dominant or opinionated member (Stewart et al., 2009), and appropriate care must be taken to encourage all participants to

engage (Creswell, 2007). Another challenge faced with focus groups is the identification of participants' voices when transcribing the interviews. Regardless of the potential challenges, conducting focus groups was deemed appropriate and beneficial within this research design.

4.5.4 Artefacts

Data were retrieved by means of mute evidence (Hodder, 1994). Different to the methods mentioned previously, with mute evidence, the relationship with the object being studied is one of interpretation only. These written texts cannot converse, but it can tell us a lot about the history, culture and structures of the participating projects (Hodder, 1994). Where possible, I perused the project reports and websites.

4.5.5 Research diaries

I kept a research diary to help me tie the process together. Moving from one university and project site to the other provided opportunities to reflect on differences and similarities. Research diaries are used where the researcher's perspective and observations have an impact on the study (Holly & Altrichter, 2011). The researcher diary was used as data and therefore qualitatively analysed.

4.6 RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Within this section, I present a brief discussion on each of the research phases mentioned by Graziano and Raulin (2010).
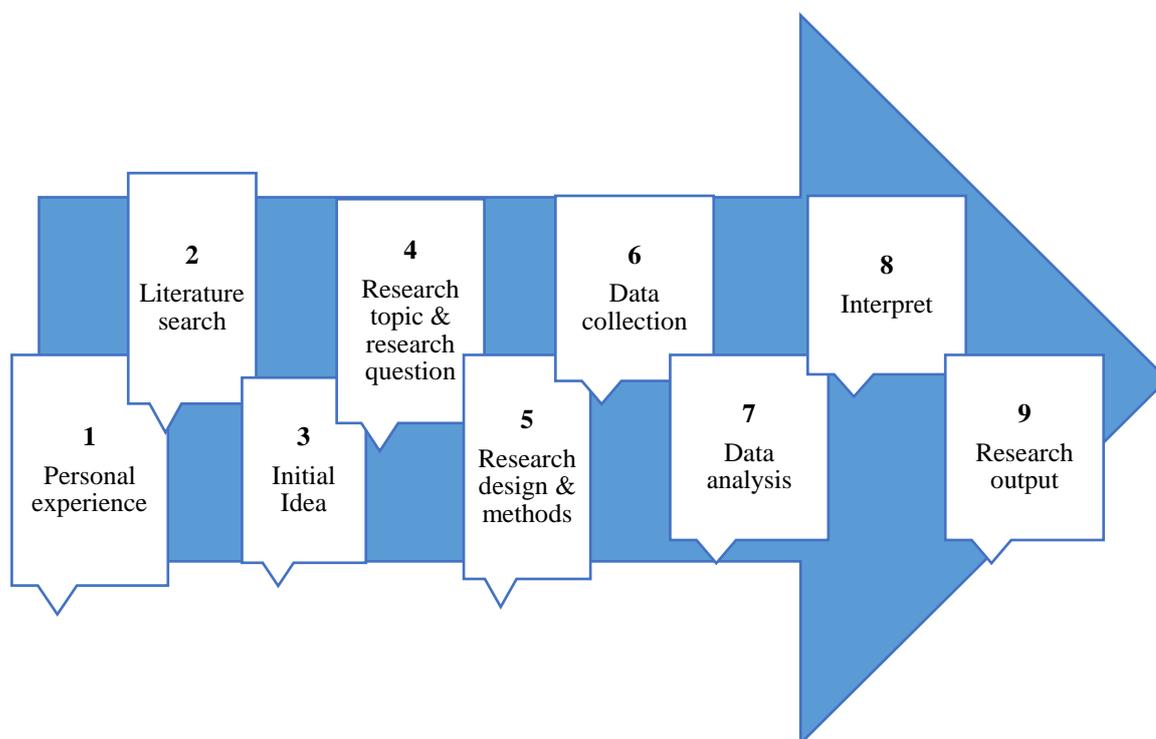
Figure 4:9 Research process

4.6.1   Idea-generating phase

The idea-generating phase is the first phase in the research process, mentioned by Graziano and Raulin (2010). When I entered this phase, my interest in the subject of student volunteerism was already formed. I had years of personal experience together with reflective conversations and academic dialogue in this domain. Hence, I had the opportunity to observe various processes implemented in terms of recruitment and retention of student volunteers. I also recognised the need for more volunteers as well as the dependency of community projects on its volunteers. Consequently, I identified the phenomenon of student volunteerism as a topic of interest.

4.6.2   Problem-definition phase

After identifying student volunteerism as a topic, I conducted a literature search. From exploring the literature it was evident that there was a gap in terms of formal research in the area of recruitment and retention of student volunteers, especially within the South African context. At this stage, I was already deeply rooted within the academic framework of community psychology. I discovered that the research paradigm of constructivism strongly coincided with the values of community psychology, especially the ontological and epistemological world view stating that reality is experienced and knowledge is constructed. The research topic - recruitment and retention of university student volunteers for South African community projects - was formed along with the specific research question as noted in section 4.3.2.

4.6.3   Procedures-design phase

Within this phase I decided on the study's design and methodology, participant identification and scope. The research design and methodology are respectively presented in sections 4.3 and 4.4. There are, however, a few processes, such as gaining ethical approval and access to participating universities that need to take place before the data collection phase.

4.6.3.1   Gaining ethics approval

Before I could acquire formal ethical approval from my affiliated university, I first had to gain access to all the participating universities and projects and ensure participation. The process was time-intensive and accompanied by various challenges. After identification of the projects was completed and participation ensured, the ethics board of my affiliated institution had a break, delaying the data collection process by another month. One should be mindful of the dates when the ethical board is in operation and plan accordingly. Ultimately, I obtained ethical approval from the University. Further ethical considerations are discussed in section 4.9.

4.6.3.2   Gaining access to universities and projects

Passing the gatekeepers (Chadderton & Torrance, 2011; Silverman, 2010) to gain access to the respective universities and projects was not an easy task initially. I investigated the possibility of participation with several other projects and universities before confirming the participation of the three universities and six projects involved in this study. Challenges such as access, criterion compliance as well as cost and time constrains were contributing factors that led to those projects and universities not being part of the final group. I also resorted to my social networks (Rubin & Rubin, 2012), drawing upon existing circles of contacts (Silverman, 2010) to gain access and establish participation. Due to my own history within student volunteerism, I had the advantage of a personal connection or shared interest that normally results in people being more willing to participate (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

Through the process of gaining ethical approval, rapport was established with most of the participants prior to conducting the interview. Structural networks were communicated: among others, introducing my supervisor, the degree I was enrolled in, and the University I am affiliated to. These conversations contributed to gaining participants' trust - it also acted as "being vouched for". I discovered the benefits of not only gaining consent from one person but to build relationships with various people within the scope of my study (Silverman, 2010).

Within this phase, I introduced myself and the research to the participants. An awareness of power relations occurred. At that stage, the power weighed more heavily to my side than to the prospective participants, because I had to decide on how to present the research in order to gain access as well as cooperation (Karnieli-Miller et al., 2009). I was aware of the power dynamic and acted in an ethical manner by presenting the research study in an objective manner, communicating its risks, time requirements and goals (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011).

4.6.4   Data collection phase

The data collection phase was very challenging. It was not an entirely linear process, as I moved back and forth between universities and projects.

4.6.4.1   *Data collection procedures*

Data were collected over a period of four years. It should be noted that only one interview was conducted in the fourth year, when I became aware of a participant's unique characteristics within the project and conducted the extra interview out of intellectual curiosity. Eighteen interviews and three focus groups were conducted across the six case studies. Furthermore, 70 active student volunteers completed questionnaires. The data collection process differed from project to project,

therefore an outline of each community project's data collection process is provided. To strengthen confidentiality, projects and participants are referred to under pseudonyms.

4.6.4.1.1 *Case study one – Citrus project*

I conducted one interview with Sarah, the project leader, on 14 August 2012. I also conducted one focus group comprised of six participants on 21 August 2012, while 29 volunteers completed the questionnaire. The formal data collection process started on 28 September 2011, when I collected four volunteer questionnaires from the aftercare programme. These four questionnaires were taken into account when volunteer responses across case studies were analysed.

When I initially approached the project in 2010, I made contact with Sam, the project leader at that time. When I started with the formal data collection, Sam was no longer the project leader, and I had to re-establish a relationship with Tammy, the new project leader for 2011. However, in 2012 there was yet another project leader, Sarah, who also changed the structure of the project. The initial project had now became a sub-programme of a bigger project, referred to as the Citrus project. Hence, I decided to broaden the boundaries of my case study, since my initial case study was no longer a community project per se, but merely a programme of a community project. Consequently, a second round of questionnaires (25) was distributed among volunteers for completion on 1 August 2012. Data were collected at a half-year training session. As a result of various challenges and structural changes within the project, I was unable to collect all the data in one year. This is, however, a common challenge of collecting data in university based projects.

4.6.4.1.2 *Case study two – Banana project*

I collected two completed questionnaires from volunteers who were affiliated to the respective universities on 22 October 2012. Two other non-student volunteers were also present. As with the Citrus project, the Banana project also had a change in leadership. I initially established a relationship with Laura, project leader from 2006 to 2012. However, when I formally started to collect the data, Yonwaba was the project leader. I interviewed Yonwaba on 21 October 2012, also interviewing Laura on 29 October 2012. When I initially conversed with Laura, she made it clear that they were struggling to maintain and recruit volunteers: as expected, only two volunteers answered the questionnaire. Even so, I had visited the project site on three occasions to have volunteers complete the questionnaire.

During the investigation process, I discovered that the Banana project had a lot of volunteers who were recruited through the residence structure of the affiliated university. I interviewed Beth - leader of a group of volunteers from a ladies residence - Mark, leader of a group of volunteers from a men's residence. I interviewed Mark on 24 October 2012 and Beth on 25 October 2012. They were

interviewed in order to gain insight into the structures of recruiting and retaining student volunteers through the university residence structure. Altogether, I conducted four interviews.

4.6.4.1.3   Case study three – Blue project

I conducted one interview with Naweed, the project leader, on 3 August 2013, as well as a focus group with four committee members on 10 August 2013. Additionally, I undertook two visits to the Blue project's office to hand out questionnaires to active volunteers: two on 31 July 2013 and five on 1 August 2013. I collected three questionnaires on 10 October 2012 – this data were included in the across-case analysis. Students were preparing for exams and the attendance rates were low. The leadership also changed shortly after, leading me to recollect questionnaires and interview the new leadership.

4.6.4.1.4   Case study four – Yellow project

I conducted four interviews and collected 22 completed questionnaires. The Yellow project had two leaders within the timeframe of this study. I interviewed John on 12 November 2012 and Bongi on 12 February 2014. Bongi was once a learner at one of the schools where the Yellow project taught debating skills. He managed to move from being a recipient of the service, to becoming a volunteer, and during 2014 he became the project leader. This was the only interview conducted in 2014 for the entire study.

The 22 questionnaires were handed out to volunteers at a Saturday workshop on 15 October 2011. I struggled to assemble the full committee for a focus group. However, the Yellow project has a specific position on the committee for human resources. Two people held this position and are primarily responsible for the well-being of the volunteers: I interviewed Tom on 16 November 2012 and Cath on 4 December 2012.

4.6.4.1.5   Case study five – Summer project

On 18 September 2013, I conducted two interviews with Donna - the Summer project leader - and Ethan - student programme officer. Three questionnaires were collected on 7 November 2013 and one focus group was held on the same day with the same participants, who were all leaders in the project. Questionnaires were sent to participants beforehand and were collected on the day when the focus group was conducted. All volunteers had the opportunity to return the questionnaire.

4.6.4.1.6   Case study six – Spring project

I interviewed the project leader, Tina, on 10 September 2013. On the same day, I interviewed Lynn, the coordinator. On 4 September 2013, I interviewed Samantha - leadership and social responsibility

manager. I collected three completed questionnaires on 18 September 2013. I was not present when volunteers answered the questionnaires.

Representation of data collection timeframe across case studies 2011-2014

Case studies and universities	Questionnaires	Interviews	Focus groups
Case study 1	28 September 2011 (4) 1 August 2012 (25)	14 August 2012 – *Sarah*, project leader	21 August 2012 Participants A-F (6)
Case study 2	22 October 2012 (2)	21 October 2012 – *Yonwaba*, project leader 29 October 2012 – *Laura*, previous project leader 24 October 2012 – *Mark*, men's residence volunteer coordinator 25 October 2012 – *Beth*, ladies residence volunteer coordinator	
Fruit University		1 November 2012- *Megan*, ComBuds	
Case study 3	10 October 2012 (3) 31 July 2013 (2) 1 August 2013 (5)	3 August 2013, *Naweed,* project leader	10 August 2013 Participants G-J (4)
Case study 4	15 October 2011 (22)	12 November 2012 – *John*, project leader 16 November 2012 – *Tom*, HR Committee 4 December 2012 – *Cath*, HR Committee 12 February 2014 –*Bongi*, special individual case (was a learner in the project who became a volunteer and then project leader)	
Colour University		20 November 2012 – *Grace*, director Green Project 17 October 2013 – *Luke*, Coordinator Societies and Student organisations	
Case study 5	7 November 2013 (3)	18 September 2013- *Donna*, project leader 18 September 2013, *Ethan*, student programmes officer	7 November 2013 Participants K-M (3)
Case study 6	18 September 2013 (3)	4 September 2013 – *Samantha,* Leadership and Social Responsibility manager 10 September 2013 *Lynn*, Leadership and Social Responsibility coordinator 10 September 2013- *Tina*, project leader	

Table 4:1 Data collection timeframe across the six case studies

4.6.4.2   Data collection challenges

The most prominent challenges in terms of data collection were related to the availability of participants, transportation to sites, functional timeframes of the projects, and academic schedules of the universities.

For most of the data collection process, I was dependent on the cooperation and availability of the participants. I do not have my own transport and am unable to drive a car. Except for the availability of the participants, I was also dependent on the availability and willingness of others to drive me to the sites.

Most of the projects function within the span of a year. It would have been ideal to gather all the data within one year. Being unable to do that and having to collect the data across a timeframe of four years led to many challenges. Project leadership, the structure of the projects and implementation of strategies all changed. However, it allowed for insight regarding retention of volunteers that will be discussed in chapter 6.

The academic schedule of the universities also had a large impact on the data collection process. There is a tendency among students to drop everything when it is test or exam times. The unfortunate reality was that when the participants were available and I had someone to drive me to the sites, it would also be close to test or exam times and the volunteer attendance on those days would be poor. I would then try and revisit the site when there were more volunteers available but in most incidences there was another poor attendance. Data collection was anything but a linear process.

4.6.5   Data analysis phase

The data analysis phase refers to "segmenting the data into parts and reassembling the parts into a coherent whole" (Boeije, 2010 p. 76). I had to interpret the data related to the research question. I thus searched for patterns, similarities, differences and themes in order to answer the research question (Boeije, 2010; Ryan & Bernard, 2003).

With reference to the methods used to collect the data, the data were analysed in two stages: 1) within-case analysis – where description of each case is presented along with the established themes; and 2) cross-case analysis - where data across the six cases are used to build general explanations (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2009).
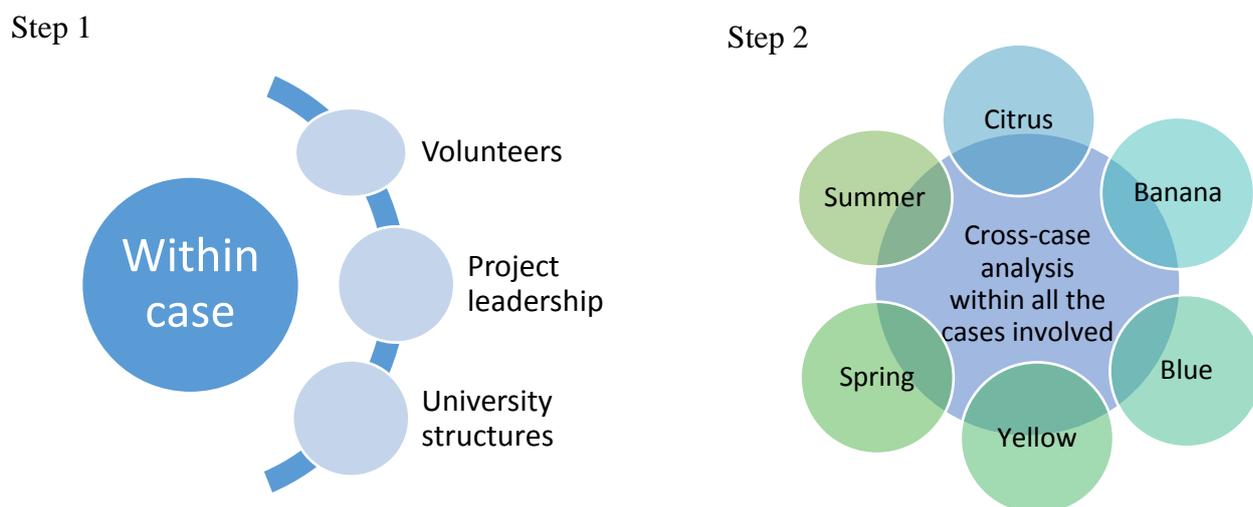
Figure 4:10 Steps of data analysis

The three sections were analysed as follows: 1) a descriptive analysis; 2) a multiple linear regression (chi-square); and 3) thematic content analysis. Thematic content analysis was also used to analyse the data gathered from the interviews with project leaders and university representatives. This is a technique used to analyse and describe a written text (Miller & Brewer, 2003; Neuman, 2000). Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed manually. Instances of agreement and disagreement were considered within the analysis process (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Data gathered from the first two sections of the survey questionnaire were analysed using SPSS version 12.

4.6.5.1 Descriptive analysis

The statistics resulting from the descriptive analysis summarise the participant data (Picardi & Masick, 2014). Measures of central tendency that may be used to summarise the data include the mean (average value), median (middle value) and mode (most appeared value). Within this study the descriptive analysis was mainly used to provide a picture of who the participants are. However, this data also aimed to tell a story of the type of student that actively volunteers in local university community projects. These statistics are especially helpful for discussions on identity discourses involving race, gender and age.

4.6.5.2 Multiple linear regression

Multiple linear regression looks at the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Muijs, 2004). Within this study the dependent variable was motivation and the independent variables were the six functional values of motivation. It should be noted that multiple linear regression results

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do not predict causality between variables. Regression analysis affords one to note how well all the predictor variables together predict the outcome variable. One can also look at the separate relationship between each of the predictors and the dependent variable. For each predictor, it is possible to calculate a relationship that takes into account the effect of all the other independent variables. The nominal scale of measurement for the dependent variable led to the use of chi-square (Picardi & Masick, 2014).

4.6.5.3   *Thematic content analysis and coding*

All written text in this study was analysed by thematic content analysis. Written text was examined by searching for possible themes as an answer to the research question. I used coding as a tool to bring order to the written textual data (Boeije, 2010). The coding process entailed separating large written pieces into small segments that were, in turn, reassembled into a related theme. Within this study, all written text was coded by data retention, meaning that the data were revisited several times in order to understand it (Richards, 2009). However, one of the open-ended questions in the questionnaire was coded through data reduction at one stage, where numerical figures were added in order to establish frequency of themes and triangulate the data.

I set up a list of factors to keep in mind while coding, based on research conducted by Ryan and Bernard (2003). These factors include local expressions, metaphors, analogies and especially the notion of transition, where participants talk about the same thing, only using different terminology. When a participant used words such as 'because' or 'since', I had to consider what led to the stated answer. When data were omitted, I also asked myself whether the participant might have been rushed, if it could have been an uncomfortable question or did they just not have the answer to the question.

When analysing interviews and focus groups, descriptive coding was completed under the following headings: position and relation to the case, project and university. Thereafter, the data were categorised into topics. The topics were pre-selected based on the research question. The following main topics were selected: 1) recruitment methods; 2) retention methods; 3) reasons for volunteering; 4) challenges surrounding volunteer commitment; 5) benefits of volunteering; and 6) organisational support provided to volunteers. Within these topics the data were investigated for possible themes that could describe, explain and provide insight into the research question.

Coding also entails that the researcher has to interpret the meaning of the data (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Boeije, 2010). Raw data cannot be presented as findings without interpretation (Boeije, 2010). It should be noted that the interpretation space available to the researcher leaves room for possible

misunderstanding and researcher bias (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). This possible misunderstanding can be addressed through member checking.[18]

I coded the open questions from the questionnaire as follows. I starting with open coding, using an inductive approach where the categories emerged from the data (Packer, 2011). The categories were then clustered into themes. I moved to a deductive approach where I matched the themes with the predetermined functional approach themes, as used in the Likert scale section of the questionnaire (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). In cases where the themes did not fit into any of the predetermined themes, I asked myself the questions: "Why not?" and "Did I interpret the data correctly?"
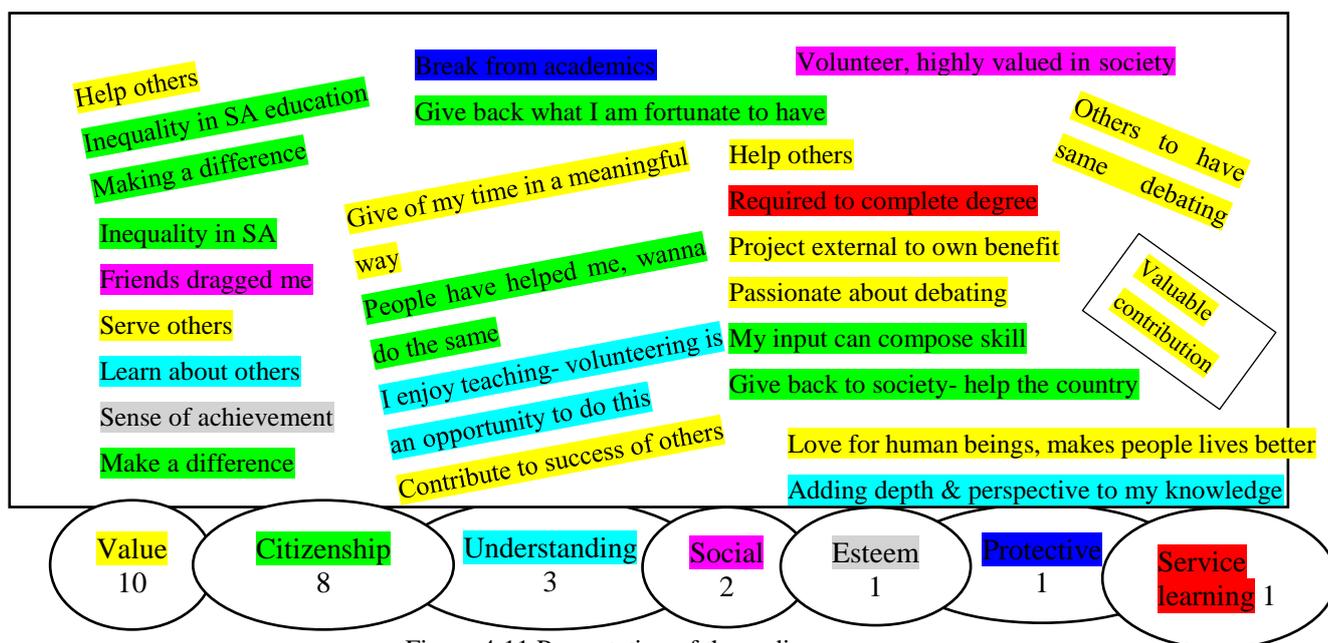
Figure 4:11 Presentation of the coding process

My interpretations were validated by the fact that I clearly defined the themes by using definitions from my literature review. I also used peer interpretation of the data; asking three other postgraduate students to peer code some of my data sets. The peer coding process meant that each person coded the different responses by themselves. We then compared our coding by comparing interpretations and ways of thinking. Thereafter, we coded together by discussing definitions and other interpretation influences. I then fitted the categories to themes that included the predetermined themes. In instances where we interpreted the data similarly but it still did not fit the predetermined themes, a new theme was identified.

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[18] See next section on validity, 4.7

4.7   VALIDITY

Validity refers to the trustworthiness (Merriam, 2009) or integrity (Bryman, 2008) of the findings, more than merely accuracy (Raskin, 2002). Constructivists reject the notion of one external truth or reality (Maxwell, 2013). Therefore, validity is a relative goal that cannot be proved (Maxwell, 2005). Qualitative researchers prefer the term credibility (Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). Within qualitative research, credibility is established by understanding the perspective of the participant's reality. Consequently, member checking and triangulation were executed to verify reality as perceived by the participants. The next aim was to understand their behaviour in a contextual framework, presenting a holistic interpretation (Merriam, 2009). The case study method was chosen to holistically investigate the phenomenon of volunteerism, thus a description was given for all six cases and related universities. Additional measures such as the researcher diary and reactivity were captured in the study to ensure that the researcher did not have too much subjective power over the interpretation and analysis phase of the process.

I employed several measures to enhance the credibility of the study. Firstly, the questions on volunteer motives were **triangulated**. Participants had to answer the question in both a quantitative form by ticking the boxes in the Likert scale section as well as answering open-ended questions on the same topic. Data on the topic of volunteer motives were thus gathered and analysed by means of different methods, resulting in different interpretations of the topic. When the different interpretations presented a similar picture, it strengthened the findings and therefore accounted for both credibility and reliability (Merriam, 2009). Data were also triangulated using different sources.

Secondly, **member checking** was executed in two phases. During phase one, I sent the transcripts of the interviews to all participants to check if what they said was correctly recorded. During phase two, I followed up with some of the participants to check if I interpreted the information recorded during the interviews correctly. Member checking was as challenging as the data collection process due to the limited and varying availability of participants. For these reasons, it was not possible to do full member checking with all the participants. All participants, however, had the opportunity to participate in the member checking process, but not everyone was available. It must be noted that the process of member checking is useful, however it does not provide a simple process of validation (Richards, 2009). Member checking is also described as descriptive triangulation within the analysis process, as it reveals the consistency between researcher and participant (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007).

A person is normally biased towards a situation based on his or her previous experiences, values, belief systems and the context in which he or she has been raised, including culture and other constructs. Thirdly, I tried to counter for **researcher bias or researcher subjectivity** (Maxwell,

2013) within the research process by disclosing personal information that might be relevant to the topic at hand. Fourthly, I used a **researcher diary** to track the research process and reflection of the self. The first step in countering any form of possible bias is to be aware of it. As a researcher, I was cognisant of possible bias throughout the entire research process. Fifthly, I was aware of possible **reactivity** (Maxwell, 2013) from the participants due to possible power relations or the knowledge that the findings of the research may be recorded and published.

The measures employed in this study pertain mainly to internal validity and credibility (Merriam, 2009), therefore the findings may be perceived as trustworthy and consistent. However, the external validity of the study is debatable, as it is recommended to not generalise case study findings (Silverman, 2010). Still, volunteer organisations may find the findings applicable (Patton, 2002) and transferable (Bryman, 2008) as the findings are presented as guidelines only, taking into account their unique organisational and institutional context. Case studies and associated institutions varied significantly, thus being relatable to a larger audience. A description of all case studies and related institutions was presented up front when the findings were documented. The variation and description of the cases and institutions add to the findings being transferable (Merriam, 2009) in some instances, also enhancing external validity (Bryman, 2008).

I am not claiming that the validity of my findings are assured by the processes followed (Maxwell, 2005). It is noted that methods and procedures do not guarantee validity. However, they do increase the credibility of the conclusions (Maxwell, 2005).

4.8   REFLEXIVITY

Reflexivity, in part, is an expression of the viewpoint that the researcher plays a unique and valuable role in the entire research process. It acknowledges that the researcher both shapes, and is shaped by the research (Lichtman, 2006; Silverman, 2010). Etherington (2004) describes reflexivity as a skill – the "ability to notice our responses… and to use that knowledge to inform our actions, communications and understandings" (p. 19).

As a researcher, my emotions, political orientation and theoretical understandings all play a pivotal part in my approach to the research, including its end result (King & Horrocks, 2010). One has to acknowledge the influence of the researcher as well as the research setting on the participants (Silverman, 2010). Self-awareness and awareness of the ethical and power issues related to the research (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010) along with transparency is essential in order to be reflexive (Etherington, 2004). Reflexivity helped me to step back and critically examine the transformation of the research as a result of my own impact (King & Horrocks, 2010).

There have been numerous accounts where I engaged in reflexivity. One of those accounts was by having a researcher diary where I could reflect upon the process and my own feelings. I also spent time reflecting on my past experiences within the field of volunteerism.

The biggest awareness of possible researcher bias or inaccurate interpretation of the data was the fact that, as a former manager of a volunteering project, I had preconceived ideas of what works and what does not work in successfully recruiting and retaining student volunteers. I have included throughout this manuscript various anecdotal accounts from my past experience within the realm of student volunteerism - in itself expressing my desire to be transparent about the potential impact of my personal thinking patterns and past experiences. As a previous manager of a university based volunteer programme, I understood the important role played by management, especially in enhancing retention and commitment levels of volunteers.

In addition to my world view of constructivism along with my academic roots being grounded in community psychology, I therefore decided on a case study design. The case study design would provide the option of exploring the projects' operational structures (management impact) which would provide a more ecological view (community psychology) of the phenomenon of student volunteerism. The qualitative approach also provided the space for multiple realities to be explored (constructivism).

Being embedded in a community psychology framework also meant that its values, with particular focus on that of social justice, were a key factor behind the research. Emphasis was placed on constructs related to building a better South Africa and enhancing a social justice perspective. Arguments were formed in favour of volunteerism and its potential to promote active citizenship. The responsibility of HE to facilitate a process of shaping students to become more aware of social justice, in contrast to volunteering processes that perpetuate the status quo was also put forward.

The reflexive process made me aware of my own multiple identities within the research process. I became aware of what hat I was wearing in the different stages of the research and the impact it had on the research process. This awareness gave rise to self-inspection and personal growth. I have volunteered within several student volunteering structures: the church as a student society, service learning modules, and extra-curricular activities. I have also been a project leader and managed many student volunteer projects.

From **my** **diary…**

Today I received back my proposal for my research. On the front page is a large inscription; Missionary. I moved to a different department and the people are unfamiliar with my history in the voluntary sector. My application form says that I am currently working fulltime for a local church. I am aware of the negative views of Christianity within the voluntary sector but I am Christian and proud of it…

Is this a form of stereotype expecting all Christians to work within a charity model?

Today, I might have overstepped my boundary a little, or even came across as arrogant. I was on my way to interview one of the community leaders and the rest of the group was busy recruiting people. They were all standing in a huddle in front of their Project sign (which was not very clear). There were no pictures and no real information on what they were all about. I could not estimate how they were going to attract new volunteers. I felt a bit frustrated and told the project leader what I thought… Guess I had my project managers hat on today and forgot for a moment that I was but to observe and do an interview as a researcher. I however gained new insights into their recruitment strategy...

Today, I was looked at with awe as most people do when they hear that I am doing a Phd in Psychology. "You must be very clever, not many people are accepted into the programme". Now, I probably need to do the ethical thing and tell them that I am registered under Educational Psychology but operate within the structure of Community Psychology. "Is that like social work?" and the awe disappeared. Is what I am busy with of lessor importance? The respect of being clever vanished and so also a little bit of my confidence.

Figure 4:12 Sections from the researcher diary: moments of self-reflection

At first, I felt insulted when I perceived the comment written on my research proposal as having a "missionary mind-set". I am passionate about social justice and I do consider myself a critical thinker. However, the comment made me feel that I cannot be a critical thinker and social justice activist as well as a passionate born-again Christian. I was faced with the impact of stereotypes, not just those perceived towards me in terms of being a woman of colour studying at SU, coming from a single-parent household, and so forth. I was also made aware of the stereotype that I held about others and its possible impact on the research. The comment also made me aware of my multiple identities. The comment on psychology and being clever[19] also made me attentive to power structures within higher education, as well as those between students and local communities.

I set some basic assumptions underlying the research process in section 1.7. I briefly mentioned the impact of the Apartheid system on the current university culture. I therefore expected a difference between the three universities concerning the support structure towards student volunteerism and the volunteer culture among students. I also expected access to participating projects to be more difficult at some universities due to the availability of resources. However, I had not expected access to be

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[19] Refer to figure 4:12

difficult due to an initial hostility toward my affiliated university. I was oblivious to the extent of the impact that the Apartheid history of our country still has.[20]

Moreover, I worked hard to gain participants trust. I also had to assure them that I had not set out to idealise my own university and present the other universities as inferior. The competition aspect between all three universities was obvious in my interaction with participants. This resulted in me not fully comparing the three universities with each other but rather led me to use the information and background as contextual information to help with better interpretation of the data.

The incidence also caused me to become aware of my own orientation within the research process. I noted that at times I was approached with high esteem due to the fact that I was pursuing a doctorate degree as a coloured woman, enrolled at a historically white university. This seemed to be viewed by many as an accomplishment. In hindsight it may even have helped me to be accepted as a researcher within these various community project spaces. However, it was also accompanied with inner struggles of incompetence and a need to prove myself within this context.

My background and experiences within the area of student volunteerism helped me to better adjust to situations and relate to people. To a degree, I have become part of some of these projects, a researcher with an inside perspective as opposed to an objective outsider. I also became aware of my almost unwillingness to expose negative habits by some projects within my findings. Honest interpretations therefore became an inner struggle, however, the ethical consideration of anonymity provided a way to deal with this challenge.

The actual coding process was also very daunting, especially because there are so many different ways of coding in qualitative research. The awareness of countering for researcher bias, subjectivity and reactivity also provoked a sense of anxiety which resulted in procrastinating in conducting the final across-case analysis. I, however, learned to celebrate experiential and tacit knowledge and use it to my advantage, as opposed to being anxious about making a mistake. I watch a lot of CSI cyber episodes, and when I likened across-case analysis and the process of triangulation to a CSI case it became not only easy but fun. I, as the researcher, became an FBI Special Agent, looking for a hacker (answer the research question). The hacker was involved in six different incidences. I had to look for similarities and discrepancies that would lead me to him. This helped to stay focused on the research question and it made coding and triangulation enjoyable.

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[20] See last paragraph of section 1.6. There is a perception of Stellenbosch University as a racist university due to its history of educating all the former Apartheid prime ministers. The theory of separate development, leading to Apartheid development, was also historically founded at this institution.

The last six years brought about immense inner struggles and personal growth as I grappled to comprehend not only the research at hand but also myself, others and the world. The above-mentioned reflexivity is but a drop in the ocean. In hindsight, I could have written a separate thesis on just reflexivity. For the purposes of this document, I only highlighted some of the core influences.

4.9   RESEARCH ETHICS

Ethics is the moral dimension of research (Singleton et al., 1993) and should concern itself with "doing good" and not just "doing no harm" (Piper & Simons, 2011). Therefore, the use of the right techniques and 'rightly' using the techniques are essential (Singleton et al., 1993).

Research should be conducted in a way where participants benefit in a positive way. This research does not promise any direct benefits to individual participants, yet it does have the potential to benefit participants in various indirect ways. The process of inquiry within qualitative research, constructed in community settings, often acts as an intervention. Interviews and focus groups in particular provide space for individuals to ponder and reflect on current issues within their projects that might actually lead to solutions. After conducting my focus groups, I asked the participants if they learned anything through the process. In all these instances, the participants answered that they never really sat down to think and discuss the topic at hand and that they learned a lot from the discussion, that helped them to make some adjustments to their current programmes.

Ethics within research are given high priority within universities. This research will result in a doctoral degree at Stellenbosch University (SU), meaning that the University takes credit and responsibility for the research conducted. A research proposal was submitted to the SU Ethics Committee, who judged whether the research was sensitive to human subjects and if the methodology is sound and appropriate for the research question. Permission letters were collected from all the participating community projects and universities. Ethics approval number HS611/2011 was obtained from Stellenbosch University.

Informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity as well as pre-publication access were considered before the onset of the research and applied throughout the process. All participants, whether they participated in an interview, focus group or questionnaire, had to sign an **informed consent** form. The standard informed consent form as provided by SU Ethics Division was used, with minimal amendments to specify the particular study[21].

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[21] The consent form is attached as Appendix 3.

It is advised to give separate consideration to **confidentiality and anonymity** (Piper & Simons, 2011). **Confidentiality** refers to a principle that allows people to share information in confidence, and also to refuse publication they might consider harmful to themselves (Piper & Simons, 2011). Consequently, no names were placed on questionnaires and pseudonyms were used for all participating projects in order to enhance both confidentiality and anonymity. Although the latter increased the anonymity rate, I do recognise that the use of pseudonyms does not justify the reporting of information obtained in confidence. To ensure that information shared within a confidential setting is not published, I offered all participating project leaders **pre-publication access**. This principle offers the participant the opportunity to read through the report pre-publication and to add his or her comments where needed.

Although privacy is ensured through the process of **anonymisation**, it not guarantee that no harm will occur (Piper & Simons, 2011). Regardless, many participants often want their names to be revealed because their accounts of an experience present itself as a public testimony (Silverman, 2010). Within this research all participating projects gave consent for their project name to be used, with the exception of one university that requested that the project names not to be used. Accordingly, pseudonyms were used for all participating projects. The aim of keeping participants anonymous is to protect them. However, Silverman (2010) scrutinises the notion of protecting the participants through keeping their involvement anonymous. It can be argued that adding a participant's name can enhance the correct and true reporting of his or her account, since it adds direct accountability. In this vein, it should be noted that all the projects involved could have attained more awareness of the work that they are doing, while the research report could have served as marketing and recruitment tool to obtain more volunteers. In other words, if project names had not been changed, the research report could have acted as a direct change agent to the participating projects.

Doing research within certain contexts requires of researchers to be aware of possible **participant exploitation**. The benefits of the research process for researcher and participants are not always equal. The researcher tends to require time and assistance from participants, giving little in return. As mentioned before, the research could, however, have secondary benefits for the participating individuals. Taking these potential secondary benefits into account, I agreed to help each participating project by applying the findings of this study to formulate a new recruitment and retention strategy, specifically tailored for each project.

4.10   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a comprehensive outline of the methodology employed in this study, as it investigated student motives for volunteering as well as the organisational and institutional structures

that support student volunteerism within the South African context. The research is embedded in a constructivist paradigm, where knowledge is co-constructed and reality formed through individual experience and perception. The research methodology included the use of a mixed methodology, multi-instrumental, multi-level case study design, where data were triangulated. Research methods applied in this study consisted of questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, artefacts and a researcher diary. A comprehensive explanation of the research process executed in this study was presented along with discussions of validity and reflexivity. An account of the research ethics implemented in the study was also discussed. The next chapter presents the findings of the study in pursuit to answer the research question.

Chapter 5

FINDINGS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The findings were obtained by investigating six case studies across three universities. As the researcher, I took on the persona of a story teller (Simon, 2009), as I carefully wove the data into a coherent narrative (Merriam, 2009). One can also reason that the participants are the storytellers (data providers) and that the researcher can be likened to the philosopher (data interpreter) and the writer or publisher (data documenter) (Karnieli-Miller et al., 2009). Nonetheless, the reporting of findings is congruent with a constructivist perspective. Each story follows a clear logic structure as it aims to answer the following: Why do students volunteer and what support do students need to enhance their sustained volunteering participation? These two secondary questions aim to ultimately answer the primary question: What facilitates student volunteerism at South African (SA) Universities?

In my reporting of the findings, I start by presenting an overview of the respective universities' student volunteer structures and institutional support provided to student volunteers. This allows the reader to be aware of institutional structures that influence the student volunteer process. Contextual factors related to student volunteerism were not directly investigated. Nonetheless, these factors were taken into consideration when data were analysed.

Next, I continue with a narrative of each of the six case studies in order to illustrate the multi-variant student volunteer projects related to South African universities. Owing to limitations relating to the length of the thesis, I decided to present an in depth, in-case analysis of Case Study 4, Yellow project. I will, however, draw from data obtained from the other five case studies to present an across-case analysis. My decision to highlight the Yellow project is based on the fact that the data gathered from the Yellow project was the most comprehensive. The Yellow project had a large number of participating volunteers, and was shown to be the most effective project in terms of recruitment and retention compared to the other case studies. I decided to conclude the presentation of the six case studies with the Yellow project.

In order to strengthen anonymity, universities, projects and interviewed participants were referred to under pseudonyms[22], whereas participants who completed the questionnaire were cited as participant

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[22] I am aware that some of the background data and history provided about the universities and the case studies may uncover their identity. However, the findings are reported with cognisance of the ethics of anonymity. Hence, no official website addresses are sited.

1 to 70, while those who participated in the focus groups were quoted as participant A to M, respectively.

5.2 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE UNIVERSITY VOLUNTEER STRUCTURES

The three universities are very different from each other, especially in its history and the availability of resources. Consequently, its student volunteer structures also vary. The narratives on the participating universities aim to present a framework of the support structures available for student volunteerism within each university - in so doing, providing broader context to the case studies.

5.2.1   Fruit University

The Fruit University's student volunteer component is managed by a registered non-profit organisation (NPO) and unit of the Division of Community Engagement[23], called Community Buddies. Community Buddies, also referred to as ComBuds, has a special student volunteer wing where the focus is exclusively on student volunteerism. The student volunteer wing oversees various community projects driven by student leaders. These student leaders are mainly representatives from campus societies and residences. Each residence has a Residence Committee (RC), with a portfolio for community interaction (CI). The student volunteer wing commenced in 2008 and was assigned a full-time staff member, Megan.

"I see student volunteerism as part of education, a way of educating students as to how things would be as an adult and how social care and social responsibility and caring for our neighbours is an important process… And then for me the ultimate would always be that the opportunity of volunteerism will raise their leadership to a different level in their life." – Megan

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[23] The term "community engagement" is commonly used on international platforms as a network where universities engage with the broader society. The Fruit University specified that it is more comfortable with the term "community interaction". The term engagement and interaction is therefore used interchangeably in this section.
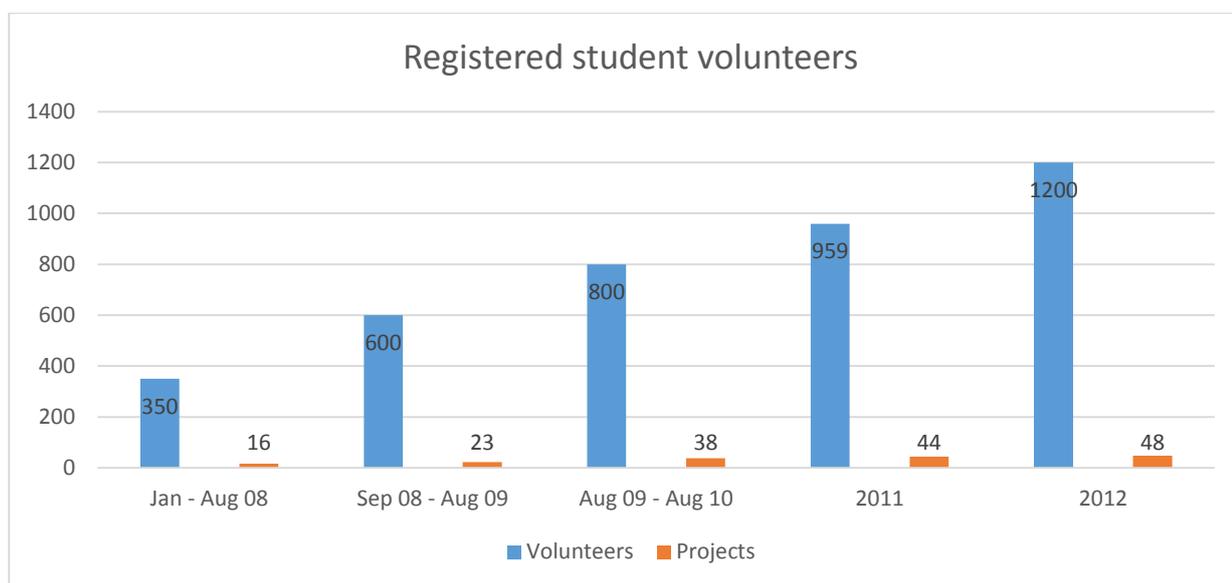
Figure 5:1 Fruit University: Registered student volunteer statistics 2008-2012

There has been a rapid increase in student volunteerism since the establishment of the student volunteer wing and the appointment of a dedicated staff member. Between January and August 2008, an estimated 350 students were registered as volunteers involved in 16 projects. During September 2008 until August 2009, a calculated 600 students were registered among the 23 projects. From August 2009 to August 2010, the total number of student volunteers increased to 800 across 38 projects. The year 2011 showed a similar increase in student volunteers, moving the total to 959 spread between 44 projects. The increase index remained at approximately 200, resulting in an estimated 1200 volunteers for the year 2012, volunteering within 48 projects. One reason may be that the increase in volunteer projects provided an increase in opportunities to volunteer. However, in comparison to the enrolled students at Fruit University these numbers are minimal.

ComBuds' direct activities and support rendered to student volunteers can be explained in two sections, namely: 1) Forming partnerships and the allocation of funds; and 2) Training and logistics.

Forming partnerships and the allocation of funds

Community organisations may request to be part of the ComBuds system and become a partner organisation where students can volunteer. Partner organisations may take the form of a local school, NGO or a church. These partnerships aim to ensure that student projects are sustainable, noting that new student leaders are elected annually and those leaders have the choice to continue with the current project or start a new project. The relationship with the community partner thus acts as a protective net against the terminating effects the student project may have on the community it serves.

Furthermore, CI student leaders' first assignment is to assess the needs and interest of their respective student volunteer groups. These groups are mostly associated with residences (case study 2) and societies (case study 1). The needs and interests of the students are matched to the needs and interests of a partner organisation. Students are also encouraged to present their own organisation match.

"I think the most important thing is to match the students with their likes… people tend to think that students should do anything and that's the notion on volunteerism. 'We must always just volunteer to what is available.' I want to differ with that; somebody's giving their time for free, they give it on their own and sometimes at their own cost. So they also have a right to decide where they would like to go and I think sometimes in NGO world we tend to forget the rights of volunteers." – Megan

After a match is identified, the student leaders will meet with the community leaders and establish a partnership. The two parties will draft a joint proposal on how the partnership and community activity will be executed. Next, proposals are submitted to ComBuds before the prescribed cut-off date. Thereafter, the student leader together with his or her community partner will present their proposed programme to a committee. Students will then receive recommendation letters from the committee, and submit a final plan. Student leaders are also required to submit a progress report every term or semester.

The student volunteer wing receives a large portion of its funds from students themselves. During welcoming, the students have a festival[24] where they generate funds for CI activities. These funds are automatically donated to the student volunteer wing. Thus, only residences, faculty committees and societies may benefit from this specific fund. A big part of the presentation is aimed at requesting back some of these funds. Funding is therefore allocated according to the approved plan.

Training and logistics

The student volunteer wing provides several opportunities for volunteer training. A CI training session is held at the beginning of the year, and is open to all student volunteers. An accredited short course in CI volunteerism (NQF Level 6) is also presented for project leaders and general volunteers respectively. The course is compulsory for student leaders and takes place from September to February, whereas the rest of the volunteers are invited to attend the course from March to August. Student leaders are normally elected during August. In other words, Fruit University's volunteer calendar stretches from September in the first year to August in the following year.

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[24] A set period during February, when first-year students are orientated to the university, and campus residences compete against each other in various fundraising events.

"The students who completed the volunteer training course this year, they are now on the festival committee, the SRC[25], the RC and are even elected as residence heads[26] of residences. So you see they have taken their leadership from student volunteer to a different leadership position on campus, not necessarily community." – Megan

Fruit University has a leader's camp where all leaders, the RC, SRC, society chairs and others are invited to join. The leader's camp takes place during the September holiday. The representatives for CI on the various RC's gather for a session during the camp where they meet Megan. Another training session is held in October, where the newly elected CI representatives are familiarised with the volunteering structures and the proposal writing section. Two more sessions are organised, one in February and one in March, where the students are trained for their term as CI representatives and project leaders. Student leaders are also encouraged to have their own in-house volunteer training for the rest of their teams.

The student volunteer wing also administers other logistics related to the volunteering process. All volunteers as well as all the learners who participate in these programmes are required to sign an indemnity form. Transport can also be arranged through ComBuds, although this transport is not free. Student leaders are advised to incorporate transport cost within their proposal and budgets.

Recruitment and retention: Community Buddies

Megan shared seven factors from her experience to take into consideration when recruiting and supporting student volunteers: 1) Treat students as adults in your approach to recruit them; 2) You are competing for students' time, thus you need to consider their interests and needs; 3) Provide management support, such as training, funding and transport. It helps them to concentrate on the activities and interaction with the community; 4) It might be the first time that some students are entering a community other than their own and the experience might be overwhelming. It is therefore important to properly orientate the students concerning the community; 5) Assist in the understanding of the establishment of partnerships. The community needs to know that the students are not just there to do things for them but that they [students and community partners] do things together; 6)

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[25] The Student Representative Council (SRC), is the student governing body, elected by the students of the university.
[26] The residence head is also known as the chairperson of the residence committee (RC).

Communicate the benefits of volunteering; and 7) Build mechanisms that will motivate and reward volunteers. One such tool implemented by ComBuds is the 100 hour challenge[27].

Most students will only be able to commit to a volunteer project for a semester due to changes in academic schedules. ComBuds thus facilitates two recruitment processes; one at the start of each semester. Additional to its aim to recruit volunteers, these processes are designed to create awareness of the concept of CI. At the start of the first semester a community morning[28] is organised and at the start of the second semester recruitment and awareness activities are organised around Mandela Day[29].
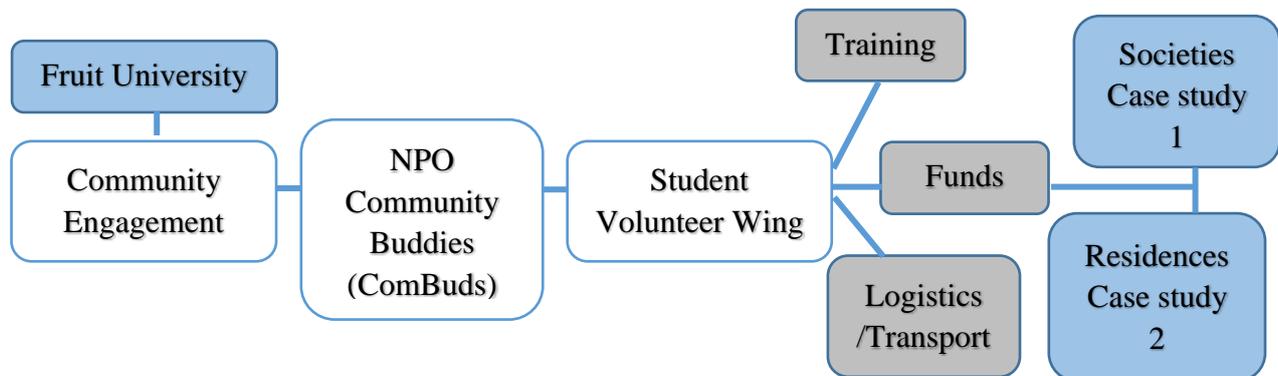
Figure 5:2 Fruit University volunteer support structure

Fruit University has a centralised student volunteer division. Institutional support is aimed at training, funding and logistics such as transport. Leadership development and the reciprocal relationship within CI are key focus areas of the volunteer training process. An increase in student volunteer participation was noted with the appointment of a dedicated staff member and the increase in volunteer opportunities. Community partnerships are formed to enhance sustainability due to the high turnover rate of student leaders. Volunteer rights are held in high regard, and student interests are matched to community needs.

5.2.2 Colour University

Colour University's volunteer support structure is situated in the Department for Student Affairs. This department has a division called Student Life and Development, which manages all non-academic student related activities. Student volunteerism is directly linked to the portfolio, Coordinator of Societies and Student Organisations, which was managed by Luke. Colour University has two major

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[27] Students who have volunteered for 100 hours will have their volunteer efforts displayed on their official university transcripts. This is viewed as payment in recognition. Certificates are awarded for 100 hours (gold), 75 hours (silver), and 50 hours (bronze).

[28] The community morning was held for the first time in 2011. This event is part of the University's welcoming week where first years are introduced to various segments of the University. Residences use this opportunity to launch their community project for the year and introduce the first-years to the community chosen by residences to have their CI project with.

[29] Mandela Day, as mentioned before, is an international day of volunteering in honour of late President Nelson Mandela.

areas in which student volunteerism takes place: student organisations and student societies. The student organisations assist people from disadvantaged backgrounds, and as mentioned by the vice chancellor, they aim to respond to the injustices of the past. In contrast, a student society caters to the needs of a group of people on campus.

"Our role is to be supportive of what is taking place within the student organisations rather than to manage the affairs of the students… A big portion of my role is to provide support and to provide a more oversight on things like finances and governance and making sure that they are sticking to both the rules of the University but also the laws of the country." – Luke

During 2013, there were five registered student organisations. These organisations host most of the student volunteer population. This study focused on one of the student organisations, called the Green project. Two projects that function under the umbrella of the Green project were individually examined as two separate case studies.

The student organisations receive considerably greater support from the university than the societies. Most of them receive actual dedicated staff support, office space, and funding. The Green project, however, does not receive dedicated staff support. Most of its staffing support is from the Coordinator of Societies and Student Organisations. Luke is familiar with the functioning of the Green project, as he was on the leadership of the Green project when he was a student at Colour University.

The student organisations generally focus on education in the form of tutoring programmes. Some of the tutoring programmes go into the communities and others bring the learners to the University. Reasons for bringing the learners to the University are twofold: 1) it is a good experience for the learners to become acquainted with the university, and 2) for volunteer safety reasons.

"Very often the Colour University is viewed almost as an 'ivory tower', bringing the learners to the University, is a very encouraging thing to do. It makes the actual coming to the Colour University as a student that much less of a kind of mountain to climb…There has been a lot of talk of gang wars… there has been a real concern that situations in the areas where these students are working can change rapidly, that they [students] can't respond to it on the spot… Students' signing indemnity forms, how far does that indemnity go? Is the University recklessly putting students at risk? – Luke

Luke noticed a significant increase in students from previously disadvantaged backgrounds moving into the volunteering space. He anecdotally stated that most of these students feel a responsibility to their schools to further the student organisations' efforts. These students recognise the contribution of the student organisations to enable them to study at Colour University.

"Far more real volunteering. It's not simply something that you can put on a CV. I think for all volunteers there's a real element of community giving that they feel, but these are people that are

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actually part of their community and that know a lot of what's going on in these communities." – Luke

Student organisations differ in a sense that some are completely student run and others are an external NGO with internal sections that make use of student volunteers. The Green project is entirely student driven and self-funded, and has no joining fee for students. The Green project is a vehicle of collaboration that takes charge of administrative duties and manages relationships within the University, thus representing the affiliated projects on committees such as the Social Responsiveness Committee. The Green project as an organisation currently consists of three different projects. I only investigated two of the projects as case studies, the Blue and Yellow projects. The Blue and Yellow projects operate autonomously in how they run their day-to-day programmes.
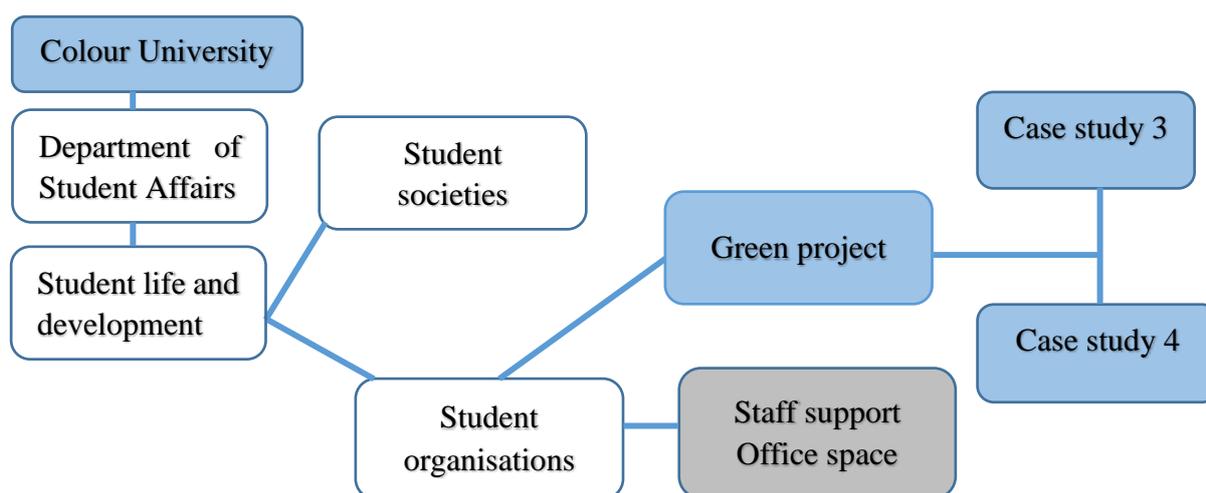
Figure 5:3 Colour University volunteer support structure

Colour University designed a space within its student life and development department where institutional support is provided to student volunteers. Staff are appointed to provide an overview of finances and governance, as community projects are student driven and managed. Office space is also provided for student organisations. The issue of student safety was raised. As a result, students present their activities within the nearby communities as well as bring the learners to the University. Positives to both approaches were mentioned. An increase in students from previously disadvantaged backgrounds moving into the volunteer space was noted. The university management communicates the importance of being socially responsible citizens. These messages for social responsibility act as the drive behind student organisations' volunteer activities.

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5.2.3   Season University

Season University does not have one central department from where all student volunteer programmes are managed, thus case studies five and six are positioned in different departments. I will therefore not provide an extensive overview of the University's student volunteer structures considering that student volunteerism at this institution is dispersed.

Nonetheless, Summer project (case study five) is located as a unit within the Rector's office. This project aims to ensure that students at Season University are treated with dignity and respect. The project promotes anti-discrimination and human rights through its programmes and activities. Spring Project (case study 6), on the other hand, is situated within the Leadership and Social Responsibility office. This office forms part of the Student Development and Support Department. The focus of the department is to assist students in reaching their personal and academic goals, and to develop responsible and responsive citizens for the future. Hence, student volunteer projects within this department are viewed as vehicles to develop graduate attributes. The Leadership and Social Responsibility office provides training for student leaders within formal structures such as the SRC, faculty and society representatives, as well as formal leaders demonstrating some sort of influence on campus. These training sessions are mostly geared at how to manage an organisation.

The department focuses its volunteer attention on opportunities related to Mandela week and the annual festival. For continuity purposes, Mandela week and the festival initiatives are linked to organisations that have established relationships with the University. The festival activities are managed differently than at Fruit University. It started with the same focus of hosting fundraising activities in support of community-based initiatives. However, in 2012, the department decided to shift the focus of the festival from mere fundraising to that of social responsibility. Consequently, the Leadership and Social Responsibility office divided the students who signed up to help with the festival into teams. Each team was allocated a month in the year and had to initiate a social responsibility initiative for that month. The festival team would host one social responsibility initiative per month. Funds were made available for these initiatives, but students were also encouraged to look for sponsorships. The department considered this strategy to be more effective than having continuous projects or solely focusing on fundraising. The staff facilitates a reflection session after each project in order for the students to identify the learning elements incorporated in the volunteer process.

There are also national organisations operating on campus, such as Habitat for Humanities and the United Nations Association of South Africa (UNASA). Students are encouraged to participate in community engagement initiatives organised by the societies they are involved with in nurturing an attitude of being responsible and active citizens. The Leadership and Social Responsibility office then

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facilitates student growth within these national organisations to assist them to conduct the projects in a meaningful way.
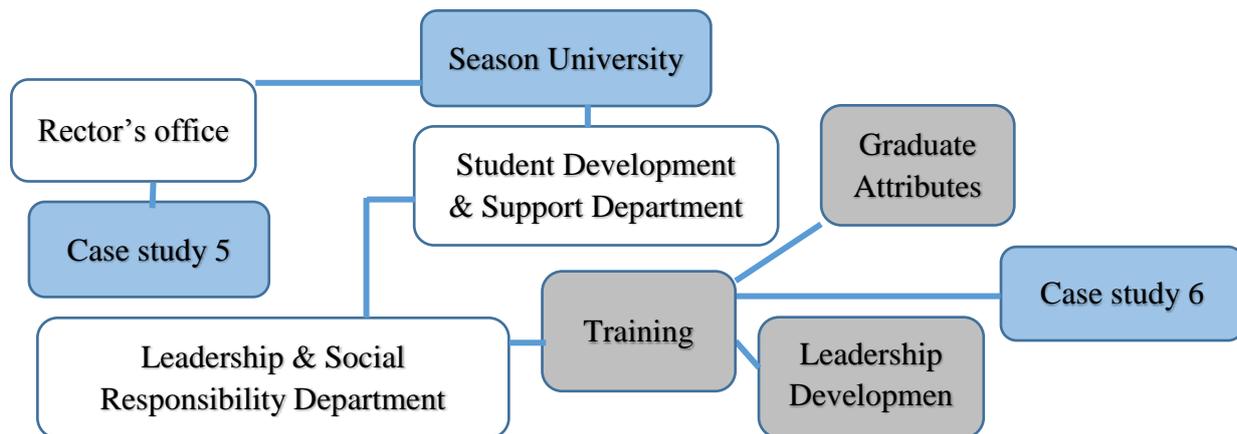
Figure 5:4 Season University volunteer support structure: Case studies 5 & 6

Case studies five and six are both located within two different departments. Season University focuses its student volunteer programme on graduate attributes, raising leaders and promoting socially responsible, active citizens. Institutional support is mostly focused around training and student development. Volunteer initiatives are held in association with partner organization for sustainability purposes.

5.3   OVERVIEW OF THE SIX CASE STUDIES

The six participating case studies were multi-variant. Case studies one and two, associated with Fruit University, were external projects related to the University. Case studies three and four, linked to Colour University, were entirely student driven projects. Case studies five and six, linked to Season University, were internal university projects with dedicated staff support. The narrative on the case studies highlight the unique qualities of the various cases in terms of leadership and volunteer structures within HE. The narratives also focus on the predetermined topics of analysis in order to best triangulate the data and answer the research question.

5.3.1   Case study 1: Citrus project

This case study differs from the other five case studies due to the fact that it is a Christian based project forming part of a church's community development department. This specific church is a predominantly student church, consisting of approximately 400 students. The University recognises the activities of the Citrus project, both from a CI and student capacity building perspective. This is

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due to the church's campus society[30] status. The project is also registered as a CI project with the University's Student Volunteer Wing.

The project consists of different programmes: Biblical life skills (from preschool to grade 12); academic assistance (grade R to grade 7), including a reading programme for grade 1 learners and Math's tutoring for grade 8 and 9 learners; a parents' club (parents of the learners); and the community safety programme (all the stakeholders in the community).

The leadership structure of the Citrus project comprises the project leader and a committee. The committee includes the respective leaders of the above-mentioned programmes, noting that some of the programmes had more than one leader. All the committee members are student volunteers, with the exception of one volunteer who formed part of the church's Year of your Life programme. The committee had mixed feelings about whether or not they would volunteer at a non-Christian project.

"I think I would but it depends for me, volunteering at church would be first priority. But if that opportunity isn't there then I would definitely look into something else that's not necessarily a Christian project, if I agree with the principles and the values on which they operate." – Participant A

"Well career wise I want to work with NGO's and a lot of them isn't going to be Christian and a lot of them do community like projects. But I might not even always agree with some of their ways but I, I think I'd like to partner even with people that aren't Christian, even organisations that aren't Christians. I think it's important." – Participant D

The committee also had mixed feelings about whether or not they enjoyed being on the committee above being a general volunteer.

"I would like to just be involved with the kids, I know you have to do the admin and stuff, but I don't like being a facilitator. I would rather just work with the kids." – Participant C

"I think it's more difficult for leaders. I would prefer to just be a volunteer, but I think it's a good time to learn things like; communication skills, leadership skills and other stuff. I'm struggling but I have to learn it some or other time." – Participant E

Becoming a programme leader and part of the committee was somewhat of a natural flow for most of the volunteers. Some of them volunteered to lead, whereas others were asked to lead. Those who

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[30] Anyone may start a campus society. There is however a set registration process. Most importantly, the society must align itself with the three pillars of the Societies Council of Fruit University. These pillars include: 1) student development, 2) creating a place of belonging, and 3) student success.

volunteered to lead were also the volunteers who contributed to the expansion of the project. The Citrus project takes an approach of "If you suggested it, you do it".

I observed that the committee was exhausted and in need of more support from the project leaders and the institutions (church and university). There was a willingness to learn new skills, but they felt that they might have been thrown into the deep end without life jackets, as they were weighed down by unrealistic expectations. Being situated within two different institutions might have contributed to the lack of support, as the one institution might think the other is providing the support.

Volunteer recruitment and retention

Sarah, the project leader, mentioned that they had no desire to recruit outside of the church, specifically for the biblical life skills programme.

"We found that it's very difficult to be on the same page when it comes to sharing our biblical foundations when people don't have the same foundations laid in their own lives." - Sarah

However, for the rest of the programmes they were open to recruit students from outside the church. Previously, the project recruited student volunteers through university-established relationships. Community Buddies matched a group of first-year social work students with the Citrus project in 2012. They performed a similar matching with a Private Student Organisation (PSO)[31] student group in 2013, which continued in 2014. The Citrus project was thus considered a CI activity of both Fruit University and a community partner[32].

Sarah mentioned that they do not have a specific recruitment strategy. They implement coping mechanisms rather than apply their efforts to recruit enough volunteers. Often, the programme is adapted to accommodate the volunteer to learner ratio.

"If you don't have enough volunteers then change your strategy so that the amount of volunteers that you have can serve the people the best way that you can. We've had to completely change and even gone to the point where we can't work with two of the grades on a weekly basis because we don't have enough people… We would like to have about one volunteer to six to eight children maximum, but that's not the case so we can't facilitate our programmes in that small group setting… But then to communicate it to the beneficiary in such a way that it sounds like it will benefit the beneficiary more in that way. So you've got to be creative." – Sarah

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[31] PSOs cater for the needs of the students who are not in a University residence. Fruit University has ten such organisations.
[32] See section 5.2.1 on what constitutes a community partner and CI activity.

Nonetheless, one of the committee members shared how she managed to recruit more volunteers for her programme by adjusting the timeslot of the programme to suit the volunteers that were interested. Furthermore, it was found that some programmes in the project do not have enough volunteers, whereas others have too many in ratio to the learners they serve.

At the beginning of the year nobody could come to our sessions. The volunteers couldn't come when it suited Lilly and I to go, so we had to adjust the times that we go. So now we have two sessions and one of them is a lunch time session. Now we have a lot of volunteers coming. We have like seventeen on our team coming including the team leaders. We just adjusted the time that we go. – Participant F

The Citrus project has two recruitment opportunities, one at the beginning and the other in the middle of the year. Both these opportunities take place at the local church. At the start of the year the project leader would share the vision of the project with the rest of the congregation. This normally involves making an announcement before the service starts, by means of either a short video or a PowerPoint slide. Every congregant receives a flyer at the church entrance. The flyer contains information about the project and its components. The students have an opportunity to sign up after the church service. During the mid-year recruitment, the leaders are able to share more about what was already happening that year, and where they still need people to be involved. The recruitment happens for only one evening and urgent sign up on that day is emphasised.

The leadership team might not have a specific recruitment plan in place, but they do implement deliberate strategies to retain certain volunteers and promote them to the committee. Sarah mentioned that in the past her focus was on the beneficiaries of the project and not on the volunteers. For her, the beneficiaries were exclusively the community they served. Although her intentions were noble, this strategy might not have been the best to ensure that the project was sustainable in terms of volunteers. Sarah realised that it was important to form a relationship with her leadership team. It was however impossible for her to have a relationship with all of the volunteers. Still, Sarah came to the conclusion that there was significance in having some sort of a relationship with the general volunteers as well.

"Those people in my committee that I built relationships with starting last year already, they stuck… Having a relationship with not only my committee but with the greater, the general team is very important because those people are going to be the ones that step into the committee's position at the end of the year… What works really well is giving each project leader their own group of volunteers to oversee, so they can build a relationship with them. A smaller group of people can be responsible for a smaller group of people's development and growth." - Sarah

The committee mentioned factors that may lead to a lack of commitment and a low retention rate. One such factor is when volunteer expectations are not met.

"They [volunteers] enjoy seeing change, that they can almost measure by what they experience and they go in thinking, I'm going to change the world… people are disappointed when they realise this is actually going to take some time, some effort from their side." – Participant A

The committee also challenged the use of the term 'volunteer'. They suggested that it infringes on communicating significance to the students outside of the committee. They prefer the term 'team' to echo the importance of relationships among volunteers. Other relational significance between the committee and the rest of the volunteers is linked to the transference of the vision of the project. Another important relationship is that between the volunteer and the community. These relationships can only be established in small groups, which make the volunteer numbers important.

"We don't really use the word volunteers, we just speak of our team and I think any team just functions better when there's relationship, when there's that unity." – Participant A

"The vision is carried in relationship and time." – Participant D

"I think that relationships between the children and the actual volunteers are very important and if the rest of the team wasn't there, that wouldn't be possible." – Participant B

Additional constraining factors were mentioned:

1) Tests: When students have tests, they put everything else aside.
2) Communication: The problem occurred with both the school and the learners. It has happened where the learners were not available for the programme but the school failed to communicate it to the project leader, resulting in the volunteers showing up at the site and not being able to execute the activity planned.
3) Time constrains: Not all students have free time. Classes are from 8 a.m. to sometimes 8 p.m. Free time are found in between those hours and not everyone is free when the programme is operating.
4) Unrealistic volunteer expectations: Students do not always expect volunteering to be hard work.
5) Placing unrealistic expectations on volunteers: Volunteers need to be protected and supported.
6) Transport: The students use their own cars to go to the sites. Not all students have cars.

The committee also mentioned some strategies that can be implemented to mitigate some of the obstacles mentioned above:

1) Delegate responsibilities to people. People feel responsible to be there when they have a specific task to perform. This also communicates shared responsibility of the project.

2) Leaders should model commitment and consistency.

3) Have a session where the volunteers sit and write down why they are volunteering. This will act as motivation when things are difficult.

4) Clear communication of the vision of the project.

5) Form good relationships with team members (volunteers). In this way, you become aware of their strengths, thus you know what you can and cannot ask them to do.

6) Effective management: Good planning and communication is essential.

The Citrus project differs from the other case studies as it is a Christian organisation. It also operates within both the structure of the university and the church. Although volunteers might join the ComBuds training sessions, they mostly have their own in house training with the church. The church was the biggest authority structure. However, the university could have better negotiated the partnership. Not all programmes were open to all students. The biblical life skills programme was reserved for Christians and those affiliated to the specific church.

Many volunteer programmes are at times looking for a specific type of person, meaning the recruitment was aimed at a target group. It was also clear that not having enough volunteers had a direct impact on the programme structure and ultimately the outcome and effectiveness of the programme. The project leader recognised that the committee was in need of more support. However, the support needed was not just emotionally, but also logistic and administrative. Moreover, forming significant relationships with the committee has to its advantage that it opened the door for the committee to be vulnerable enough to communicate their struggles and needs to the leadership above them. Without a trust relationship they might suffer in silence and just drop out of the project without searching for a solution to their frustrations. The case also highlighted the effect of too little time on recruitment and retention, and the importance of synchronising university schedules with project times. I believe the project might have been able to recruit more volunteers if they implemented a planned recruitment strategy and offered more opportunities for sign-ups. The sustainability of student volunteer projects is dependent on student leaders, therefore it is essential to identify possible leaders and mentor them while they are volunteering. Leadership development is crucial. One should be cognisant of unrealistic expectations from volunteers and toward volunteers. There is room for future research to examine whether or not the term 'volunteer' has negative connotations associated with it.

5.3.2   Case study 2: Banana project

The Banana project is situated in a township[33] close to Fruit University. The Project has different departments: learning centre, social, sport, film and media, performing arts, and skills development. I only focused on the learning centre as this department involved student volunteers. Laura was the manager of the learning centre from when it started in 2001 to 2011. Thereafter, Yonwaba was employed as the programme and volunteer manager, responsible for the recruitment of volunteers, preparing the teaching curriculum, and managing resources and partnerships with schools, sponsors and other NGOs. Yonwaba also tutors when there is not enough volunteers. At the time of the interview, Yonwaba seemed overwhelmed with her load of responsibilities. She stressed that there was too little time to complete all her tasks.

Volunteer recruitment and retention

The Banana project has three entry points for student volunteers. Students can volunteer independently, as part of a residence group, or additionally during holiday programmes. It is however mostly international students[34] who volunteer during holiday programmes, therefore I will not be elaborating on the third entry point. Nonetheless, it should be noted that the first volunteers for the learning centre were international students registered with Fruit University. The students took an interest in the project after seeing a dancing performance by learners from the Project. These students inquired about volunteering at the Banana project and became the first volunteers at the learning centre. Laura then started to put up posters to attract more volunteers. At its onset, the Project's recruitment was informal, until later on, when the team started building partnerships with some of the residences.

Laura also mentioned being overwhelmed with her workload and having no time to focus on the volunteers. Regardless, she was cognisant of the needs of the volunteers and contemplated a few initiatives such as volunteer socials aimed at creating a space for volunteers to become acquainted with each other. Owing to logistical problems, it never realised. She also tried the Hour's Award[35], but it ended up being too much administrative duties. Laura mentioned that she tried to develop a relationship with the volunteers yet never implemented any formal incentives to keep them motivated. She considers her willingness to write reference letters as the only incentive for volunteering at the project. When time permitted, Laura connected with the student volunteers during the orientation

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[33] An informal settlement or underdeveloped urban living area, reserved for Black during the Apartheid years. The term black is used as according to the Apartheid classification.

[34] I met a previous Banana project volunteer in Washington DC. She had the original name of the Banana Project tattooed on her foot, indicating the significance of her volunteer experience.

[35] Separate from the 100 hours challenge hosted by Community Buddies

period, at the onset of their volunteering programme (start of both semesters) and she met with them before and after their tutoring classes.

Furthermore, the leadership of the Banana project prefers that volunteers are also members of the community. The reasoning behind this decision is that volunteering will be twofold: 1) to help with facilitation of the tutor programme, and 2) to equip and empower the community members with skills. The reality however is that this project is located in a poor community where its members are mostly in need of a paid job. Yonwaba explained that, due to a lack of funds, the students as volunteers are a needed resource, as they are unable to employ people. Most of the students come from different backgrounds than the learners at the project: this interaction has the benefit of exposing the learners to different ways of thinking. The students, in that regard, also play an encouraging and motivating role, especially in terms of career possibilities.

"The volunteers from the University don't do the American thing; coming with sweets and coming for a week and then gone. It helps the kids to counter the hand out mentality when they see a white person. We do have all races represented in our volunteer system from the University. The kids can tell the difference and because they can tell the difference we are able to teach from that." - Yonwaba

Although the student volunteers are a great help, their involvement is not without challenges. These challenges are mostly related to their inconsistency and inability to prioritise volunteering together with their academic commitments. Another big challenge is university holidays: school holidays hardly coincide with university holidays, causing a very long break in the programme, disrupting the flow and the consistency of the programme. When one takes both holidays into consideration (from January to June) there are only 12 weeks to execute the programmes.

"You get a lot of people interested in the beginning and then they start to fade away as the year goes on, they get busy with other things or they didn't really think through their whole timetable and schedule and what they could commit to before they make the commitment. I think the people who are really the most committed are either older students or a little bit more mature and they understand what it really entails and they actually are working people and people who are permanently living in town who come after work." - Laura

Another challenge is not being able to provide transport. The Banana project has a bus, but it costs too much to drive into town to pick up volunteers. The other challenge Laura experienced was related to communication. It was common for volunteers not to let them know, or letting them know too late, that they will not be joining the programme for the day. Laura suggested that maybe she should have taken time to heighten the volunteers' understanding of the fact that they are valuable.

"We had one [residence group] when Catherine was organising the group. She was so good at motivating her people and communicating with them and organising their lifts. She made our job so easy because she was organised and motivational. The girl who came after her really lacked a lot of those skills and there was a huge decline in consistency." – Laura

At the time when I collected the data, there were hardly any volunteers present to participate in the study. I therefore interviewed two previous CI student leaders (Mark and Beth) who led a residence volunteer group at the Banana project. According to Yonwaba, the partnership with the residences has been the best way of recruiting volunteers.

"They come together and they are able to motivate each other, and if there is a transport issue then they, they are able to come together as a residence, and are able to approach, whatever people [ComBuds], admin or whatever, for transport." – Yonwaba

Mark's story

At the time of the interview, Mark was the CI representative serving on the SRC[36] for the year 2012 at Fruit University. During the previous year, 2011, he was the CI representative on the RC for the second consecutive year. His involvement with the Banana project started back in 2009 when he formed part of his residence's CI volunteer group. Mark thus went from being a student volunteer to a student volunteer leader and finally representing the entire student population within CI, serving on the SRC.

"The first time when I got the portfolio, CI representative of the RC, I thought; 'what am I going to do, where do you start?' … the leadership of Community Buddies and the relationship of the then SRC… they take you through the training, what to expect and what to do… From there on you learn as an individual and find your own way. It is cool to learn those attributes and actually being able to talk about it now." - Mark

During his first tenure as CI leader, Mark paired with a women's residence. He managed to recruit approximately 20 students who regularly volunteered at the Banana project. During his second year as CI leader, his residence was involved in two CI projects. The new CI leader decided to withdraw involvement with the Banana project and focused attention on a different project.

Mark mentioned a few key factors that he considered to be important for recruitment and retention of volunteers. Firstly, student leaders should be organised and need to ensure that logistics like transport

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[36] The SRC representative acts as a liaison between various CI bodies on campus as well as the greater student population. He or she works closely with the volunteering wing of ComBuds to ensure that support for student CI projects is accessible and communicated across the various structures of student leadership on campus.

are in place. They also need to delegate responsibility to the volunteers and in so doing give the volunteers ownership of the project.

It is important to market the community project within the residence. Mark implemented the following three approaches: 1) Use practical communication tools like posters. Some tools such as emails have shown to be ineffective; 2) Use the available communication platforms within the residence, such as house meetings and section meetings; and 3) Organise once-off projects within the bigger project. It is easier to recruit volunteers for once-off projects, because they do not have to commit for more than a day or a few hours. These once-off projects are beneficial as it provides an opportunity for students to be exposed to CI and the bigger project. It thus sparks an interest. Moreover, the success of these approaches is in the way you communicate. Students need to be inspired.

"They say once-offs are more like hand outs, but I think you do need relief work once in a while, you do need awareness campaigns. Because then you get people to start thinking of more sustainable projects to be involved in." - Mark

Mark also considered it important to take note of the characteristics of a volunteer insofar as assessing if the student is passionate about wanting to make a difference. The leader must then purposefully attempt to keep that passion flaming. One way to do that is to make the volunteers aware of the difference that they are making. Moreover, leaders of the organisation should help to make volunteering easy. They should provide guidance, assist with challenges and facilitate personal growth. The relationship between the student leader and the leader of the organisations is important. Therefore, regular contact sessions should be held with the organisational leaders [community partner] and management of ComBuds.

"I think it would be great if for example you have four contact sessions or two contact sessions during the academic year; where you have your training in the beginning, but you have another social to see where everyone is at. Are other volunteers also believing in this more, or what is happening? Just to keep track - is everyone's passion growing or what is the problems or, you know just to have a chat and to just calm each other down perhaps to just reassure each other that we are all going for the same thing and it is not just you fighting alone and you in your corner with your ten people for example." - Mark

Lastly, it is important to acknowledge the incentives (benefits) that go along with volunteering. These incentives include:

1. Being involved – the reciprocity of relational interaction with the community and other students (the volunteers from the men's residence meeting the volunteers from the ladies' residence).
2. The fact that you can put it on your CV.
3. Graduate attributes set by the University- volunteering is a means to form those attributes such as personal growth.

"Like we learn in the community interaction phase, through all the training I have been through, that it is a reciprocal system. You go to the community you get something back…" – Mark

It is also important to be aware of the barriers to volunteering, for example academic pressures or the impact of social circles (you tend to go where your friends go). Transport and the extra travelling should be considered in projects that are far away from the university. One should also note the time of the project, not just how long, but when in the day the volunteer is expected to be there. Another factor to consider is the time of the year that the project is running.

Beth's story

Beth was elected as the CI representative on her RC in August 2010. She followed the procedures for newly elected student leaders within CI as set out by ComBuds. Beth contacted Megan to match her CI group's interest with a community need. However, Beth and her group struggled to formulate their own project. Megan then connected Beth with Mark.

"We helped each other very successfully with giving class [tutoring], so we had guys and girls [volunteers], so that was a nice incentive for them [boys from the residence] to like go to these projects because then you get to know people outside of your own residence and comfort zone." - Mark

Before being elected, Beth volunteered at the Banana project as an independent volunteer. The biggest challenge of volunteering as an independent volunteer was transportation to the site. Fortunately, Beth and other independent volunteers managed to form a lift club.

Partnering with another residence had several advantages, such as sharing of resources like transport. Beth recruited a few volunteers from her residence – as a result, 13 ladies volunteered regularly [during both semesters]. She communicated to the prospective volunteers that they could only commit for a semester. Her recruiting strategy focused on a face-to-face approach. She reasoned that her interactive personality and people skills were enough to mobilise her fellow students. However, she also made use of posters placed in the residence as well as announcements at house meetings.

Beth mentioned that most volunteers were discouraged in their efforts, because with tutoring, you cannot always notice the results immediately. Nevertheless, there were other benefits to volunteering,

for example the 100 hours challenge hosted by ComBuds as well as the fact that volunteering adds to your CV. Moreover, Beth suggested that the biggest inducement and motivation for volunteering is being able to note the difference you are making.

She found it difficult to recruit students to volunteer on a weekly basis. It was easier to recruit students as volunteers for once-off projects, therefore she organised a few once-off projects throughout the year to enhance the participation of the other ladies in her residence. She argues that it is easier to measure the impact you made if your task for the day was to paint a room. As a volunteer, you walk away satisfied when you see that the room is painted. One factor that stood out to Beth was the impact of building relationships with the children they served as a measurement of the impact you are making. Other than the relationship with the children, a healthy relationship among volunteers leads to accountability and acts as motivation to commit. Another important relationship highlighted by Beth was the relationship between herself and the community partner. She argues that as a student you can learn a lot from the community partner. For liaison purposes, it is essential that the communication between the student leader and the community partner is good.

"Once I went to the Citrus project with, I think a church or something, one of my friends was also there and just to play with the kids also was a big thing for them. To see that relationship building was a big thing for the people that volunteered weekly." – Beth

"It was nice to have somebody that goes with you and just to have that; 'She's going, I can't let her down because she'll be alone" – Beth

Within the structure of ComBuds, the CI leader (elected annually) may choose his or her own project. In Beth's case, the leader who was elected after her, chose a new project. It is, however, still possible for students to continue volunteering at the Banana project, even though the residence is no longer in formal partnership with the project.

"I know of people who, when we stopped with the partnership, people still went to volunteer as independent volunteers" – Beth

Beth mentioned a few challenges and limitations to volunteering: 1) Transport; 2) When the volunteers were not orientated properly to the project, it resulted in uncertainty because they did not know what to expect; 3) Unrealistic expectations from volunteers; 4) Lack of debriefing time; and 5) Lack of measurements to track improvement.

"To have 25 people screaming and just to know that it's fine if they don't listen, it's fine if you can't really help them the first time and I think that because I know like a lot of people said: 'Beth, like I'm sorry, like this is too much for me'." – Beth

Beth volunteered because she wanted to give back and share what she had. She believes in life skill training as opposed to handouts, and is passionate about education.

Case study two struggled to recruit and retain student volunteers. The case differed from other case studies as it was investigated from the perspective of the partner organisation. Volunteers were recruited through the ComBuds system where the interests of two residences were matched to the Banana project. Both student leaders successfully recruited and retained volunteers from their residences. However, the management of the Banana project was unable to secure the relationship with the residences, ultimately not succeeding in retaining the student volunteers.

From the narrative, it was clear that a few crucial retention strategies were neglected, such as;

1)   Building a trust and mentor relationship with the student leaders;

2)   Hosting volunteer socials to incorporate a fun element and allow volunteers to form relationships with one other and the project staff;

3)   Incorporating incentives or rewards;

4)   Ensuring volunteer appreciation is communicated; and

5)   Ensuring that time before and after volunteer sessions are used constructively - to debrief or reflect.

It was also evident that the community project leaders were overwhelmed with their responsibilities and therefore was unable to attend to retention strategies. In hindsight, community leaders missed out on the opportunity to create an internship position for a student volunteer to manage these recruitment processes. There is also room to delegate tasks to the volunteers, enhancing their sense of ownership.

Furthermore, the case highlighted the challenges surrounding student volunteerism from a partner organisation perspective. Nonetheless, the partner organisation confirmed that the students were both a needed resource due to a lack of funds and a valuable resource as they allow for diverse interaction which exposes the learners to different ways of thinking and career opportunities. Students are trained within a social justice framework of active citizenship and the development of other graduate attributes which were evident in the community partner's observation of the students' non-charity approaches. The student leaders also echoed the messages taught through the training sessions and the institutional culture on the notion of CI principles. This demonstrates the impact of institutional culture on motives and sustained involvement. Student leaders differ in their leadership style and skill levels, hence community project leaders should be cognisant of student leaders' expectations and should rather assess, guide and mentor the project leader.

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Leadership was developed within the institutional support structures but not within the project structure. The student leaders expressed the importance of including once-off projects to awaken student interest and provide low commitment volunteer opportunities. The case also highlighted the aspect of time on recruitment and retention, in all its various forms. Similar to the Citrus project, transport and effective management, delegating tasks and an awareness of academic schedules and school schedules were highlighted as factors influencing retention, along with being able to translate to volunteers that they are indeed making a difference.

5.3.3   Case study 3: Blue project

The Blue project is a student driven project that started in 2005. The Project serves three schools on three respective days - Wednesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays. Students are requested to commit to a day of the week. The Blue project has three programmes: 1) Mentorship programme (teaches soft skills to grade 11 learners); 2) Computer programme (teaches basic computer skills); and 3) Steps programme (bursary application advice, once per semester). The leadership of the Blue project, or otherwise known as 'the committee', consisted of eleven people. Some portfolios were managed by two students and in other incidences, one student managed more than one portfolio. The positions and duties of the committee are summarised in Table 5:1. It should be noted that only four of the committee members participated in the focus group and I interviewed the director separately.

Committee position	Duties
Director	Manages the committee and reports to the Green project management
Deputy director	Assistant to the director
Human resources	Manages volunteer affairs including volunteer contracts, attendance and communication with volunteers
Treasurer	Manages project finances
Schools and logistics	Responsible for volunteer transport to the schools as well as workshop-related communication to schools and learners
IT and material development	Manages the computer programme
Fundraising and events	Manages all fundraising events
Monitoring and evaluations	Evaluates and monitors all sections of the project including the committee, volunteers and effectiveness of the project
Curriculum	Evaluates the relevance of the curriculum and convey the curriculum to the volunteers
Steps	Manages the Steps programme
Marketing and events	Manages all internal events directed at the learners

Table 5:1 Blue Project leadership structure: Positions and duties

Volunteer recruitment and retention

At the start of 2012, approximately 120 volunteers signed up to volunteer at the Blue project. However, the numbers decreased significantly to only ten active volunteers attending the mentorship programme across the three schools. Naweed (Blue project director - 2013) mentioned that because they anticipate a high dropout number, they try to recruit three times the amount of volunteers they need. According to Naweed, the programme can exist with 20 consistent volunteers. In the previous year, the Project recruited approximately 90 volunteers, but only seven of this group was active throughout the year. A contributing factor was that the Project only had one school where students could volunteer on a Wednesday. The project had since expanded to more schools on different days, thus providing students with more options.

Learner attendance also decreased significantly. At the beginning of the year, learners were restricted to 50 per school. By the second term, the learners decreased to 20 per school. Owing to the fact that both the learner and volunteer numbers decreased, the ratio of volunteers to learners was still manageable. It is not clear whether the decrease in learner attendance influenced the decrease in volunteer attendance, or the other way around. However, reasons for learner dropout related to more than merely programme quality and volunteer interest. In addition, learners come from disadvantaged communities where they need to attend to household chores and take care of their siblings. They might have detention or a school function they need to attend. Moreover, there are multiple other afterschool programmes offering the same services, meaning learners have a wide range of projects to choose from. The relevance of the Blue project at certain schools comes into play. On a broader

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level, there is room to investigate the power relations between universities and schools. Schools seem to say yes to projects even if they do not see the need for the project. Although the communication challenge between volunteer initiatives and school partners are highlighted by this case study, the issue is not case study specific. This is a common challenge when working with schools. Participant I, suggested a re-evaluation of the project to examine how the Blue project can differentiate itself from other projects.

When I asked about the current recruitment strategy[37], I sensed an unhappiness or form of disagreement from the committee, as the students in the focus group started to giggle.

"*I wish the recruitment process could be improved… that maybe while you're recruiting, there would be something more intentional where you can actually see a person's dedication level.*" – Participant H

Consequently, the committee made suggestions to alter the recruitment process. Participant H suggested that the interview slots should be longer in order for the committee to better assess the volunteer's motives. He also feels that more information should be given to volunteers to better relate their expectations. Other advantages of a longer interview could be to brainstorm programme ideas with volunteers. Participant G concurred and added that the connection with the volunteers should extend beyond the initial interview period. The idea is to promote a sense of belonging were the volunteers feel that they are valued. In this vein, it can be noted that the Blue project had no volunteer socials in 2013, apart from two socials hosted by the Green project that were not well attended by the Blue project volunteers. Additional factors contributing to the low retention rate are related to the communication with schools. When learners do not attend the programmes, it leaves the volunteers feeling that they are not making a difference. Students also have heavy academic loads and deal with personal issues that receive priority above volunteering. Furthermore, the Blue project is the only one not charging students a sign-up fee. This leaves space for students to sign-up without making a commitment. Some programmes, for example the Steps programme - not a weekly programme - experience better commitment from the volunteers. Naweed also noted that there are more volunteers on Saturdays, largely due to the fact that there are no classes on weekends.

Nonetheless, the committee is actively addressing the low retention rate by making emails more interesting. There were ten volunteer opportunities for the semester – it was decided that volunteers who attended seven out of the ten will be awarded a certificate. The committee emphasises the

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[37] It should be noted that the Blue and Yellow projects share the same recruitment strategy, because the recruitment is managed by the umbrella project. The recruitment strategy is documented within the narrative of the Yellow project (case study 4).

relevance of a certificate to present as a supporting document to a CV. Participant J also added purposefully sharing responsibility with the rest of the volunteers and promoting team effort.

"When I send them [volunteers] emails I try to not speak about them as volunteers but to address them as a team. I remind them, everyone has to chip in their bit basically." – Participant J

She also found that they respond better to the WhatsApp group than to emails.

One of the biggest challenges of running a student driven project is to find students who really drive the project. Naweed mentioned that many students want to be on the committee without realising the hard work accompanying the position. Another challenge is the turnover rate of leaders. Each year leadership portfolios are handed over to someone else and in most cases this is not a thorough process. Hence you find leaders making the same mistakes as those before them. Another challenge is the lack of funding, as the project is self-funded.

When I asked Naweed why he thinks students volunteer at the Blue project, he commented that students volunteer out of personal convictions, awareness of inequalities and difference in opportunities, wanting to make a difference and the desire to have a personal relationship with their mentee. Naweed also added that knowing that he made a difference was the biggest benefit of volunteering and that he never really considered other benefits of volunteering for himself. The focus group agreed with Naweed's reasons for volunteering. A few of the committee members came from disadvantaged communities and were therefore motivated to give back to their own or similar communities, wanting to act as a role model. One person saw volunteering as a base to express her faith - she saw it as an opportunity to tell people about Jesus. For another, the motivation to volunteer was prompted by a friend who volunteered. There was also an expression of the need to have a personal relationship with a mentee and to make a difference in someone's life. Volunteering also helps to better understand the country's issues and be able to address some of those issues.

"I think it's more a personal background thing because I'm from a community where a lot of volunteer work is actually needed. And I grew up in that environment where I can see other people's need and I've become inclined to actually want to help other people also, so that's why I initially got involved in volunteerism." – Participant J

Both the Blue and Banana projects struggled to retain their volunteers, neglecting to close the gap in relationships between leadership and the rest of the volunteers. Both projects did not host any volunteer socials. Recruiting over and above the needed number of volunteers might contribute to the high dropout rates. Students volunteer because they want to make a difference, and when they note that their presence is not needed they will look for a place where they are needed.

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Compared to Fruit University, Colour University does not emphasise personal benefits for volunteers in the reciprocal relationship between the university and the community. Hence, the students from Colour University hardly noted the benefits of the volunteer process for themselves. They were more focused on giving back and making a difference as that was the message emphasised to them. This might relate to the increase in students from disadvantaged communities entering the volunteer space. However, forming a reciprocal partnership with the community might address the issue of multiple projects providing the same service, because the community's needs would be properly assessed with the community. Although students enjoy the opportunity to be promoted to the committee, they might have unrealistic expectations of what it entails. The added responsibility should be clearly spelled out. Interestingly, it was once again mentioned that the word 'volunteer' was substituted with the word 'team'.

5.3.4   Case Study 5: Summer project

The Summer project is unique in relation to the rest of the case studies, because it serves both the student campus community as well as communities outside of campus. The Project sets out to address human rights issues and inequality. It is assisted by four staff members; the director, administrator, programme coordinator and student programme officer. Student volunteer programmes where not part of the project from its inception, but was incorporated from 2006. The volunteer section consists of six programmes:

1) Talk with - newspaper covering the Summer project events
2) Mentoring - academic and life skills for grades 3 to 12
3) Gender matters - awareness of LGBTI[38] issues on campus
4) Nutrition - food drives
5) Human nature - disability awareness
6) Theatre - activism through arts

These programmes are situated within the feminist framework that is thoroughly explained to the volunteers during their training. The nutrition programme is also driven by frameworks such as food politics and food insecurity, distinguishing itself from a charity practice.

The leadership structure of the volunteer programmes integrates both management staff (project coordinator and student programme officer) along with student volunteers (programme leaders, each with a support team and general volunteers). The volunteer programme officer's role is to provide

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[38] LGBTI is used to refer collectively to people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans and / or intersex.

support and guidance to the programme leaders, as well as monitor programme activities and budgets. This is to ensure that activities are aligned with the Summer project and University's shared vision. The support includes taking responsibility for logistics such as organising venues and transport. The volunteer programme officer meets with each programme leader once a month. These consultation sessions are aimed at assessing both the student's personal well-being and the effectiveness of the programme. Every three months, the Project hosts a programme leaders' forum, where programme leaders meet and have the opportunity to learn from one another by discussing challenges and strategies.

I interviewed Donna (programme coordinator) and Ethan (student programme officer). Additionally, I also held a focus group with three participants who each led a volunteer programme. I found direct links between the programmes they led and their study fields. Participant K, leading the *Gender matters* programme, studied a general BA degree with subjects such as Psychology and Gender studies. Participant L was a Master's student in Creative Writing, leading *Let's talk*. Similarly, participant M, an education student, was in charge of the mentor programme at schools. These three volunteers were also the only volunteers to complete the questionnaire. As a result, their data are fully triangulated methodologically. All three participants were committed volunteers who have been volunteering at the Summer project for four, five and one and a half years respectively. Among the three participants, their top motives for volunteering as indicated by the Likert scale analysis were understanding, value and social motives. This result positively triangulates with their answers obtained from the focus group and open-ended questions. Although the volunteer participant numbers were very low for this case study, it does provide an interesting perspective on the notion of what constitutes student volunteer commitment.

Volunteer recruitment and retention

The Summer project had recruitment drives twice a year: during the first-year orientation and at the onset of the second semester. They had a sign-up table but also tried to be unconventional in their presentation by using their bodies and voices to attract new volunteers. After students signed-up, they were invited for an interview. The interviews were conducted by the student project leaders who then explained the project in detail and screen the volunteer on their motives, as well as find a programme fit. Thereafter, the Project offers an induction programme, which includes signing a contract validating that you would comply with the vision and mission of the Project. The mentor project volunteers have additional documents to complete, for example a code of good practice, police clearance and compliance with child protection policy documents, due to the fact that they work with minors. Donna found that many volunteers move to another programme at the start of the next year, and some even commit to more than one programme within the Project. Next, the Project hosts a

volunteer day where the programme leaders offer a presentation on the different programmes. Afterwards, the volunteers divide into their chosen programmes where they meet the programme leaders and learn more about the programme specifics. Thereafter, a support team is chosen by the programme leader. Prior to the volunteer day, the leaders are first trained separately. After the volunteer day, they are trained with their support team. The support teams have a similar function as the committees of the other cases. The process is repeated at the start of the second semester. The difference between the second and the first semester is that there is no competition for students' attention. Ethan mentioned that "*students are more receptive because the hype is gone.*" Because the second semester recruitment is not part of the first-year orientation programme, it takes on a different form. The Summer project presents a video in the student centre. Where they are permitted, they will also screen the video before certain lectures. One or two student volunteers will be present to answer questions while they screen the video.

On average, over 200 students would sign up to volunteer at the Summer Project at the start of year. However, many postpone their involvement when they realise how demanding their academic schedule is, or they overcommit to too many co-curricular activities. Subsequently, volunteer numbers decrease significantly after the third week of lectures. On average, each programme will start with 20 to 30 volunteers, but this number normally drop to 10 to 15 per programme. Nonetheless, everyone who signs up for the project is kept on the database and receives information about the project and its activities. This has also been documented as a way of recruiting volunteers as it stimulates interest. Many of the volunteers on the database come to support once-off events.

"*We have seen that many of the students who left the project halfway through the year come back the next year, because now they have the time.*" - Donna

One of the challenges faced by the Summer project is its rapid growth - it seems that too many volunteers sign up at times. Another challenge is the limited resources the project is able to provide to the volunteers to execute their programmes. Nonetheless, Ethan says that the limited resources create a space for student volunteers to be creative. Ethan also noticed a pattern between volunteer commitment and programme leadership. When the student leader struggled to motivate the volunteers and the volunteers struggled to adapt to the student leadership style, the staff support created a safety net for the student leader to develop his or her leadership skills and provide assurance to the rest of the volunteers. One more challenge is that of time. Students are registered for different degrees and are in different year groups, therefore finding times when everyone is available is difficult but manageable, according to Ethan. Except for the mentor programme, the other programmes do not have fixed times. A pressing institutional problem is the fact that many students are not financially

privileged, meaning that finances may also be a hindering factor, accompanied by transport for non-residence students.

"*Most students use public transport, it is thus difficult for them to get home after hours.*" - Donna

The most common constraint to student volunteerism is academic commitments that link to available free time. Even so, the focus group participants felt those were but excuses.

"*It's definitely an excuse because people tell me often no I can't because I'm busy studying, I'm writing this week…but if you look on Facebook for example, they partying here, they checking in here.*" – Participant L

Also, students connect volunteering to fun activities and not hard work, and when they realise that it requires some hard work they tend to drop out.

"*I think they just had the expectation of fun, only fun and not work.*" – Participant L

According to participant L, additional reasons for students not being committed might be related to students' inter and intra personal struggles due to the nature of the project. Participant M echoed this sentiment by adding that "*… some people might not feel comfortable because generally people think that every person at the Project who volunteers is either gay, lesbian, so we are all looked at as homosexuals.*" – Participant M

The focus group unanimously expressed that one certain way to attract volunteers, and enhance commitment and retention, is to provide food. Although this is not always possible, the leadership tries to have food for volunteers at events. Another factor is hosting opportunities for volunteers to get to know each other and bond. This creates a sense of belonging and provides accountability among volunteers. The mentor programme had a team building activity in addition to training sessions and socials. Another idea, not implemented yet, is to change the Project's operational year from July to June. Ethan reasoned that in this regard, January would be the middle of the year, and first-year students would walk into an existing programme. Sometimes, at the beginning of the year, the new volunteers feel lost and lose their excitement due to the fact that the programme still needs to start.

Donna listed a few benefits to volunteering at the Summer projects. I have linked these benefits to the functional approach's motives for volunteering. She mentioned that the project invests in imparting knowledge to the volunteers through their workshops (*understanding function*). Students can also build on their interests, such as human rights (*value function*). Additionally, the Project aids in the development of leadership and other skills, such as administrative and media skills (*understanding function*). The project is a reference for bursary and job applications (*career function*). Volunteers can also become well-rounded individuals with deep insights into the issues addressed by

volunteering (*understanding function*). Volunteering opens the door to countless other opportunities, such as engaging with different communities (*understanding and career function*). Season University does not have a drama department with its own theatre. As an alternative, the Project's theatre programme provides students with the opportunity to perform at the National Arts festival, gain media exposure and build self-confidence (*esteem function*). Additionally, the focus group mentioned that not being restricted to one programme within the Project was a bonus, because it allows students to develop a variety of skills (*understanding function*). The focus group also mentioned that their social interaction group broadened, and that they gained social support that all contributed to personal growth (esteem function).

When I asked the committee why they volunteered at the Summer project, Participant L mentioned that he was invited by a friend and was intrigued by the Project's aims and the sense of belonging it created, especially for LBGTI students. After volunteering for a while, he also discovered its career benefits. Participant L became frustrated with his group's lack of commitment and enthusiasm, and asked them why they signed up to volunteer. He recalls all the volunteers present at that meeting making reference to their CVs and career as reasons for signing up. This suggests that career function motives do not necessarily increase commitment. Donna also noted that most volunteers already came from the general volunteer community and had previous volunteering experience.

A pattern was noticed between good programme leadership and volunteer commitment. The volunteer benefits mentioned expressed several functional motives, illustrating the relationship between motives and benefits. The participating volunteers were committed volunteers who were retained for as long as five years. Their motives for volunteering related to the understanding, value and social functions. The project leader expressed how these motives (understanding and value) were addressed through the benefits offered, leading to volunteer satisfaction and ultimately retention.

The Summer project illustrates the diversity within student volunteer projects related to the variety of institutional volunteer structures. For various reasons, Season University does not focus on volunteer projects that require volunteers to commit to a specific day and time on a weekly basis. Only the volunteers involved in the mentorship programme were required to volunteer on a weekly basis. The Summer project challenges the notion of 'commitment' as well as 'community' within student volunteerism, as many of the programmes aimed at serving the campus community as well as the community outside of the campus. This case study also demonstrated a very comprehensive developmental support structure towards student volunteerism. As a result of the involvement of university staff members, project leaders were mentored and when some leaders were not leading well, the staff members could intervene.

5.3.5   Case study 6: Spring project

The Spring project is a mathematics tutoring programme for grade 6 learners. The project only started in 2012 and is still finding its form and rhythm. The project is a social responsibility programme forming part of the Leadership and Social Responsibility office, situated in the Centre for Student Support Service. The project leader, Tina - a staff member at the Leadership and Social Responsibility office - is responsible for all social responsibility initiatives beyond the Spring project. The office has a clear leadership structure. Tina reports to Lynn, the coordinator, while Lynn reports to Samantha, the manager of the Leadership and Social Responsibility office. I consequently interviewed all three staff members involved in the leadership structure of the Spring project.

Season University mostly has once-off initiatives as opposed to projects that require students to volunteer on a weekly basis. The University is aware of its students' personal challenges and do not encourage too many continuous volunteer projects. The Spring project was the only weekly initiative that I was aware of within this Office.

"I think while students have a desire to give back, you know, they also have a lot of conflicting priorities... there are lots of people who are on our programme who are parents as well, so, you know, so they've got to juggle parenting, and other commitments" – Samantha

Recruitment and retention

Students have the option to volunteer on a Tuesday or a Friday. Volunteers used to be between five and seven on a day, but the Tuesday groups decreased to at times only one or two student volunteers, whereas the Friday group had between four and five volunteers.

Tina applied the following recruitment strategies to recruit volunteers for the Spring project: word of mouth and social media strategies, as well as a mass email sent to all the students from the department. Again, it was noted that emails were ineffective. The education faculty was specifically targeted and a separate email sent to their students. Lecturers were also approached separately and asked if they knew of students in the department who would be interested to volunteer at the Spring project.

It was however difficult to retain students, maintain their initial energy and prevent them from losing interest in the programme. Samantha argues that the key way to keep students motivated is to maintain good interpersonal relationships with the students, both in terms of staff-student relationships and relationships among students. These relationships form a sense of community and accountability. Tina added that keeping the volunteers interested in the programme is essential and can be boosted by: providing opportunities to be involved; allowing students to share responsibility by delegating tasks; allowing them to take a lead and purposefully develop their leadership skills; having a few once-off initiatives; and having an open door policy between staff and students. Samantha also

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mentioned other organisational retention strategies: for example, to celebrate students who participated for a certain number of hours, match the student interests with the projects, and make sure that your volunteer expectations are realistic.

The Spring project faced a language barrier in their recruitment drive, considering that most students attending Season University are English speaking, but the learners are predominantly Afrikaans. The Project needed students who could tutor in Afrikaans.

Other challenges included the availability of transport. The office for Leadership and Social Responsibility only has one vehicle that can transport seven students, and only a few students have their own transport. The office also faces challenges regarding capacity due to limited staff members.

"*At times there are too many volunteers for the transport available, and then we cannot accommodate the volunteers.*" - Tina

"*Resources are tight, we got to always consider cost benefit of any initiative that we do… Most of the students are 'hungry'… we prefer not to ask students to contribute toward projects, and to be sensitive to those students."* – Samantha

Class schedules and tests result in peak volunteer periods that have to be considered. Samantha thinks it is more difficult to work with service learning students as opposed to student volunteers, as service learning students are motivated to complete their courses. Tina and Lynn noted that it is the same students who are involved in co-curricular activities as it is a core group of students who look for opportunities to become involved. Lynn argues that most students generally do not perceive or understand the long-term benefits associated with volunteering, such as graduate attributes and enhancing employability.

"*We're very lucky in the fact that we have very engaged students… but what we tend to find, is that the ones that are interested, are the ones that are involved in everything.*" – Lynn

"Many students are already involved in their communities such as church organisations." – Lynn

Tina reported that most students volunteer because they want to make a difference and because the opportunity was presented to them. According to Samantha, students are aware that they are privileged to be able to study at a university and that with this privilege comes responsibility. Most students cannot contribute financially, thus volunteering their time and expertise is a way for them to give back to their communities. Although students mostly volunteer because they want to give back to their communities, they are nonetheless aware of the personal benefits of volunteering such as: 1) recognising that they are learning and growing through the interaction; 2) understanding that they can add the experience to their CVs; and 3) developing valuable skills that can be applied in the

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workplace. These benefits act as motivation to volunteer along with students' social needs like meeting new people that provides a different interaction (people in the community), and meeting like-minded people with similar philosophies (student volunteers).

> The Spring project sends out a strong message of social responsibility. Providing institutional structural support was found to be a challenge due to a lack of resources within the University. Also, the students attending Season University are not financially privileged, as was mentioned that 'students are hungry'. There was also mention of service learning students being more difficult to work with than students who volunteer without related academic responsibilities. No new information regarding student motives or sustained involvement was found.

5.3.6   Case study 4: Yellow project

As previously mentioned, I decided to use the Yellow project as a focus case study. Hence, this case was the only case to be examined in depth. The narrative is presented as a discussion between interviewees on themes related to organisational support given to student volunteers to enhance their sustained participation. Table 5.2 provides an overview of the voices recorded in the narrative.

Name	Position	Year	Interview date
John	Director	2012	12 November 2012
Tom	Human resources	2012	16 November 2012
Cath	Human resources Director	2011 & 2012 2013	4 December 2012
Bongi	Director	2014	12 February 2014
Luke	Coordinator: Societies and Student Organisations	2013	17 October 2013
Grace	Director: Green project	2012	20 November 2012

Table 5:2 Yellow project interviewees

The Yellow project was founded in 2004, hoping to incorporate previously disadvantaged schools into the debating league. The debating workshops that were presented aimed to develop critical thinking, analytic and public speaking skills. The Project operates in 22 schools where one-hour workshops are presented once a week (Monday to Thursday) per school. Volunteers are requested to commit to a school and a day in the week. Additionally, they also host occasional weekend events where a few schools are brought together to compete against each other. This is also where weekday volunteers from various schools have the opportunity to meet aside from project socials and other events.

The Project was managed by a group of student volunteers, referred to as the committee. Each member of the committee was assigned a portfolio with specific responsibilities. It was evident that

a portfolio could be shared by more than one volunteer, or one volunteer could occupy more than one portfolio.

Portfolio	Responsibility
Director	Project management
Deputy Director	Assistant to the director
Secretary	Administration
Logistics	Transport and communication with teachers
Human resources	Attending to volunteers, including recruitment and retention
Training	Volunteer training
Monitoring & evaluation	Monitoring and evaluation of project progress (learners & volunteers)
Marketing	Project marketing
Fundraising	Fundraising events management

Table 5:3 Yellow project leadership structure: Portfolios and responsibilities

Other than conducting a focus group with the entire committee, I only interviewed Cath, appointed in the human resources position for two years (2011 and 2012) and Tom, co-holding the HR position during 2012. I focused on the HR portfolio of the Yellow project based on the structuring of the committee compared to that of the Blue and Citrus project committees. The committees of the previous case studies consisted of different programme leaders who each took responsibility for the volunteers in their programmes. The Yellow project differed as it had no sub programmes, and its committee members occupied task-orientated portfolios.

The HR portfolio involved responsibilities such as managing volunteer recruitment drives and ensuring that there were enough volunteers per workshop for each day. Consequently, this meant sending a reminder message to all volunteers on the day before every workshop. Communication tools included the use of bulk SMSs and Electro[39]. Similar to a comment made by Mark (from the Banana project), the use of emails was flagged as an ineffective communication tool. Other responsibilities involved meeting with the volunteers before they leave for the workshops in order to ensure that all the volunteers are on the bus. Further responsibilities included ensuring that the volunteers have all the materials they need to conduct the workshop, as well as meeting them at the drop-off point on campus after the workshop, to gather feedback on the day's programme.

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[39] Colour University has a system which I named Electro. Societies use Electro to advertise and communicate with their members. Electro is an online system where you can register for courses and societies. Every student organisation and society has a page on Electro.

Recruitment and retention

The Yellow project's recruitment is performed under the banner of the Green Project[40]. Signed up volunteers for the Yellow project averaged more than 200 per year, but active volunteers ranged from 60 to 80 per year.

Colour University has strict rules on when projects are allowed to recruit. The formal recruitment stretches over three days during the first-year orientation week, and a second phase is implemented at the start of the second semester. The Green project has three opportunities for recruitment at the start of the year; international students' orientation, faculty presentations[41] and first-year orientation. During the first-year orientation, the Green project sets up a stall at the society fair[42]. Everyone in the committee is allocated a time to be at the stand to convey project information and recruit new volunteers. After students have signed up to volunteer, they are contacted and an interview booked (5 to 10 minutes). Next, the Project hosts its first training day, another opportunity for volunteers to sign up. All new volunteers are encouraged by email to invite their friends to the training. Also, if students could not sign up to volunteer at the society fair or the training session, they are still able to visit the society's desk on campus or contact the HR representative.

The Yellow project is a debating organisation. During recruitment, they target former Yellow project learners who are now at university, as well as students who have been involved in debating at school level. The project also recently started to do recruit pre-orientation. The HR representative visits schools that are strong in debating and markets the Yellow project to the grade 12 learners.

Moreover, volunteers are required to have the necessary competencies and values. Therefore, during the interview process, the committee aims to assess the newly signed up volunteer's skills and interests, reasons for volunteering, whether or not they have time to make such a commitment, their strengths and weaknesses, and their expectations.

"Both organisations [Blue and Yellow projects] focus on what they view South Africans should be and what they should be valuing and what values they should instil in the learners that they work with." – Luke

The interview space is also used to communicate the benefits of volunteering to the students. I have again linked the mentioned benefits to volunteer motives. The Yellow project's committee

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[40] Umbrella Project – affiliated with the Yellow and Blue projects.
[41] The Project is given a few minutes to market themselves at each faculty orientation meeting.
[42] Every student organisation and society is permitted to present a stall where they advertise their projects for three days in order to recruit volunteers.

emphasises benefits such as the development of social consciousness (*citizenship*), the development of various other skills, such as communication, debating and other soft skills (*understanding function*), as well as social aspects such as meeting like-minded people (*esteem function*). Grace recalled the most frequent answers from students when asked about their reasons for volunteering during the interviews: giving back and wanting to help others (*citizenship and value function*). Another less dominant reason was to develop skills (*understanding function*). These reasons triangulated positively with the Likert scale findings. When asked why he thought students would volunteer, Luke replied as follows:

a) The University sends a message through its course work and other communication that 'it is important to be engaged' (*citizenship*).

b) Students want to learn practical skills (*understanding function*).

c) Students volunteer based on altruistic motives.

d) Students would like to build awareness of what to do in terms of the opportunities you have when the need presents itself (*citizenship*).

e) Students have free time.

f) It is a way for students from closed communities to experience the 'real' South Africa and become aware of the country's social issues (*understanding function and citizenship*).

Cath also referred to students whose reasons to volunteer were based on their formal service learning commitments. Not all faculties organise a volunteer placement on behalf of their students. Often, students are required to find an organisation to slot in with and complete their service learning hours. Students are mostly attracted to the specific course promoted by an organisation that matches their interests (*value function).* In this case it is the space offered to debaters to do what they love and the opportunity to teach that to others. For a few students, their motives were born out of pure altruistic motives. Tom added that the reason why students would volunteer is because it is a lot of fun.

Unfortunately, the committee members do not have the opportunity to sustain volunteer commitment, as the first decrease in volunteer numbers occurs during the recruitment process. A large portion of those who signed up to volunteer does not participate in the interview process.

"I think there are so many different organisations that people get completely overwhelmed and either they don't sign up or they sign up for too much and then pull out immediately." - Cath

Despite the high decrease seen in the initial number of signed up volunteers compared to active volunteers, it would appear that the Yellow project has a relatively good retention rate and commitment level among those who actually participate.

"People come back year after year to it [Yellow project] which I think is quite unique because often people will volunteer in first year and then be like 'I've had enough, like I'm focusing on academics now' or something, and we've got like people who've done it since first year and are now master's students." – Cath

"For the core volunteers who remain they are generally very good about being committed to coming especially on the weekdays." – John

Still, a few students do drop out of the project. There are many reasons why students do not commit or continue their involvement in a volunteer project. Grace noticed the lack of reflection on a volunteer level as a possible hindrance to commitment along with academic pressures, tests and being over-committed. Cath concurred that students have a tendency to over-commit themselves to non-academic activities without realising the volume of their academic commitment. Consequently, students end up '*not having enough time'* as highlighted by Tom. Luke added that at times students realise that they are not actually enjoying it as much as they thought they would, which leads to unrealistic volunteer expectations. Tom agrees and adds that unrealistic expectations are also related to what they think they are going to achieve from volunteering. Cath also mentioned a lack of incentives from the University.

"*I know the University looked at putting volunteering on our academic transcripts and they decided against it because they think it will be fostering the wrong motives for community work, and maybe it will, I don't know, but I know that student organisations here really, really struggle to get volunteers and I really don't think it should be that way."* Cath

The various participants interviewed shared similar ideas on what they consider hindrances to commitment, benefits of volunteering, motives for volunteering and which measures could be implemented to sustain volunteer commitment. I analysed their responses and decided to present it as a discussion within themes of organisational support needed for sustained participation.

Being organised

Project leadership should be organised in their administration of the project. This includes logistics such as organising transport, which the Yellow project is fortunate to be able to provide to the volunteers. There should be clear programme structures. Being organised also includes many of the other factors still to be mentioned, such as well-organised socials, training sessions and clear communication channels. When a project is not organised, students become frustrated because they need to know what is expected of them. Thus, effective planning and execution are crucial.

"The committee needs to make it as easy as possible for the volunteers to volunteer." - Tom

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Effective and clear communication structures

The Yellow project has multiple communication structures to consider. Communication occurs between committee members, the committee and volunteers, schools, the Green project as well as between the committee and donors.

A big concern for the leadership of the Yellow project was the communication between the committee, school and learners. When the communication between these parties is not clear, it has a significant negative influence on the retention rate and commitment levels of the volunteers and learners. Interviewees referred to incidences where the volunteers would arrive at a school and there would be no learners, because the school failed to communicate that the learners had to be somewhere else. In other incidences the teachers at the school had not conveyed the project information to the learners. Tom suggested that the consistent failures in communication caused volunteers to drop out of the project. He reasoned that had the school communicated with the committee, they would have cancelled the workshop, or those specific volunteers would have been asked to help at another school.

"We have seen a definite correlation between schools that aren't very committed and volunteers that aren't very committed." - Cath

Another fundamental communication channel is the one between the committee and the volunteers. John suggested the use of the bulk SMS system by the HR representative to remind volunteers of their commitment to attend workshops. Volunteers are encouraged to communicate in advance if they will not be able to attend a workshop. The committee places the onus on the volunteers to find a replacement if they cannot be at a workshop. This strategy aims to prevent planned workshops being altered at the last minute, and to help volunteers recognise the importance of their attendance. The opportunities afforded for feedback and reflection have also been noted as an essential part of the communication between the committee and volunteers.

"Providing a space for feedback also communicates that you actually care because if people feel like they're being heard then they are more likely to keep coming because they are enjoying the experience more so." - Cath

Ignite the passion to make a difference and demonstrate active citizenship

Cath mentioned that some students might volunteer due to a "*sense of guilt because they live in South Africa"* and added that *"people feel duty bound.*" John agreed, adding that "*you need to contribute to your society*", as he reflected on coming from a privileged background. Bongi, however, does not come from a privileged background and said his personal reasons for volunteering was to *"give back to township kids or to underprivileged kids."* He adds that volunteering brings about a good feeling especially when you note how learners develop both in debating skills and academically, and how

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their lives are changing. Tom mentioned that another reason for volunteering could also be related to the fact that the Yellow project directly addresses issues resulting from the educational shortcomings in South Africa. He noted that "*the discrepancy between the haves and have nots, as well as the educated and uneducated cause people to think that they should have a social conscience and therefore they should be volunteering.*" Some students also affiliate with the debating culture in order to experience the benefits of debating and resulting from a desire to teach it to others. Hence, John also added personal growth as a reason for volunteering.

After volunteering for four years, John discovered that as he continued to volunteer, the process became more meaningful and he started to note the difference he was making. Grace found that continuously sharing the vision of the project with the volunteers helped to remind them why they signed up in the first place, adding to sustained participation. She also pointed out that a space to reflect is a pivotal element in keeping volunteers motivated. Reflection should be used to take stock of achievements – this helps volunteers note the difference they are making. Volunteering holds many benefits, and the biggest one mentioned by the volunteers of the Yellow project, is being able to note the impact made. A noticeable impact brings about a sense of satisfaction.

"In debating, progress is really clear." - Cath

Create opportunities to form relationships

Everyone agreed that a focused retention strategy is to establish an environment of belonging. Grace mentioned that her sustained involvement in the Yellow project could be ascribed to having good relationships with the committee, volunteers and learners. Apart from having volunteer socials, Tom also mentioned the availability of project t-shirts. He mentioned that t-shirts have a duel function of marketing the project and feeling included and part of the group.

"A big focus is making them [volunteers] feel that they are part of a broader family. They [Blue and Yellow projects] often have volunteer braais, volunteer socials, things that bring the volunteers together and bring them into interaction with the leadership of the organisations… If the volunteers don't feel passionate about the organisations the organisations are going to fail because they need these students to then come into the leadership." - Luke

When asked what may be implemented to enhance volunteer commitment, Bongi, Cath and Tom once again suggested that the committee should host fun volunteer socials. Bongi added that these socials are important, because they allow volunteers to get to know each other and for the committee to know the volunteers.

"The ones we haven't formed personal relationships with will fluctuate a lot but they usually fall out completely, we don't tend to have someone who for the whole semester comes like once every two weeks, they tend to either come every week or drop out half way through" – Tom

Cath concurred, while mentioning that from her experience as HR she noticed *"that the best way to keep volunteers involved is if they have a personal connection with someone because then they feel some kind of duty and that someone can either be the HR Manager or another volunteer or a learner or a group of learners."* This form of accountability can also be created between volunteers by pairing them so that they may feel an obligation to their partner. However, it is not always possible due to a shortage of volunteers. Forming relationships with the learners also adds to sustained involvement as volunteers tend to follow the progress of the learners with whom they formed relationships.

"We try to keep the classes small and the sessions quite intimate so you're definitely making a direct impact in someone's life and you can actually see it." - Cath

Tom suggested that small volunteer appreciation gifts help show that their work does not go unnoticed. These gifts can be a small chocolate to say thank you. Added to supporting the volunteers and creating a sense of belonging is to create a fun atmosphere. Bongi stresses that the fun element should not only focus on volunteer–learner relationships during workshops, but also on volunteer-volunteer relationships. Cath validates the sense of a fun element being important.

"The more supported volunteers feel and the more they're enjoying it the more likely they are to come back… Even learners who went to Season University still come to our weekend events to volunteer because they enjoyed it so much." - Cath

Incorporate educational elements within the volunteer process

Bongi suggested adding a deliberate educational element to the volunteer experience. He argued that the volunteers are not merely there to fulfil a function but should be cared for and looked after in a holistic manner. Thus, training should occur throughout the year and volunteers should be provided with workshop material. John concurred and mentioned that offering detailed training that is interesting and up to date would add to sustained involvement.

"The more insecure people are as volunteers, the less likely they are to stay, because it is more an intimidating experience… We try and make it as easy for volunteers as possible, in terms of giving them all the material and the training they will need to feel absolutely confident." – John

Volunteer motives	Volunteer perceived benefits	Retention strategy
Social conscience	Note the impact that you make	Reflection session. Continuously casting the vision of the project.
Personal growth	Learning soft skills	Add an educational element to volunteer experience.
Learn skills	Learn skills	Training throughout the year
Being part of a group	Making friends / Sense of belonging	Fun volunteer socials
		Pair volunteers for accountability purposes. Project T-shirts & appreciation gifts
Making a difference	Personal connection with the learners	Forming small learner groups

Table 5:4 Connection between motives, benefits and retention strategies

The interview responses of the various student volunteer leaders demonstrated that their motives for volunteering coincided with volunteer expectations and perceived benefits to gain from the process. In this light, it can be reasoned that retention rates and commitment levels will increase if these expectations are met and benefits are gained. Table 5.4 is presented as an example of the connection between mentioned motives, benefits, and retention strategies.

There was consensus on motives to volunteer, benefits and what needed to be implemented to best retain volunteers and keep them committed. The participants who were interviewed by me were all student volunteer leaders who had volunteered for many years. The Yellow project had the second largest group of active volunteers recorded across case studies. Once again, it was clear that the management was interested in recruiting a specific type of volunteer. The institutional messages of social justice and citizenship echoed loudly among all the participants. Many students volunteer because they want to make a difference, and with debating it is easy to notice progress and the difference you are making.

Themes emerging from the interviewees in terms of organisational support were:

1) Project leaders should be organised, with a clear functional operational structure in place.
2) There should be effective and clear communication structures.
3) Efforts should be made to ignite volunteers' passion to make a difference and demonstrate active citizenship.
4) Create opportunities to form relationships.
5) Incorporate educational elements within the volunteer process.

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5.3.6.1   Yellow project volunteer demographics

The Yellow project constituted 31% (n = 22) of the total volunteers (N = 70) who completed the questionnaire. The Yellow project volunteers comprised of a relatively equal balance of male 57% (n = 12) and female volunteer 43% (n = 9). The participants were fairly diverse in terms of race with White 38 (n = 8), Black 38% (n = 8), Coloured 10% (n = 2) and Indian 14% (n =3) participants. The gender ratio for race percentage showed that there were more black males (75%) than white males (63%). Both coloured participants were female, while of the three Indian participants, one was male and one female. The other participant had not indicated gender. The average age of the participants was 20 years and they ranged from 18 to 27 years old. Two participants indicated that they were volunteering as part of a service learning course.

5.3.6.2   Volunteer retention and recruitment

Participants ranged from first-year to fourth-year (honours) students. The first-years were the larger group at 41% (n = 9) and the second-years the smallest group at 9% (n =2). Additionally, 27% (n = 6) of the participants was third-years and 23% (n = 5) fourth-year (honours) students. No one previously volunteered at the Yellow project as part of a service learning course. Only 23% of the group had never volunteered at any other community project before signing up with the Yellow project. It can be argued that the rest (77%) were retained as volunteers within the general volunteer community. Out of the five first-time volunteers, two were in their first year of studies, another two were fourth-year (honours) students and one was a second-year student. Therefore, seven of the nine first-year volunteers started volunteering before coming to university.

Months volunteering	0-3 months (term)	4–6 months (beyond term)	7-9 months (beyond semester)	10-12 months (1 year)	24 months (2 years)	36 months (3 years)
Participants (n = 21)	n = 0	n= 4	n = 2	n = 9	n = 3	n = 3
Retention rates over 3 years	100%	100%	81%	71%	29%	14%

Table 5:5 Retention rates of participating Yellow project volunteers

When examining the total number of months the participants volunteered at the Yellow project, the findings verified that the project was able to retain a fair number of volunteers. The university calendar is normally set between February and November, thus I included those who mentioned that they were volunteering for ten, eleven and twelve months as equal to a year of volunteering. Accordingly, the retention rates were as follows: beyond a term (three months) = 100%; beyond a semester (six months) = 81%; for one year (ten to twelve months) = 71%; for two years (24 months) = 29% and for three years (36 months) = 14%.

Fifty-five percent of volunteers came to know about the Yellow project mostly by word of mouth, being informed or invited by a friend. The remaining participants were drawn to the project at the society fair, with one volunteer who saw the online advertisement and another volunteer who saw the university newspaper.[43] It may be argued that happy and satisfied volunteers will tell their friends to join. Thus, more than half of the current volunteers were drawn to the project by volunteers whose expectations were met. I argue that the project is definitively doing something correctly in terms of being able to meet volunteer expectations and to recruit and retain volunteers.

The Yellow project managed to recruit two fourth-year (honours) students as first-time volunteers. Both these students were committed volunteers who had been volunteering for one year at the Yellow project. Their motives for volunteering were respectively linked to citizenship and understanding functions. Their reasons for volunteering at the Yellow project[44] specifically were based on an organisational fit and having more free time available to volunteer. The volunteer who indicated citizenship and an organisational fit as reasons for choosing the Yellow project, learned about the project online. This was the only student who mentioned online advertising. The inference could be made that the student was searching for a place to volunteer that would fit his or her needs, whereas the other students volunteered based on "*the prospect of adding depth and perspective to my knowledge*" and signed up at the society fair. This student made no specific reference to why he chose the Yellow project over other projects, suggesting that he was not drawn to the Yellow project per se, but to the practice of volunteering and gaining understanding in general.

Three of the participants had been volunteering at the Yellow project for three years and reported having good relationships with the committee and fellow volunteers.[45] Two of them expressed the value function and the other citizenship as a motive for volunteering. All three chose the Yellow project because of its debating aspect.

"*I debated in high school and that had lasting positive effects on me. As such I wanted to volunteer in a way that I could share that.*" - Participant 24

"*It teaches the kids the importance of argumentation. It's crucial.*"- Participant 25

"*Past debating experience, great organisable culture and warmth of people.*" - Participant 26

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[43] Answer for the open-ended question 3.3 of the questionnaire.
[44] Answer for the open-ended question 3.1 of the questionnaire
[45] Answers for the open-ended question 3.9 of the questionnaire

When asked whether or not their volunteer expectations were met, two agreed and one expressed a need to expand the reach of the project. These expectations were strongly related to their reasons for volunteering at the Yellow project.

"Yes, I have been able to give most of myself and to learn most about people" – Participant 24

"Yes. I am given the autonomy to teach the kids what I think is crucial" – Participant 25

"To a large degree most of them are met but…I would like a larger reach" – Participant 26

Moreover, out of the 22 Yellow project participants, 16 said that their volunteer expectations where met, three mentioned that only some were met, and two were unable to give an answer because they were new volunteers and one stated having no expectations. In order of most mentioned, an equal number of participants reported that their expectations were met because:

1) The organisation was organised and logistics were in place (*structural support).*
2) The organisation was achieving its goals and they could note that they were making a difference (*satisfying volunteer expectation: value function*).
3) There were opportunities to develop skills through well-organised training sessions, thus also personal growth (*developmental support*: *understanding and esteem function*).
4) They were able to meet new people and had the opportunity to spend time with great fellow volunteers along with feeling a sense of appreciation and self-fulfilment (*developmental support*: *esteem function*).

There was a strong link between volunteer expectations, volunteer motives and the organisational support needed to sustain volunteer participation.

5.3.6.3   *Volunteer motives*

Two additional themes outside of the functional motives emerged from the open questions, namely citizenship and service learning. I made the distinction between *value* and *citizenship* based on the fact that the participants did not merely communicate a general concern for others, but their concern was also directed towards the welfare of the country. When volunteers expressed their motives for volunteering linked to a course or interest, I distinguished the course or interest between general interest such as debating, or whether the course was politically connected to the enhancement of social justice such as the inequalities in the South African educational system.

"I feel that the inequalities in the South African education system can be mitigated by lending my skills to those who can't afford paid for services." - Participant 7

"*The gross inequalities that exist in South Africa and the need for EVERYONE to try to make a difference motivates me to volunteer.*" – Participant 21

The second theme - service learning - is unique to student volunteerism. Interestingly, in the open-ended question, no student volunteers reported the career function as a motive to volunteer. In both the case of the Likert scale and the open-ended question the value and understanding functions were noted as the top three reasons for volunteering, with the citizenship theme also recorded in the open-ended questions.

Order of most appeared	Likert scale	Open-ended question
1	Understanding	Value
2	Value	Citizenship
3	Esteem	Understanding
4	Career	Social
5	Protective	Esteem
6	Social	Protective
7		Service learning

Table 5:6 Yellow project: Comparison between Likert scale data and open-ended question 3.1

The theme of citizenship as a reason to volunteer was confirmed by the participants' answers. Question 3.10 of the open-ended questions asked whether or not they thought all South Africans should volunteer as part their social responsibility. Seventeen out of the 22 participants answered yes; one participant answered no; three participants said not necessarily (mixed feelings); and one did not provide an answer. The main reasons mentioned were awareness of the inequalities in the country and the need to help develop, uplift and give back. Participants also shared the sentiment that only those who are in a position to volunteer should volunteer and that it should not be forced on everyone. Nonetheless, there was consensus on volunteering as a call to active citizenship. These responses also validated my decision to code words such as *give back* and *uplift* under the theme of citizenship instead of the value function.

5.3.6.4 *Organisational support and factors facilitating student volunteerism*

Students become demotivated when a project does not have structure, the leadership is disorganised, and logistics are not in place. Hence, organisational support necessary for sustained involvement includes:

1) Organised leadership related to effective planning, structure, communication and logistics;
2) Continuous sharing of the project's vision, volunteer debriefing and reflection time to evaluate progress;
3) Opportunities for volunteers and learners to form relationships with leadership, therefore incorporating fun volunteer socials and small group facilitation with the learners;

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4) Integrating educational elements within the volunteer process, such as regular training sessions and reflection sessions to track personal growth. These factors also serve to mitigate factors that tend to limit student volunteerism, for example, lack of reflection on a volunteer level, academic pressure, not actually enjoying the volunteer process, and unrealistic volunteer expectations.

Support from the university is crucial, especially when the projects are student driven, because the leadership of the projects are also students who experience heavy academic demands and other time management challenges. Thus, structural support such as providing transport, office space, funding, other administrative resources and guidance in legal matters is essential.

5.4   FINDINGS ACROSS CASES

Volunteer demographics across case studies indicate that more females (58%) than males (42%) volunteered. There were also more White participants (49%) compared to African (28%), Coloured (19%) and Indian participants (4%). However, the ratio between White and historically black participants (African, coloured and Indian) were more or less one to one. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 28 with a mean of 21 years. Participants were mostly undergraduate students (72%) with the third-years being the biggest group overall (30%) and the second-years the smaller group at (19%). The entire student group volunteered for an average of twelve months (mean) with the larger percentage volunteering for nine months (median).

Only ten percent of the total number of volunteers were involved as part of a service learning programme. In the open-ended question section, only one of those seven students mentioned service learning as a motive to volunteer.

"I am required to volunteer to complete my degree." - Participant 12.

Another service learning participant who volunteered at the Citrus project stated a faith-based motive. In other words, the student matched his or her interest to a project. Some other service learning students were able to not view the time given to community interaction as an obligation but a choice.

"To know that my willingness to contribute some of my time has the potential to impact somebody else's life" – Participant 39

Moreover, four students volunteered as a result of previous volunteer experience through a service learning programme. A total of 19% had never volunteered anywhere else before their current volunteer projects. Thus, 19% of the participants were new recruits, whereas the rest (81%) was retained within the broader volunteer community.

The demographic of the total participating volunteers varied from the demographics of the Yellow project volunteers respectively. Institutional demographics influenced volunteer demographics overall, considering that the respective participating universities' demographics are significantly different due to the institutions' histories and cultures. Fruit University contributed 44% of the 70 volunteers and Colour University contributed 46%. Season University contributed 10% of the total volunteer number. The Citrus project had the highest number of participants (36%), followed by the Yellow project (31%).

5.4.1 Motivation to volunteer

This section aims to answer the secondary research question: Why do students volunteer? Data were gathered from the open-ended question 3.1, the Likert scale section of the questionnaire (based on the functional approach), and the interviews and focus groups. Data were triangulated.

Below, I list the mean scores obtained from the Likert scale questions. The Banana project's results were not included in the per case presentation, as only two volunteers participated. However, the two participants were included in the across-case figures. The two dominant functional values per case and across-case studies were the value and understanding functions. No statistical significance was found between case studies on either of the functional motives. Similarly, no statistical significance was found between race across case studies on any of the functional motives.

Case study	Value	Understanding	Career	Social	Protective	Esteem
Case study 1	4.58	4.40	3.09	3.33	2.98	3.50
Case study 2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Case study 3	4.45	4.06	3.11	3.42	2.70	3.15
Case study 4	4.29	4.54	3.29	2.86	2.93	3.57
Case study 5	4.73	5.00	4.13	4.30	2.40	3.25
Case study 6	4.20	4.15	3.05	2.20	2.80	3.25
Across case studies	4.50	4.34	3.16	3.23	2.79	3.27

Table 5:7 Motivation comparison across case studies based on the functional approach to motivation

A statistically significant difference was found between male and female participants on the value, understanding, and career functions only. Female participants scored significantly higher on the two dominating functions: Value ($p<0.01$) and understanding function ($p<0.01$). A significant intent (not significant on 0.05 but on 0.1) was found on scores of the career function ($p=0.09$), with female participants scoring higher than male participants.
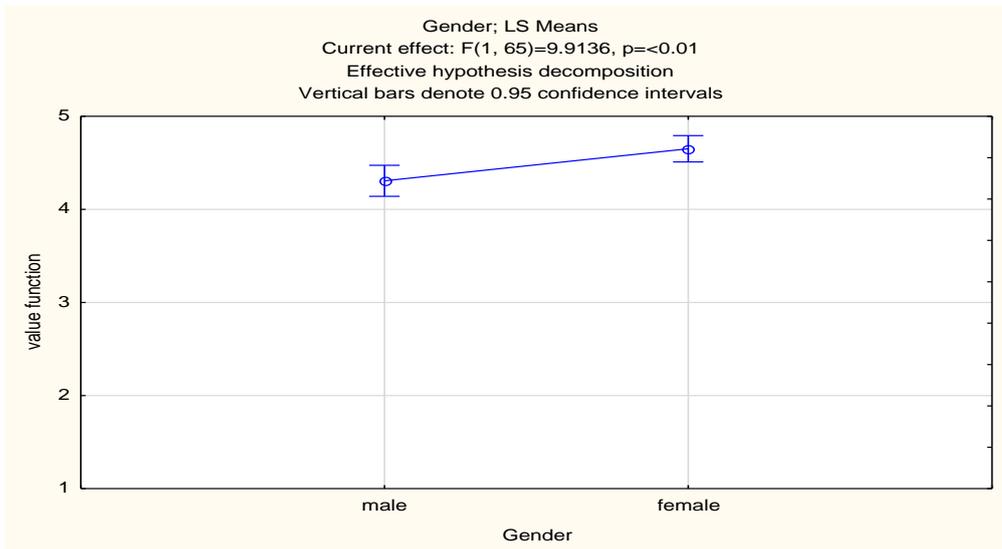
Figure 5:5 Comparison between male and female participants: Value Function
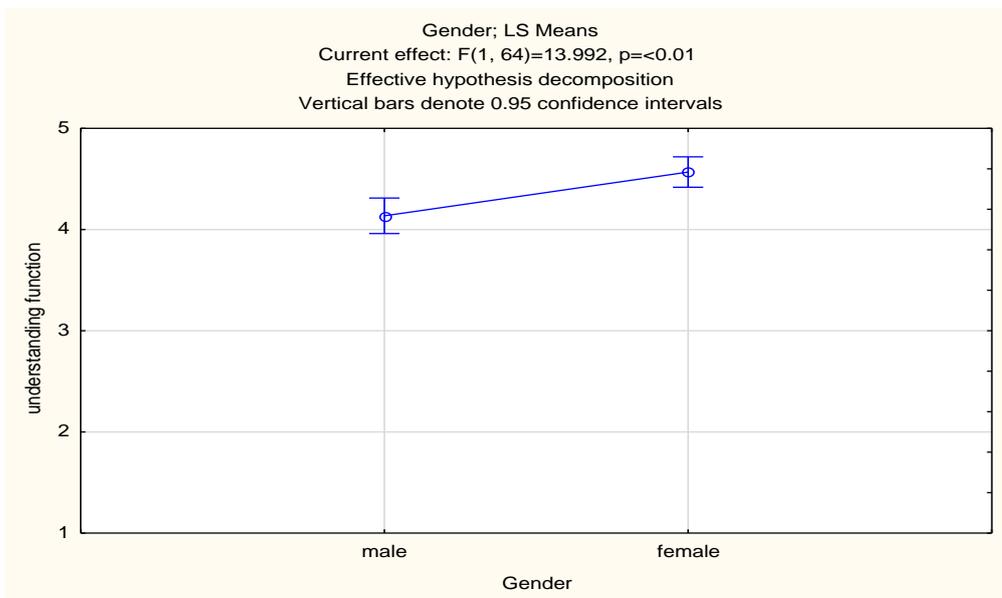
Figure 5:6 Comparison between male and female participants: Understanding Function
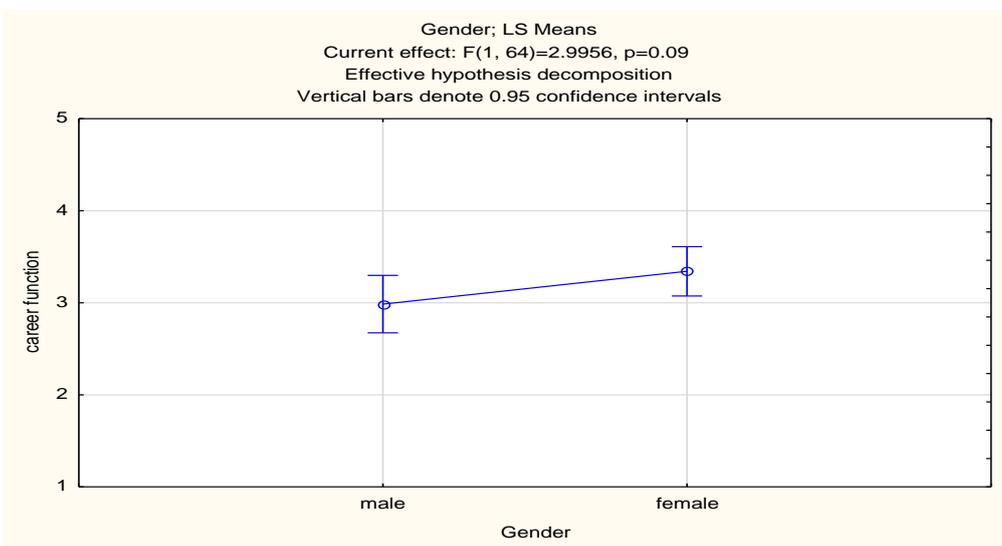
Figure 5:7 Comparison between male and female participants: Career function

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Male	Female
Citizenship (N = 12)	*Value Function (N = 12)*
Social responsibility, giving back (n = 5)	Helping others (n = 7)
Making a difference (n = 5)	Caring about a cause (n = 5) (debating, community service, education, children, and the programmes that are offered at the organisation).
Addressing inequalities (n = 1)	*Citizenship (N = 11)*
Uplift the country (n = 1)	Social responsibility, giving back (n = 5)
Value Function (N = 9)	Addressing inequalities (n = 2)
Help others (n = 6)	Uplift the country (n = 1)
Caring about a cause (n =3) (debating, children, community)	Making a difference (n = 3)
Understanding Function (N = 2)	*Faith-based (N = 9)*
Hands on experience (n =1)	Love for God (n = 3)
Adding depth and perspective to my knowledge (n =1)	Evangelistic (Telling others about God's love for them) (n = 4)
Esteem Function (N = 2)	Feeling called by God (n = 2)
Feel better about self (n = 1)	*Understanding Function (N = 6)*
Faith-based N = (N =2)	Hands on learning (n = 1)
Love of God (n = 1)	Learn about others (n = 1)
Evangelistic (To see lives improved and transformed through the gospel) (n =1)	Discover strengths and work on weaknesses (n = 1)
	Gain new perspective (n = 1)
Free time (N = 2)	Interact with people outside my comfort zone (n = 1)
I have time (n =2)	See problems first hand (n = 1)
Service learning (N = 1)	*Esteem (N = 4)*
I am required to volunteer to complete my degree (n=1)	Sense of achievement (n = 1)
Volunteer identity (N = 1)	Feel better about myself (n =1)
Part of my character and reinforces my identity as a volunteer (n =1)	Adds value to myself (n = 1)
Fun (N = 1)	Feel needed (n = 1)
It is fun (n =1)	*Social Function (N = 3)*
	Social modelling by parents (n = 1)
	My friends (n = 1)
	Value placed on it by society (n = 1)
	Protective Function (N = 3)
	Escape from own troubles (n = 2) (academic pressure, financial)
	Feel less lonely (n = 1)

Table 5:8 Open-ended question responses: Comparison between male and female participants

The open-ended responses from male and female participants are displayed in Table 5.9. Male participants mostly gave only one reason for volunteering, whereas the female participants would provide a few motives per participant. There was also a larger variety of motives outside of the functional motives reported by male participants, such as service learning, volunteering being fun, having free time, and volunteer identity.

The most dominant themes apart from the six functional motives were *citizenship* and *faith-based*. This result was found across genders and gathered by means of the open-ended questions. The faith-based motive, in particular, was linked to the Citrus project. Students with a high interest in religion were attracted to this project, and were sought after by the project management. One participant from the Blue project focus group also mentioned the faith-based motive.

"The project I volunteer at is centred on spreading God's word and sharing His love to others. God's love motivates me." – Participant 33

The theme of citizenship was a strong motive across the six case studies. Furthermore, when volunteers were asked to self-report on why they volunteered, there was only one out of the 70

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volunteers who mentioned the career function. Interestingly, this volunteer mentioned the career function as an initial motive that changed over time.

"*Initially it was just to get something good for my CV, but after a while I have learned that I have lots to offer other people*." – Participant 59

I conducted a standard reliability test and observed that the fifth statement on the esteem function section of the Likert scale had a low item-total correlation. The statement on *volunteering to make friends* did not completely fit with the rest of the esteem function statements as the reason behind the motive of wanting to make friends is more complex than portrayed on the surface. One person might want to make friends to feel less lonely (esteem function); another might want to make friends to broaden social circles and build contacts (career function); yet another might just want to make friends to expand his or her friendship circle with new, interesting people from whom they can learn (understanding function); another might want to meet people who are highly acclaimed within university circles (social function); or someone else might aim to fight depression or feelings of loneliness (protective function). The low item-total correlation did not have a big effect on the findings.

variable	Summary for scale: Mean=16.3623 Std.Dv.=3.95181 Valid N:69 (Spl Cronbach alpha: .786841 Standardized alpha: .786743 Average inter-item corr.: .462080				
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
esteem function (a)	13.40580	8.99475	2.999125	0.737817	0.683231
esteem function (b)	13.14493	9.80508	3.131307	0.726592	0.695314
esteem function (c)	13.24638	10.09872	3.177848	0.660685	0.716417
esteem function (d)	13.04348	9.86768	3.141286	0.615439	0.729218
esteem function (e)	12.60870	13.10775	3.620463	0.153080	0.866498

Table 5:9 Esteem function reliability test results

After triangulating all the data across case studies, the core reasons for why students volunteer were the value, citizenship and understanding functions. The esteem function was the highest motive among the less dominant themes.
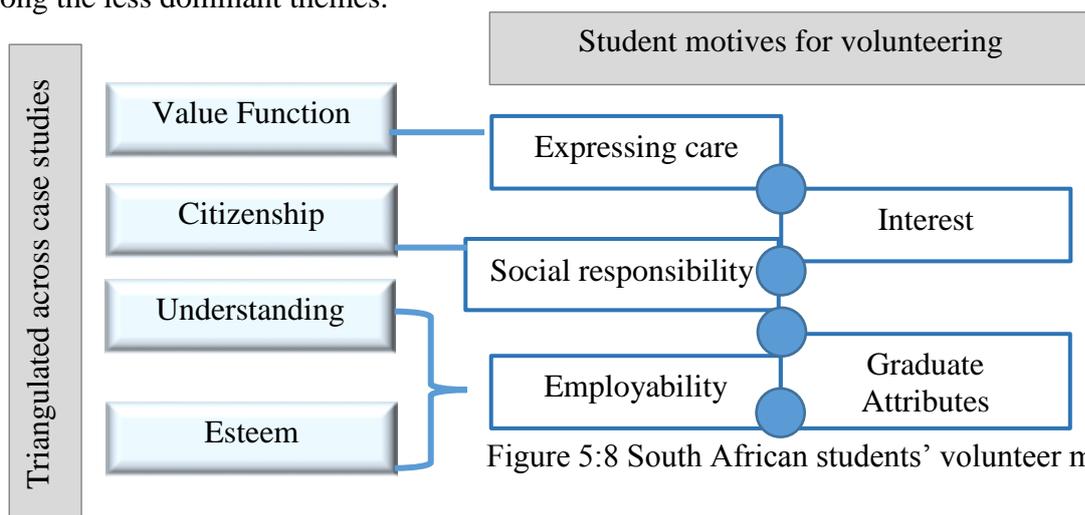
Figure 5:8 South African students' volunteer motives

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5.4.2   Support needed to sustain volunteer involvement

Data obtained from the interviews, focus groups and questionnaires indicated that student volunteerism needs structural and developmental support from both the institution and the volunteer organisation. Structural support encompasses logistics and other administrative mechanisms such as transport and office space or an available telephone line. Developmental support incorporates elements such as volunteer training, financial and legal guidance, along with mentorship and the development of leadership skills and active citizenship. Also, developmental support is aimed at both the student's professional and personal growth, thus addressing the *understanding*, *esteem* and *value function* motives as well as *citizenship*.
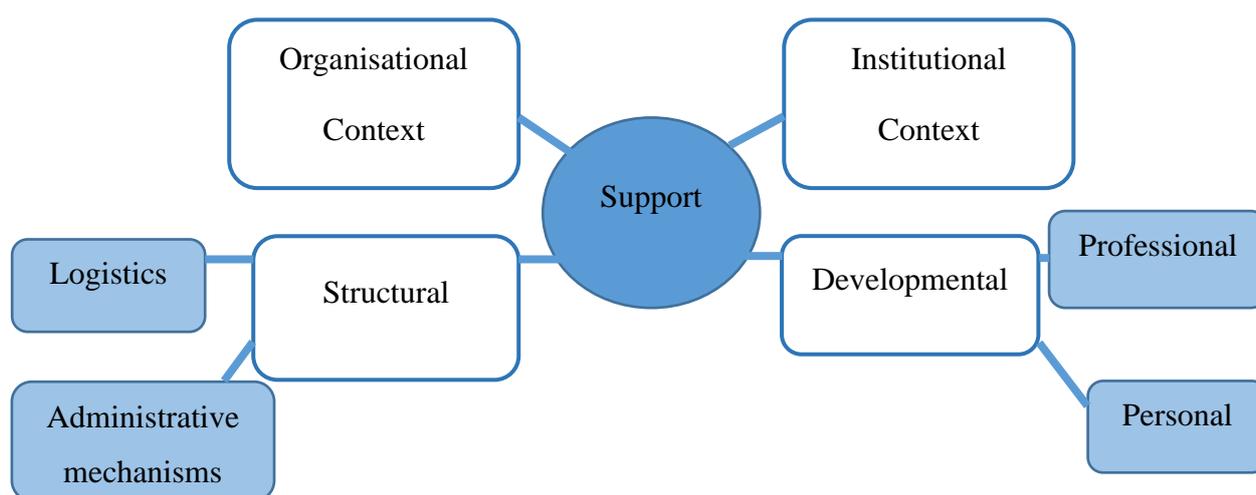
Figure 5:9 Institutional and organisational support structures and processes concerning student volunteerism

In particular, the support structures and processes are implemented to mitigate some of the constraints to student volunteerism. Constraints related to both recruitment and retention were mentioned during the interviews and focus groups. I clustered the mentioned barriers as communication, social, administrative and attrition factors.

Communication factors include: lack of communication between organisation leadership and volunteers; volunteers not being properly orientated to the community and the volunteer project; lack of reflection, debriefing and feedback time.

Social or relational factors comprise of: volunteers not feeling valuable; a lack of emotional support when confronted with challenges; volunteers not experiencing the programme as fun; no opportunities (volunteer socials) to make friends.

Administrative factors cover: lack of transportation; unorganised leadership; academic pressure; students being over-committed; availability of time.

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Attrition factors are those more closely linked to sustained participation and include: volunteer expectations not being met; placing unrealistic expectations on volunteers.

The factor that was mentioned most often was the administrative factor.

The participating case studies also reflected the multi-variance within student volunteer structures. The various structures are important to note as each structure requires slightly different support. Hence, volunteer organisations within this study may allude to either the community partner organisation or the student project, depending on the context. The data also revealed that it is advisable for universities to form partner relationships with community organisations. This is mostly to counter for the high student volunteer turnover rate and should enhance the sustainability of the student project.

At various times, the Citrus project was presented as both a community partner and a student activity within the university volunteer system, and functioned under the auspices of two mother bodies - the church and the university. It appeared that the student project leaders and the committee experienced a lack of support. The project's dual position and conflicting interests might have caused the gap in support.

The Banana project was an established NGO and community partner. Student leaders were well supported by the institution but not by the NGO. Subsequently, student leaders managed to maintain student volunteers but the NGO did not manage to retain the students' volunteer partnership.

The Blue and Yellow projects were student driven projects. The Blue project leadership struggled with the handover of the project to the next student leaders, indicating the need for more support from the institution in terms of leadership development and mentorship. However, the Yellow project demonstrated excellent support from the project leaders, who were all students.

In particular, the structure of the Summer project challenges the notion of commitment and community. This project served both the campus community and the community outside of campus. Commitment was also measured in terms of the quality of the students' contribution as the project did not have regular meeting times except for the mentoring programme.

Data also indicated that it is pivotal that the volunteer organisation presents itself as being organised. Students become frustrated when the leadership of a volunteer organisation is not organised. Participating student volunteers rated their organisational leadership[46] as being mostly excellent

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[46] Data retrieved from question 3.7 of the questionnaire

(41%) and good (54%). Only four percent indicated that the leadership was satisfactory and one person mentioned that the leadership was bad. Interestingly, the one student who indicated that the leadership was bad, volunteered at the Banana project. It was noted that this was also the case study that struggled to recruit and retain volunteers.

Furthermore, the data indicated that developmental support should be professional, incorporating educational elements and skill development. Developmental support should also be personal, attending to students' personal growth and the management of relational interaction. The volunteer space offers diverse human interactions that might be unfamiliar to some students. The leadership of the volunteer organisation should be aware of this and assist students in thought processes. Examples of structural and developmental support are encapsulated in the presentation of a retention framework in chapter 7.

5.4.3   What facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities?

From the data, the inference was drawn that student volunteerism at South African universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation, which is aimed at inculcating active citizenship, parallel to developing graduate attributes that promote employability. All the representatives from the three participating universities who were interviewed in this study alluded to the deliberate focus of the respective universities on linking student volunteer efforts to social responsibility and active citizenship.

"I see student volunteerism as part of education… how social care and social responsibility and caring for our neighbours is an important process." – Megan (Fruit University)

The Colour University representative also made mention of the continuous messages imparted to students on being socially responsive and how this influences the volunteer domain. He also alluded to a prototype of volunteers demonstrating citizenship.

"Both organisations [Blue and Yellow Projects] focus on what they view South Africans should be and what they should be valuing." - Luke (Colour University)

Season University also highlighted a social justice and social responsibility focus. They realigned their festival programmes from being aimed at fundraising to support community based initiatives to a narrow focus on social responsibility. They also have a dedicated division focusing on social responsibility. The Summer project is also aimed at addressing human rights issues and inequality. The management of the Summer project strongly pointed out the fact that their programmes are driven by frameworks such as food politics that distinguish their food drives from charity work.

The social justice orientation was supported by the students' dominant *citizenship* motive for volunteering, as many referred to addressing the inequalities of the past. It was evident from above statements that student volunteerism at these respective universities was driven by a social justice orientation emphasising citizenship.

Furthermore, during interviews and focus groups, both the university representatives and student leaders acknowledged that volunteerism was a way to instil graduate attributes. Season University explicitly mentioned that student volunteer projects are viewed as vehicles to develop graduate attributes. This sentiment was also shared by the SRC representative of Fruit University. However, management of the Spring project highlighted that many students are not yet aware of the benefits of graduate attributes, impacting the overall volunteer statistics. Although the students were not per se motivated to enhance their employability, they expressed awareness of the benefit of employability, as well as the fact that employability was an outcome of the desired graduate attributes. Hence, South Africa universities are currently directing student volunteerism within a social justice framework to promote citizenship and to enhance graduate attributes. This relates to being community focused (value function and citizenship) and self-focused (understanding) with a larger focus on society. This facilitation of student volunteerism is also well supported by the data from the students (motives) as well as the institutions (support and management). Whether or not universities are effectively implementing this set orientation is debatable and may be an area for further research. Moreover, a social justice orientation to volunteerism has implications for student volunteerism and especially recruitment and retention.
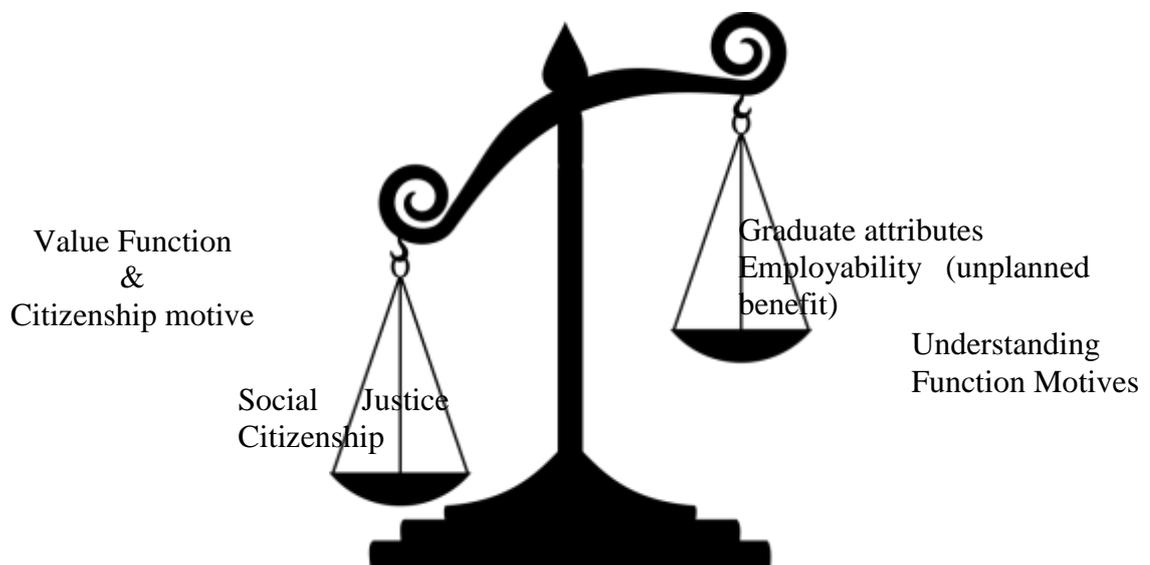
Figure 5:10 Student volunteerism balance of focus: Community-orientated vs Self-orientated

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5.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter five set out to present the findings of this study. The findings are displayed in three core sections; 1) the respective universities' volunteer structures, 2) the volunteer organisations as per the six case studies and, 3) an across-case focus. Data was packaged into a coherent narrative as I, the researcher, took on the persona of a story teller. Each story follows a clear logic structure as it aims to answer the research question: Why do students volunteer and what support do students need to enhance their sustained volunteering participation? These two secondary questions aim to ultimately answer the primary question: What facilitates student volunteerism at South African (SA) Universities?

The volunteer structures and support systems on each of the participating universities varied in many aspects. These structures had a direct influence on how student volunteerism were managed at each university as well as on recruitment and retention strategies. Consequently, the six case studies also varied in terms of structure, affiliation and effectiveness in terms of recruitment and retention of student volunteers.

Lastly, the triangulated data across the case studies were presented in a direct attempt to answer the research question. The findings suggest that the core reasons why students volunteer were related to the *value function, citizenship* and the *understanding function*. Also, it was noted that student volunteers needs structural and developmental support from both the institution and the volunteer organisation. Moreover, the findings indicated that student volunteerism at South African universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation, which is aimed at inculcating active citizenship, parallel to developing graduate attributes that promote employability.

The next chapter, therefore, purpose to present a comprehensive discussion of the findings related to relevant theories and research presented in some of the earlier chapters of this manuscript.

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION

This study investigated which factors facilitate student volunteerism at South African (SA) universities. Student volunteer motives were explored, and organisational and institutional structures were considered as supporting mechanisms to sustain volunteer involvement. The findings suggest that student volunteerism at South African universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation that inculcates active citizenship parallel to developing graduate attributes that promote employability. In particular, the findings obtained were compiled as a framework for effective recruitment and retention of university student volunteers. This framework is presented as a model in chapter seven, and is based on four essential cornerstones or elements, namely *motives, expectations, context* and *support* (MECS-4 cornerstone model). These core elements should be considered when recruiting and retaining student volunteers.

Findings are discussed in depth, starting with student motives for volunteering and student volunteer demographics. Next, institutional and organisational support coupled with constraints to student volunteerism and how it impacts recruitment and retention is reflected upon. The chapter ends with a discussion of how the findings were triangulated to determine what facilitates student volunteerism at South African universities. Hence, constructs such as social justice, active citizenship, graduate attributes and employability are deliberated on within the context of student volunteerism.

Student volunteer motives

The findings indicate that the three most prominent reasons for why students volunteer relate to the *value function*, *citizenship* and the *understanding function*. The functional approach to volunteer motives suggests that volunteering serves a function for the volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Motives related to the *value function* are those that allow volunteers to express their personal values through the act of volunteering. Personal values include being concerned about others and wanting to help those in need. It also includes being active about promoting a cause that you are passionate about, such as education. Motives linked to the *understanding function* relate to volunteering's function of gaining new perspectives, promoting hands-on learning, learning about others and how to work in diverse settings, as well as discovering personal strengths and weaknesses. *Citizenship* encapsulates a social justice orientation to volunteerism - a sense of social responsibility (Clark et al., 1997; Marullo & Edwards, 2000) and heightened social consciousness.

Owing to South Africa's deeply rooted history of Apartheid, students' concern for others was also linked to addressing the inequalities of the past and adding to the development of a democratic

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society. Students' quest to address the inequalities of the past and elicit social change coincides with reasons resulting in the advent of community psychology in South Africa (Kagan et al., 2011; Seedat & Lazarus, 2011). For this reason, expressions of wanting to give back and make a difference were coded as *citizenship* motives (Sherrod et al., 2002). Similar to how the *value* and *understanding functions* serve a purpose for the volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995), *citizenship* as a motive allows students to actively express active citizenship behaviour. Hence, it could be argued that *citizenship* should be included as a seventh function of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), developed by Clary et al. (1998). Notwithstanding, in their study, Jiranek et al. (2013) added another element of *citizenship* to the VFI, namely *social justice motives*. This led to other scholars referring *to social justice motives* as a function of volunteering (Güntert et al., 2016). However, this function has not yet been examined within the VFI, and is therefore not officially incorporated in the inventory. Furthermore, student volunteers from this study suggested that volunteerism should not be a duty for all South Africans, but that those who have the means to volunteer should consider it as part of their social responsibility. This sentiment resonates with the interpretation of volunteerism as a choice and not an obligation or duty (Cloke et al., 2007; Penner, 2004; Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

As a cohort, South African student volunteers' motives are in agreement with other student motives globally, alluding to the use of volunteerism to express care for others (*value function*) and to add understanding to knowledge (*understanding function*) (Gage & Thapa, 2011; Grönlund et al., 2011). Locally, previous studies support *citizenship* (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014) as well as the *understanding function* as a volunteer motive (Stuurman, 2008). As South African students address the inequalities of the past, they expressed confidence in their ability to contribute to finding solutions to societal problems (van den Berg et al., 2015).

Furthermore, *citizenship* was also found to be a motive for volunteering among the broader South African community, and was highlighted as a specific South African motive across five southern African countries (Perold et al., 2006). The findings thus concur with other South African studies stating that South Africans volunteer in an attempt to help with nation-building goals (Patel, 2007). This study supports notions of volunteering in developed countries (McBride et al., 2003) as it indicates that South African student volunteer motives are more often community and country focused (*value function and citizenship*) than self-focused (*career function*). In addition, South Africa's new democratic culture might also have contributed to the high appearance of the *value function* (Grönlund et al., 2011).

The three dominant volunteer motives reported in this study (*value, understanding and citizenship*) were positively associated with relatively self-determined motives as opposed to the other functional motives (Güntert et al., 2016). In other words, these motives are not encouraged by pressure and

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control. Self-determination theory (SDT) along with intrinsic and pleasure based motive theories may be applied in developing retention strategies. In short, these theories suggest that when people are motived by either internal, pleasure based or self-directed motives such as well-being (Vecina & Chacón, 2013) and receiving praise (Beehr et al., 2010), the motive for volunteering may be encouraged in the activity over a period of time as these are ongoing motives (Beehr et al., 2010). Ongoing motives are not once off satisfied and, therefore, contribute to retention of volunteers. Güntert et al. (2016) allude to these as high quality motives, as they contribute to more favourable outcomes such as commitment and prolonged involvement. Moreover, only these two functional motives (*value and understanding*) are linked to factors involving sustained participation (Willems et al., 2012). However, structural constraints such as the lack of transport might keep those motivated by the *value* and *understanding functions* from volunteering (Gage & Thapa, 2011). In part, there is high value in the knowledge that South African students are predominately motivated by the *value function, citizenship* and *understanding function*. These three motives as a cluster have been positively distinguished from other motives as mentioned above, and, therefore, hold great prospects for student volunteerism in South Africa. Volunteer organisations are encouraged to promote internal motives, such as being able to make a difference, as opposed to external benefits, such as certificates (Beehr et al., 2010). Nonetheless, understanding these motives in their separate entities is also essential.

The prominence among students who mention the *value function* as a motive for volunteering illustrates that the notion of volunteerism is still largely understood as the 'manifestation of human helpfulness' (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1516). Volunteer organisations are viewed as an organised space to give expression to care for others (Cloke et al., 2007). Students' concern for others is often related to a concern for a specific group or cause, which could be related to student interest. The *value function* motives voiced in this study consisted of an equal concern for one's neighbour as for the expression of the importance of a cause such as education and the welfare of children. Notwithstanding the small sample in this study, Likert scale data results showed that women scored significantly higher (p <0.01) on the *value function* than men. This might be explained by a suggestion that women are fulfilling societal expectations relating to their perceived nurturing nature (Petrzelka & Mannon, 2006) or that care is rooted in gender role definitions (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

Students are often perceived as being in the process of becoming citizens (Arnot & Swartz, 2012; Hall et al., 1999; Harris & Roose, 2014). This is largely due to the fact that students enrolled on a full-time basis do not occupy formal employment or contribute to the economy. Hence, volunteerism affords students a platform to contribute to society. The motive of *citizenship* is construed by students' awareness of the values promoted by volunteerism, such as furthering citizenship, solidarity, social

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interdependence, mutual trust, and a sense of belonging and empowerment (United Nations Volunteers, 2011). Many of these values are also related to the *understanding function* in terms of promoting and understanding diversity.

Moreover, the values of volunteerism also resonated with the values and essence of community psychology (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Rudkin, 2003). The ecological perspective as a value of community psychology was evident in the impact of systems on student volunteer motives, especially that of citizenship. Students internalise multiple messages of being socially responsive citizens through their coursework and other higher education (HE) channels. HE institutions are deliberate in communicating these messages to students as a response to government policies (Education White Paper 3, 1997). Government formed these policies in an attempt to reconstruct and develop a new democratic country after a long history of legalised inequality and separation. The impact of culture and environment is depicted in a study by Grönlund et al. (2011), conducted across 13 countries, which found that students from individualistic cultures had individual-orientated motives such as the *career function*, while those from democratic countries had high altruistic *value function* motives. These findings support the impact of the environment on motives to volunteer. Previous research also suggests that people with a strong national identity are more motivated to volunteer (Lai et al., 2013). Hence, one can promote factors such as how the volunteer initiative enhances social justice (Jiranek et al., 2013), national consciousness, and the opportunity to contribute to the development of the country (Patel, 2007) in recruitment efforts.

The *understanding function* encapsulates motives such as hands-on experience, learning about others, and adding depth and insight to one's knowledge. This function resonates with the notion of developing graduate attributes and ultimately enhancing employability (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011). I compared the motives related to the *understanding function* with graduate attributes and found a strong link between the two. If the development of graduate attributes is promoted as enhancing employability, it might be argued that the high prevalence of the *understanding function* is possibly linked to the notion of enhancing employability, even in the absence of the *career function*. The *understanding function* differs from the *career function*, because the desired skills obtained are not directly linked to a career.

Many studies found that the *career function* is a central motive for student volunteerism (Grönlund et al., 2011; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). However, this study found no real mention of the *career function* within the open-ended question section. Only one volunteer mentioned the *career function* as an initial motive that changed over time. This study, however, did not set out to investigate the change of motives over time. Most volunteers in the study were not reflective about their motives and how they might have changed. On average, active volunteers who participated in this research were

volunteering with respective projects for one year (mean), with the majority of the participants volunteering for nine months (median). Hence, initial motives related to the *career function* might have already changed at the time of data collection, possibly due to the development of critical social consciousness through the volunteer process (Cipolle, 2010). The findings of this study may also be contrasted with Finkelstein's (2008) findings that suggested that altruistic motives are more common in the initial volunteer stage, and that motives later change to more self-focused ambitions (Finkelstein, 2008). In this study, there was minimal occurrence of self-focused ambitions when students had been volunteering for a period of nine months.

The *career function* was identified as an external motive (Finkelstein, 2009). External motives do not lead to a prosocial identity or a volunteer self-concept (Finkelstein, 2009), and may inhibit the development of social justice values. Hence, one may draw the inference that students who are facilitated by a social justice orientation of volunteerism are not students whose motives would relate to the *career function*. This might explain the absence of the *career function* as a reported motive, in addition to the fact that *citizenship* was found to be a dominating motive for volunteering. These findings also support data within the current study that refer to the volunteer space within universities being occupied by the same students. All the case studies made mention of a prototype of a student volunteer as a person who is caring and wants to make a difference and understand what it means to be South African.

Furthermore, interviews and focus group participants mentioned curriculum vitae (CV) purposes as an additional benefit or bonus of volunteering (not the main goal to volunteer). The Likert scale results portrayed the *career function* as a non-dominant motive for volunteering, with only the *protective function* ranked lower. However, a student leader in one of the focus groups mentioned career motives as a motive for non-committed volunteers. Career motives are not influenced by structural or interpersonal constraints (Gage & Thapa, 2011). Hence, when students are motivated by the *career function* nothing will stop them from achieving their goal. However, after their goal is achieved they are more likely to terminate their involvement, and commitment to mundane tasks will be low (Güntert et al., 2016).

Students are aware of the career function benefits, however, these benefits are not the core reasons for volunteering. On the other hand, some students might have been reluctant to be associated with the notion of volunteering only for CV purposes, as found by Holdsworth (2010), and might have not mentioned these motives purposefully.

The *esteem function* was also a featured motive, but to a much lesser degree than the *value function, citizenship, and the understanding function*. The esteem function is a strong motive for volunteering internationally (Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Omoto & Packard, 2016). Locally, in a previous study,

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students also mentioned motives such as wanting to be role models, experience a sense of belonging, find a substitute family, and make new friends (Stuurman, 2008). *Esteem function* motives relate to a few psychological constructs such as a sense of community (Duffy & Wong, 2002) and self-enhancement (Clary et al., 1998; Güntert et al., 2016), which are important to be employed in enhancing sustained participation. Also, it links to the *value function*, as volunteering provides people with similar or shared interests the opportunity to meet. On the one hand, students might choose a project that matches their interests and on the other hand, they may hope to meet people with the same interests. People with the same interests might accordingly pursue the same career options or be potential life partners (Erikson, 1968). Hence, one may view this function as an added understanding to the *value function* (interest), *citizenship* (belonging) and *understanding function* (employability).

The fifth statement of the *esteem function* section of the Likert scale questionnaire - 'volunteering to make friends' - had a low item-total correlation. Hence, the statement did not completely fit with the rest of the *esteem function* statements as the reason behind the motive of wanting to make friends is more complex than portrayed on the surface. One person might want to make friends to feel less lonely (*esteem function*); another might want to make friends to broaden social circles and build contacts (*career function*); yet another might merely want to make friends to expand his or her friendship circles with new, interesting people from whom they can learn (*understanding function*); another might want to meet people who are highly acclaimed within university circles (*social function*); or some might aim to fight depression (*protective function*). The low item-total correlation did not have a large effect on the findings. The variance in the understanding of the statement 'volunteering to make friends is also depicted in Holdsworth (2010) interpretation of employability. She incorporated statements such as making friends (esteem), meeting new people, networking (career) and acquiring skills (understanding), and work experience (understanding and career), as indicators of the employability motive. In accordance with these statements, employability was found to be a volunteer motive among students from England (Holdsworth, 2010). These statements also relate to different functional motives, as indicated above. Within this particular study only the *understanding* and *esteem functions* were prominent. Above all, after triangulating all the data from the different sources and methods, and deliberating the scale and appearance of the *understanding, career* and *esteem functions* in determining whether employability is a motive for volunteering, I conclude that for South African students, employability is an unplanned benefit and not a planned motive for volunteering. This notion is also in agreement with findings in the global north (Holdworth, 2010).

The faith-based motive was prominent as a specific reason for volunteering in this study. However, it should be borne in mind that this may be due to the participation of the Citrus project, which is a

project associated to both a church and the university. A core group of the active volunteers from the Citrus project mentioned reasons for volunteering that were related to their faith. Volunteers would state that they volunteered because they felt called by God, among others. I decided that these reasons were more inclined to a faith-based motive than the *value function*, as they are not merely expressing care for others from a belief system. The faith-based motive also featured during the focus group of the Blue project committee, when a member voiced that she volunteered because she wanted to tell people about Jesus. Previous South African studies indicated that culture and religion plays a part in South Africa's volunteer culture (Perold et al., 2006), as religion may form a social foundation to volunteering (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Faith-based motives were also found among other South African students (Stuurman, 2008). The Citrus project contributed the most active volunteer participants (36%) within this study, adding to notions that religious people are more prone to volunteer than secular people (Gibson, 2008; Johnson, 2013). Aside from the faith-based motive, the *value function* and *citizenship* motives were also prevalent among the Citrus project volunteers. This might be because volunteerism provides an outlet to express religious values of care (Berger, 2006; Penner, 2002), induced by religious organisation (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Religious people also have a strong social responsibility attitude (Whitley & Yoder, 2015).

Furthermore, the Citrus project was situated within the structure of a local church and the university. Literature has identified religious organisations as both providers of formal volunteer spaces (Wilson & Musick, 1997) and feeder systems to volunteerism (Johnson, 2013). The committee of the Citrus project mentioned that they were willing to volunteer outside of the church setting, but that the church setting was first prize, thus expressing social ties to the church organisation (Johnson, 2013).

After triangulating the data, the *protective function* was the least mentioned motive of the six functional motives. It was also found to be the least mentioned among students across 13 countries (Grönlund et al., 2011). Hence, South African students' motives are consistent with international student motives, in contrast to speculations of white guilt as a potential motive to volunteer due to South Africa's history. One can draw the inference that students do not necessarily volunteer as protection for feeling guilty over being privileged, but rather that their understanding of their privilege is leading them to enact on their social responsibility. This is supported by the prominence of citizenship motives.

Service learning refers to students engaging in a learning process through engaging in community work (Beehr et al., 2010; Parker et al., 2009) that is credit-bearing and curriculum based (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999). At times, students are requested to find their own community sites. The reality is that these community sites or projects would want to recruit the students as volunteers beyond their service learning commitment. Four students indicated that they previously volunteered as part of a service

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learning programme. One may, therefore, argue that these students were recruited from the service learning programmes. I use the word recruit and not retain because service learning students do not entirely choose to engage in community interaction. Although these four students were part of the volunteer community through their service learning programme, they only now freely gave their time.

Data retrieved from the demographic section of the questionnaire indicated that ten percent of the volunteers were service learning students. Interestingly, in section three of the questionnaire (the open-ended questions) only one male participant stated that his motive for volunteering was service learning.

"*I am required to volunteer to complete my degree."* – Participant 12

It might be that the rest of the service learning students were already recruited as volunteers in the sense that they made the choice to be at the project.

"To know that my willingness to contribute some of my time has the potential to impact somebody else's life" - Participant 39

One of the service learning students accordingly chose a project that linked with her interest. This student volunteered at the Citrus project and consequently also voiced a faith-based motive.

Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that South African students volunteer mostly due to a concern for others and wanting to promote a cause that relates to their interest (*value function*), as well as a concern for the country and specifically addressing the inequalities of the past (*citizenship*), along with wanting to enrich their understanding of social issues and add different perspectives to their knowledge (*understanding function*). To a lesser degree, students also volunteer to make friends and grow as a person (*esteem function*). However, employability was not found to be a planned reason for volunteering, although students are aware of it as a benefit of volunteering. The findings are consistent with those from studies abroad (Gage & Thapa, 2011; Grönlund et al., 2011), except for the inclusion of the citizenship motive, which was more South African specific and supported in this context (Perold et al., 2006; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). The citizenship motive also highlights the impact of the macro environment on individual motivation and decisions (Bronfenbrenner, 1978; Lewin, 1952).

Who volunteers?

This study shows no significant difference between race and gender in terms of who volunteers. However, volunteer demographics across the case studies reflected that more females (58%) than males (42%) volunteered. There were also more White (49%) compared to Black African (28%), Coloured (19%) and Indian participants (4%). Still, the ratio between White and Black[47] (African, Coloured and Indian) participants were more or less one to one.

Each of the participating universities has a unique past due to South Africa's history. Before South Africa was established as a democratic country, one of the universities was a white Afrikaans university, the other a liberal white English university, and the third was a historically black English university. Considering this background, it is important to note that the demographics across case studies might have been different if there was an equal representation of participants. The participation statistics for all seventy active volunteers who completed the questionnaire were as follows: Season University (10%), Fruit University (44%) and Colour University (46%). Furthermore, the representation of participating volunteers was largely impacted by availability, therefore I cannot make any real claims about the sample demographics.

However, through the interviews and focus groups I noticed that students from previously disadvantaged backgrounds were increasingly becoming volunteers. Also, across five southern African countries, including South Africa, it was found that many people from lower socio-economic backgrounds volunteer (Patel, 2007). This pattern was also noted in studies abroad, as students from rural villages started to volunteer due to an awareness of their privilege as students and ability to give back to their community (Geng, 2008). This finding supports the notion that volunteerism is 'for' and 'by' the masses (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011) and that volunteerism is becoming a more inclusive space (Geng, 2008; Gillette, 2003; Plummer et al., 2008). This may challenge the dichotomy between volunteers and beneficiaries being the privileged offering services to the less privileged (Battistoni, 1997). Most research is conducted on the experiences of privileged students and not student volunteers from disadvantaged communities. Nonetheless, from the small amount of research conducted in this area, research indicated that students of colour were perceived as delinquents and that their volunteer involvement was viewed as restitution, while white students were perceived in a positive manner (Swaminathan, 2005). The impact of economic class was also highlighted, as students from similar communities as those that they were offering services to undergo a different

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[47] The term black is used in the same manner as it was used when I referred to Nelson Mandela as the first black president. Black thus refers to all people not labelled as white (Ramphele, 1995).

self-awareness process than merely being enlightened about their privilege (Henry, 2005). There is thus room for future research to examine this component of student critical consciousness development, as well as disadvantaged students' experiences, especially when attending a privileged university.

Statistics from the Fruit University suggest that the more opportunities there are to volunteer, the more students volunteer. However, student interests differ and they tend to be drawn to projects that match their interests. Interests as mentioned in this study were mostly debating and education. Most of the projects in this study identified a prototype of who they wanted to volunteer in their projects. These were mostly linked to values and attributes. The Season University made mention of the fact that often it is the same students who volunteer at different projects. It can therefore be argued that some students have developed a volunteer identity.

Institutional and organisational support

Student volunteerism can be distinguished by the fact that it is both institutionally and organisationally managed. This study presented examples of different types of student volunteer projects, noted that different types of projects require different support approaches. MacNeela and Gannon (2014) mentioned two types of volunteer structures: volunteer driven, student led societies (the Blue and Yellow projects are examples of this type) and off-campus volunteering in partnership with an established volunteer organisation (student residences volunteering with the Banana project). The Summer and Spring Projects were led by university staff members, while the Citrus project had dual affiliation with the church and the university. Each structure also holds different relational dynamics and responsibilities. There is great variance within the organisational leadership structure of student driven volunteer projects compared to students performing their project at an established volunteer organisation or NGO. These differences lead to a need for different types of support.

Support structures are aimed at making it as easy as possible for students to volunteer, and to address volunteer expectations (Green & Chalip, 1998; Goslin, 2006) and mitigate volunteer constraints (Gage & Thapa, 2011; Swanepoel & de Beer, 2006). Hence, volunteer support needs to be both structural and developmental. Developmental support focuses on students' professional and personal progress, considering the HE focus on graduate attributes (Clinton & Thomas, 2011), as well as students' expectations of personal growth and adding understanding to their knowledge (Clary et al., 1998).

Based on the data obtained through this study, I argue that universities should take responsibility for the support processes that are required to facilitate the development of students through volunteerism, if they want to claim the development of graduate attributes. Likewise, volunteer organisations should

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be cognisant of the need for support structures and processes, as it has direct effects on volunteer recruitment and retention. Owing to the difference in objectives between the university and volunteer organisations, there might also be a difference in the implementation of the support structures from both sides.

The literature touches on many theories that may help to explain and direct institutional and organisational support. One such theory is the two-factor theory of motivation and satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959; 1966; Swanepoel & de Beer, 2006). Students' motivation for volunteering is the antecedent to their volunteer expectations. When expectations are met, it results in volunteer satisfaction, in turn leading to sustained volunteer participation (Green & Chalip, 1998; Goslin, 2006). The two-factor theory posits that people are both motivated and demotivated at the same time. When I asked the volunteers in this study if their expectations were met and why, most of the participants answered 'yes, because the leadership was organised'. One volunteer said his expectations were not met, because the leadership was not organised. Poor leadership is mentioned as a demotivational component (Swanepoel & de Beer, 2006). This view resonates with the two-factor theory. Demotivating components also relate to volunteer constraints or factors adding to volunteer attrition. This notion is confirmed by research suggesting that satisfying the *value* and *understanding function* motives will lead to sustained availability, yet at the same time factors such as a lack of transport will keep people from participating. Organisations should attempt to enhance motivational components and mitigate demotivational components as part of their support structures.

Community psychology, as the applied psychology of working with sections of community (Kagan et al., 2011), may be applicable to the execution of developmental support within student volunteerism. The acronym *PEEPS* may be used as a guiding structure.

Organisations would want to implement a *P*reventative perspective by being aware of volunteer constraints and, accordingly, strategising how best to mitigate these constraints. Within this study, transport (van den Berg et al., 2015), along with academic pressure and being over-committed (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014), thus not having the available time (Gage & Thapa, 2011), appear to be the biggest constraints faced by students. These findings are supported by various studies, both locally and internationally.

The current study highlighted a few challenges concerning student volunteerism that should also be considered in order to prevent volunteer attrition. Firstly, students are only students for a few years, therefore specific project retention is only guaranteed for a set period at its maximum. Organisations should continuously recruit new volunteers, while retaining the ones they already have. Students can be extremely inconsistent in their volunteering commitments, as their first priority is their academics. For this reason, they tend to disappear during test and examination times. Projects need to account

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for this by checking students' schedules - programmes should be altered accordingly, otherwise volunteering might become an extra stressor for the students during those times, and they may feel that they let the project down and not return due to feelings of guilt. When volunteer projects are student driven, its sustainability is also at risk due to the rapid turnover rate of organisation leaders. Institutional support is crucial in this regard. It is advised that institutions form partnerships with existing NGOs. Student driven projects can then use the NGO structure for their own projects, aiding in the project's sustainability.

The principle of *E*mpowerment is linked to encouraging shared ownership and responsibility, and allowing volunteers to also have decision-making power. Responsibility is also noted as a motivational component (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006). Communication platforms, such as debriefing and feedback sessions, allow volunteers the space to voice their concerns and ideas. Empowerment also encompasses the development of skills and leadership qualities by, for instance, the delegation of tasks and deliberate training and mentorship.

Moreover, the implementation of the *E*cological perspective challenges stereotypes and perspectives such as blaming the 'poor for being poor' (Clark et al., 1997). These perspectives are confronted when students are guided to consider social systems and its effect on society and individual choices (Kagan et al., 2011; Prilleltensky & Nelson, 1997; Scileppi et al., 2000). This also provides a space to help develop critical consciousness (Cipolle, 2010). Guided reflection sessions are tested ways and can be used by institutions to elicit a social justice orientation and challenge a charity mind-set.

The institutional culture plays a significant role in the opportunities provided (resources) for volunteering. Students are also constantly reminded of their social responsibility, which motivates students to volunteer as well as attracts a certain type of student. The institution should be cognisant of the economic realities of its students. In particular, the more prestigious institutions that normally attract more privileged students, should also be cognisant of the fact that not all of their students are necessarily privileged, and consider this fact when providing organisational support.

A *P*sychological sense of community has already been discussed with the deliberations concerning the *esteem function* motive. Likewise, a social justice orientation towards volunteerism may be collaborated with an ecological focus.

Furthermore, support structures need to consider the volunteer context in terms of its affiliation and structure. Also, it needs to be cognisant of volunteer motives and expectations, and how to satisfy these expectations. There should be a clear understanding and communication on who is providing what support within the university volunteer project relationship. Volunteer constraints and other challenges should be accounted for by the support structures.

The facilitation of student volunteerism at South African universities

The findings theorise that student volunteerism at South African universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation that inculcates active citizenship parallel to developing graduate attributes that promotes employability. Data from the interviews with respective university representatives indicated that universities aim to be socially responsive institutions, and thus set out to produce graduates who are also socially responsive citizens. Volunteerism has been identified as a means to drive these goals.

In part, HE institutions are guided in facilitating student volunteerism by a social justice orientation through national policies (Education White Paper 3, 1997) and expectations of being socially responsive institutions (Chile & Black, 2015; Erasmus, 2005; Gallant et al., 2010; Harkavy, 2006; Ostrander, 2004). One way of accomplishing this was through the structure of community engagement (Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011). Interviewed participants from three Western Cape universities all indicated a social justice orientation towards volunteerism and a move to dismantle a charity mentality. Hence, key identified volunteer outcomes for the three universities included promoting social consciousness along with graduate attributes. HE also continuously encourages students through various channels to be socially responsive. Volunteerism is included as the universities' social responsiveness efforts (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Hall, 2010). Being socially responsible was thus also added to the notion of graduate attributes (Chile & Black, 2015). These messages have resonated with some students, leading to the dominant presence of *citizenship*, together with the *value* and *understanding functions* as motives to volunteer. 'Care', as reflected through the *value function*, might also be perceived as students being in the emerging state on their journey of developing critical consciousness (Cipolle, 2010). The *understanding function*, as referred to before, strongly relates to graduate attributes.

Volunteerism may be a vehicle to express social responsibility and citizenship behaviour, but without deliberate efforts, it is not guaranteed that volunteerism will enhance social responsibility (Cheung et al., 2015). Social justice or citizenship might be a motive for volunteering, but it is not always the outcome of volunteering. Volunteer acts aimed at social change mostly do not address the root causes of injustice (Penner, 2004), although some argues that volunteerism does facilitate awareness of social justice and promote active citizenship (Marullo & Edwards, 2000).

Awareness of social justice is often led by a process of developing critical consciousness. Throughout this process, students become aware of themselves, others and social issues (Cipolle, 2010). Not all students successfully develop critical consciousness through the process of volunteering. An awareness of self may also elicit an awareness of privilege that might in turn provoke feelings of either pity, which leads to a charity mind-set (Cipolle, 2010), or it might elicit feelings of guilt and anger (Jones et al., 2005). When these feelings are not effectively managed through the process of

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reflection, it might also provoke views of blame on the other for their poverty position and therefore perpetuate stereotypes (Clark et al., 1997). Within a service learning context, students may express resistance to the development of critical consciousness (Cipolle, 2010) through not participating in reflection sessions or through complaints in their feedback (Jones et al., 2005). However, volunteer students may not see the process through. Hence, supportive facilitation is essential through guided reflection (Lough, 2009; Netshandama, 2010), or student volunteers who might be experiencing discomfort by the process might exit the volunteer community.

In part, a social justice orientation towards volunteerism is complex and if not effectively and actively managed, might produce counter effects. Moreover, when students do develop critical consciousness and are able to internalise their experiences, they also start to challenge injustices within HE (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011). Thus, recent student protests globally might be a direct result of students developing critical consciousness, some of which may occur as a result of student volunteerism. This raises the question of whether or not HE is ready to reap the fruit of eliciting critical thinking among students, and consequently turning a critical lens inwards. Nevertheless, Cloke et al. (2007) found that volunteering can become habitual. They argue that it can shift away from the cause at hand and the community needs being addressed, to that of loyalty to fellow volunteers and / or the volunteer organisation. These are the dangers of volunteer programmes that are not rooted in social justice and active citizenship.

Hence, due to institutional goals such as developing graduate attributes through the volunteer process, institutions should take responsibility for achieving these goals and not leave it to chance. Institutional developmental support is crucial, especially taking into consideration the demographics and history of universities in South Africa and the journey of developing a democratic society. HE institutions should provide resources and support to student volunteers to assist them in making sense of their experiences (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2011).

This study suggests that South African universities facilitate student volunteerism from a social justice orientation. However, it is debatable whether or not a social justice orientation to volunteerism is conducive to volunteer recruitment and retention, as only a handful of students participate in volunteer activities. Above all, without deliberate guided reflection, volunteerism may just be a smokescreen or a type of tokenism for social justice, and may in fact still perpetuate the *status quo*. Even though CE was established as the third leg of HE, in most instances it does not receive the same attention as teaching and learning or research. There has even been talks of the lack of focus and funding towards CE as an act of resistance (Hall, 2010), and others suggest that it might be a struggle in adjustment to the changing role of academia and HE (Nongxa, 2010). However, these views (and

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practices) may impact on student volunteerism to the extent that it does not receive the necessary institutional support that it requires.

The focus on graduate attributes may provide a good balance to attract student volunteers, as these hold potential benefits for the students in adding to the depth of their knowledge and enhancing employability. This study has shown that students do not volunteer to enhance their employability, but that they are aware of these benefits. Graduate attributes as a clustered package might be what attracts students instead, considering that the *understanding function* featured as a dominant motive for volunteering. The concept of graduate attributes is still relevantly new and many students do not understand its value or how to best acquire these attributes.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

7.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to identify the key findings obtained through this research study that might be used to enlighten theory application and / or policy regarding student volunteerism. I thus set out to integrate and tie together the various issues raised throughout the study, while restating the problem statement. Thereafter, I provide answers to the research question, and defend the methodology used to obtain the answers. Additionally, I also highlight the study limitations and identify areas for future research. Moreover, I end the chapter with a presentation of a model which suggests guidelines for effective recruitment and retention of student volunteers within South Africa.

7.2   THESIS CONCLUSION

The study sets out to explore what facilitates student volunteerism at South African (SA) universities by investigating student motives for volunteering and the support needed to sustain their involvement. Thus, the study sought to answer questions such as why people volunteer, who volunteers, how to meet volunteer expectations successfully, and how to best sustain volunteer involvement. In particular, the goal was to develop a well-researched framework for effective recruitment and retention of university student volunteers.

The study was conducted in response to the diminishing funding within the NGO sector which calls for a need of volunteers in order to ensure its existence (van Vianen et al., 2008), along with higher education's (HE) goal to inculcate graduate attributes, such as being socially responsible, active citizens through volunteerism (Chile & Black, 2015; Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011; Marullo & Edwards, 2000). Furthermore, minimal research exists on recruitment and retention of student volunteers, specifically in the global south (van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). Consequently, having a well-researched framework for the recruitment and retention of volunteers will help university based organisations to be more effective in their volunteer programmes. Similarly, universities might also benefit from better facilitation of the process of student volunteerism to promote graduate attributes.

The findings obtained across six case studies, linked to three Western Cape universities, suggest that student volunteerism at SA universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation that inculcates active citizenship parallel to developing graduate attributes promoting employability. Dominant reasons for volunteering were in relation to the *value function*, *citizenship* and the *understanding function*. Being motivated by the value function relates to volunteer expectations such as helping the disadvantaged, while understanding function motives communicate expectations such as learning

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how to work within a diverse setting and gaining new perspectives. Female participants scored significantly higher on both the value and understanding functions in comparison to male participants ($p<0.01$). The high scores on the value function as reason for volunteering, as reported by female participants, could be explained by traditional views of women femininity, theorising that the female participants might be fulfilling societal expectations (Petrzelka & Mannon, 2006), or that care is entrenched in gender role definitions (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Citizenship, on the other hand, was expressed through students wanting to give back to their communities and address the inequalities of the past.

Furthermore, volunteer expectations can be met within institutional and organisational support structures. Meeting volunteer expectations adds to sustained student involvement, in turn (Green & Chalip, 1998; Goslin, 2006). Hence, support needs to be structural and developmental. Developmental processes should be aimed at the students' professional and personal development. Reflection sessions are valuable in this regard, as these assist personal growth becoming more noticeable for students. Through this reflection process, volunteers are able to track new perspectives gained and see the relational skills they have developed to work in diverse settings. Directed training sessions will also help meet the expectations related to the understanding function. Short-term goal setting and continuous communication of the project's vision and mission, as well as how these are met and measured, will help volunteers to note that they are making a difference. Support structures and processes are also aimed at mitigating volunteer constraints. A more detailed account of support structures is presented in the recommendation section, as part of the proposed model.

Discussion of the issues

Volunteerism is a globally recognised phenomenon and is held in high regard by world leaders. Ban Ki Moon, UN Secretary General (2011), alluded to volunteerism's renowned status by pointing to the "… insufficient levels of government and private sector resources available in accessing vulnerable communities" (cited in Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011, p. 5). This is in addition to its widespread benefits to the volunteer, the community, and on a national and international level, considering that volunteerism promotes peace and development (United Nations Volunteers, 2011).

Volunteerism also closes the gap within the NGO sector, where a lack of funds creates a demand for unpaid labour. Furthermore, HE encourages students to participate in volunteer activities as it serves as a means to reach HE's goal of developing graduate attributes which also inculcate active citizenship and enhance employability. Student volunteerism may therefore be a potential answer for closing the gap within the NGO sector and forwarding HE's efforts of being socially responsive.

The lack of funds within the NGO sector and the need for unpaid workers are challenged by factors of unemployment and poverty within the SA context, as some may argue that those who are poor or unemployed would rather be searching for paid employment than volunteer. In part, 25% of SA students receive financial aid (Green Paper, 2012), which might also add to students opting for jobs like waitressing to earn money, instead of volunteering.

The issues of unemployment and poverty in developing countries have raised debates on whether financial rewards or incentives need to be incorporated in the notion of volunteerism (Perold et al., 2007). Moreover, many incentives are being used within the volunteer space, such as the 100 hour challenge, where students are recognised for their volunteer work when they volunteered for 100 hours, by formally stating their volunteer hours on their academic transcript. Incentives - or otherwise termed volunteer benefits - are mostly psychological in nature and may take on the form of appreciation and connectedness to others. Wilson (2000, p. 215) makes provision for incentives within his definition of volunteerism by stating that "any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group, or organisation and that offers no substantial financial reward." Nonetheless, the current debate within developing countries is actually directed toward what constitutes substantial financial rewards.

Volunteerism is centred on human helpfulness (Clary et al., 1998), thus the debate might also be incited by conflicting understandings of the notion of volunteerism. Some may hold a philanthropic view of volunteering being the privileged helping the disadvantaged (Battistoni, 1997). In this light, the notion of an inclusive volunteer community might be difficult to grasp. For this reason, some privileged individuals might want to start to 'help' the volunteer as they endorse a charity mind-set.

In part, the argument also includes whether the inclusion of incentives will cause volunteerism to derail from its definition alluding to volunteerism as a non-obligatory, planned action that occurs over time within an organisational setting (Penner, 2002; 2004) and is to the benefit of another (Wilson, 2000). In an extremely poverty-stricken area, the possible financial rewards offered by volunteerism might become the motivation behind volunteering due to a perspective of 'little money is better than none'. Volunteers might experience a sense of personal obligation and expectation to provide for their family. Thus, the notion of free choice is being questioned, along with the act of volunteering being of benefit to others, considering that a financial motive is directly self-centred.

In addition, the debate includes fears of losing some of volunteerism's associated values, such as values that further citizenship, solidarity, social interdependence, mutual trust, a sense of belonging and empowerment - values that promote development and values that contribute to the well-being of individuals and communities (United Nations Volunteers, 2011). Moreover, I argue that volunteerism

might contribute to a solution to unemployment and poverty, as it enhances employability but not as a way to gain finances.

Furthermore, many volunteer programmes directly address social issues such as teenage pregnancy, drug abuse and HIV/AIDS. Hence, there is a need for more community projects and, consequently, more volunteers. For some, combined with SA's high unemployment rate and poverty, this presents a catch 22 situation and adds to the challenges surrounding a vibrant volunteer culture in developing countries such as SA. Nonetheless, research conducted in southern Africa indicated that poor women do volunteer (Patel, 2007; Perold et al., 2006). Likewise, the present study found that the numbers of student volunteers coming from disadvantaged communities are growing. This pattern was also noticed in previous international studies, where students from rural villages started to volunteer in their villages as a result of a recognition of their new position and ability to give back to their communities (Geng, 2008). Once again, the dichotomy between who volunteers and who receives the volunteer services is being challenged. I argue that the notion of volunteerism is to be construed as more inclusive, since volunteering has become an activity by and for the masses (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011). In part, an inclusive notion of volunteerism is not only directed to the have-nots in terms of material possessions, but also marginalized groups, for example people living with disabilities or prisoners (Gillette, 2003), as well as direct victims of disasters (Plummer et al., 2008).

As there are arguments for why the poor and unemployed would not volunteer, there are also arguments for why they would volunteer and should volunteer. These arguments are mostly in relation to the ethos of volunteerism and its comprehensive benefits. When the poor volunteers, it offers them a sense of ownership of both their own future and that of their community (Gillette, 2003). This leads to volunteers feeling empowered (Fondacaro & Weinberg, 2002; Swanepoel & de Beer, 2006) as they realise that they can elicit social change for both themselves and their community (Cipolle, 2010). Empowerment as a value of community psychology also highlights the importance of ownership, as illustrated in the expression by Kagan et al. (2011, p. 281), stating that "… change is effective if it is owned by those affected by it."

Also, the ethos of volunteerism within itself presents valuable benefits for the poor and the unemployed, as volunteers' employability status is enhanced by the skills they acquire through the volunteer process (Dickhudt & VOSESA, 2011; Foley, 2003; Patel, 2007; van den Berg & Cuskelly, 2014). The notion of volunteerism enhancing employability has been focused towards the youth. Yet, the volunteer sector has contributed to only 20% of youth employment (StatsSA, 2011).

Interestingly, employability was not found to be a motive for volunteering within this study, but rather as an unplanned benefit, highlighted by HE. This finding was supported by previous studies performed on student volunteerism abroad (Holdsworth, 2010). One may argue that university

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students compared to the broader public are not as reliant on the experience gained from volunteering to obtain employment, but that they are instead aware that it might set them apart from other graduates, to be more favourably perceived by future employment organisations. There is a general perception that an education leads to employment. Notwithstanding, participating student volunteers within this study were more community focused in their approach to volunteerism than self-oriented, as is common within developing nations (McBride et al., 2003). University students are aware of their privilege to be able to obtain a HE degree and consequently be in a good position to obtain employment. Hence, the expressed motive of citizenship from students participating in the present study, reflects Sherrod et al.'s (2002) view of citizenship as "… the ability to move beyond one's individual self-interest and to be committed to the well-being of others" (p. 265). Consequently, the students want to give back to the community.

Furthermore, the South African government has called upon HE institutions to become socially responsive (Education White Paper 3, 1997). Volunteerism is viewed as a vehicle to drive social responsiveness. Additionally, it adds to the development of graduate attributes in response to the demands from the work sector for HE to produce graduates that are not just knowledgeable in their field, but prepared for employment (Clinton & Thomas, 2011). In its social justice orientation, HE is focused on mutual benefits for both the volunteer and the community as a reciprocal partnership is established (Driscoll, 2009). Taking this into consideration, students are aware of the personal benefits yet simultaneously set out to achieve community benefits in the community.

Penner (2004) acknowledges Ban Ki Moon's statement suggesting that volunteer actions are compensating for the insufficient levels of government resources. Recipients of volunteer actions may not receive goods and services through either the public or private sector due to financial constraints. Volunteerism is therefore a form of advancing social justice in this regard. However, Penner (2004) also warns that filling the gap caused by bad governance or exploitation of the private sector, might side track attention from addressing the root causes of the problem and instead perpetuate the *status quo*.

Moreover, when government cannot provide its citizens with the basic needs it might also hinder active citizenship. According to the social contract theory, citizens enter into a contract with government. Thus, individuals will comply with societal rules and the law of the country in exchange for protection and societal benefits (Wray-Lake et al., 2008). Many debates have started about the relationship between the state and civil society. Questions are raised about the role of the state and if the active participation of NGOs and other forms of civic society are not absolving government of their responsibility. I argue that citizenship should be perceived as both keeping government

accountable for do what they are meant to do, as well as taking ownership and responsibility for one's society.

When basic living resources such as housing, running water, sanitation and employment are not met, people will find it difficult to enact active citizenship by engaging in public affairs. Therefore, the possible withdrawal by the poor and unemployed from acts such as volunteering might not be because of a financial need, but out of subconscious protest. More than a quarter 25.2% of South Africans do not have a paying job (StatsSA, 2014) and more than half (52.3%) of South Africans earn under R577 ($38, US) per month (StatsSA, 2012). Countless South Africans are exposed to a lack of basic services. These factors may have serious effects on people's citizenship behaviour.

For some, citizenship goes beyond political and civic involvements. They define citizenship as "… a way of life and philosophy of human relations" (Metzger et al., 2015, p. 56) and associate it with "a *politics of hope* that is often based on the denial of unequal conditions and violent marginalisation" (Arnot & Swartz, 2012, p.7). As a result of a possible view of volunteerism as an outlet for this *politics of hope*, people may still volunteer even if their social contract with the polity is being bridged.

Community psychology specifically defines citizenship in terms of addressing the inequalities of the past, as citizenship plays out in active citizenship behaviour that promotes social justice. *S*ocial justice is the last core value of community psychology recognised in the acronym *PEEPS*. These core values of community psychology is in unison with HE's structural response of community engagement (CE) to the mandate of government to become socially responsible. CE is one of the three core values of SA universities (Kotecha & VOSESA, 2011). Service learning and volunteerism are listed as part of CE activities (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Hall, 2010).

A *P*sychological sense of community is important in forming a social identity, which is essential in the experience of citizenship (Sindic, 2011). Social identity also fosters ownership that leads to citizenship behaviour such as volunteerism (Morsillo & Prilleltensky, 2007). The value of an *E*cological perspective is equally important to consider when establishing support structures for student volunteerism and as one contemplates the impact of systems, structures and policies (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Lewin, 1952). As noted in this study, there are various types of volunteer project structures. It is critical to assess the impact and benefits of volunteerism on all levels for both the students and the community, also referring to the volunteer impact cycle. Often this impact or benefits weigh heavily toward the students, and the focus is more on the students' learning than furthering social justice goals in the community (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2010).

Moreover, the student learning process within CE is mostly addressed through service learning programmes and guided reflection (Lough, 2009; Netshandama, 2010). I urge HE to also actively

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incorporate guided reflection as a learning component, as part of institutional support towards student volunteerism. Hence, I allude to what I termed structured volunteerism to help bridge the learning gap between service learning and traditional volunteerism. Service learning programmes provide capacity in communities for a short period of time and give students the opportunity to be exposed to volunteer work. For this reason, service learning students were also considered as student volunteers within this study. However, it should be noted that service learning and volunteerism differ in many significant ways. In service learning, one defining aspect, as mentioned above, is the inclusion of reflection (Briere & Foulkrod, 2011) and the fact that community interaction is tied to the students' academic coursework (Maran et al., 2009; Roos et al., 2005).

Furthermore, even though reflection is added to the volunteer process, the aims and objectives of the process are different. Drawing from my experience, the data and literature, reflection within a volunteer setting is normally more focused on mitigating volunteer attrition and enhancing volunteer retention, whereas reflection within a service learning setting is aimed at specific learning objectives and the understanding of social justice. Hence, when students engage in volunteer reflection, they are directed at how the project is making a difference, as well as to identify personal growth, what they have learnt as volunteers, and how their perspectives have changed. Service learning reflection occurs in a class setting and the students are often directly confronted with their own privilege and theories of social justice. Service learning facilitators are not concerned with volunteer retention factors, and service learning students are also more concerned with the academic grading than the organic learning process. Volunteer reflection session on the other hand provides a safer space for students to be vulnerable and partake in a more organic learning process. Ideally, community projects would want to retain student volunteers after the period assigned for their study purposes.

Volunteerism within South Africa, and particularly student volunteerism, is complex and encounters many challenges. As debated above, there are ways to address these challenges. Volunteerism has the potential to assist in the development of South Africa from various angles, but specifically in promoting social justice and citizenship, along with graduate attributes and employability.

Methodology employed

This study is embedded in a constructivist paradigm. A constructivist paradigm argues that meaning is contextual and constructed within the history and context in which it operates. Hence, the case study approach was most appropriate to allow the examination of history and context. Data suggested that history and context had an effect on student motives for volunteering as well as current support provided and support needed to sustain volunteer involvement. The case study approach also gave insight into the various structures of student volunteerism.

Data were triangulated, considering that the data were obtained through multiple methods and different participants (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002; Saunders et al., 2009). By triangulating the data, I was able to cross check for credibility and reliability (Merriam, 2009). Moreover, since I had such comprehensive data from different sources, I could also triangulate the data to find overlapping areas that might account for further understanding of volunteerism (Silverman, 2010).

The multi-method approach included the use of interviews, focus groups and questionnaires. Across the six case studies I conducted eighteen semi-structured interviews which allowed me to interact with the participants, where I could observe non-verbal behaviour as well as interrogate their responses and give them the opportunity to explain their answers if it was not clear to me. Three focus groups were conducted with the committees of three of the case studies. Performing the focus groups were more time and cost-effective than having to interview each member of the respective committee separately. It also allowed for participants to question one another and explain their answers (Neuman, 2011). Another benefit is that the interaction elicits new perspectives and ideas among each other (Lichtman, 2006), which yields for deeper insights into the topic. Both the interviews and focus groups were voice recorded and written transcribed. Seventy questionnaires were completed by active volunteers. Using questionnaires were less time-consuming and more cost-effective then both interviews and focus groups because of the size of the active volunteer groups. Moreover, the questionnaire provided a space to incorporate both quantitative (closed Likert scale) and qualitative questions (open-ended questions). The Likert scale section was based on Clary et al.'s (1998)'s Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), but was borrowed from Greenslade and White (2005).

A mixed methodology was employed. The study was mostly qualitative, with the exception of the Likert scale questions that were quantitative in nature. The Likert scale items investigated specifically the appearance of functional motives among participants. Adding the Likert scale to the questionnaire provided the option for statistically testing for differences between male and female participants. It also helped to triangulate the data gained from the open-ended questions.

Findings and its implications

Students mostly volunteer because they are concerned about others and they feel it is important to help those in need. The data also indicated that students' concern for others are often linked to a concern for the development of South Africa as a country and the promotion of social justice. Against this background, students are concerned about inequity and its consequences, and work in areas most affected by the burdens imposed by inequity. The case studies suggested that these motives were strongly tied to the emphasis placed on the development of graduate attributes within HE and the multiple messages communicated to students on being a responsive citizen. Thus, students at South African universities' reasons for volunteering are within the frame of the *value function* and

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citizenship. These motives also linked with students' interests, such as debating and education, which are used as tools to address the inequalities of the past.

The *understanding function* was the third most common reason for volunteering. Students wanted to gain new perspectives and learn how to deal with a diversity of experiences, among others. The understanding function strongly relates to proposed graduate attributes set to enhance employability. South African university students also volunteer with motives related to the *esteem function*. Although this motive was mentioned to a much smaller degree than the *value function, citizenship* and *the understanding function*, it appeared more frequently than motives such as the *career, social* and *protective functions*. Nonetheless, students volunteer because they want to make new friends, feel needed, and enhance their self-esteem along with personal growth.

The *understanding function, career function* and *esteem function* can be clustered as employability (Holdsworth, 2010). However, the career function was only mentioned once within the open-ended questions as an initial motive that changed over time, and ranked very low on the Likert scale across case studies. Considering the model of Cipolle (2010), students move through stages where their reasons for volunteering might change from a charity mind-set to expressing care for others, to ultimately wanting to elicit social change for others through promoting social justice. It might be that students have already moved passed a charity mind-set and a focus on personal benefits to be gained through volunteerism. Also, students might be less career-orientated in their view of being more employable. Thus, students are more motivated to volunteer by *the understanding function* than *the career function*, noting that the difference between the two is that the *career function* is focused on a specific career.

Likewise, this study found that employability is not necessarily a motive for volunteering, but can be perceived as a noticeable benefit of volunteering. In other words, students want to develop valuable life and career associated skills through the process of volunteerism.

Student volunteerism support

Organisational and institutional support is crucial in sustaining student volunteer involvement. Both these contexts should be explored in order to establish an effective support structure. The data from this study highlighted that support structures should be focused on structural support, including logistics and administration, as well as developmental support that is aimed at students' professional and personal growth.

Internationally, volunteerism is noted as an invaluable source of development due to its extensive benefits and has been treated with high regard by international leaders. Nelson Mandela, former SA president, was honoured by the UN by announcing 18 July (his birthday) as an international day of

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volunteering. This had a direct effect on recruitment and retention structures at SA universities, as this event is used as a mid-year volunteer recruitment and awareness day. The week of the 18 July is normally the first week back from mid-term university vacations and fits well within the structure of the institutional schedule. This illustrates the effect of the ecological perspective value of community psychology, noting how political, international, institutional and other policies can have a direct impact on student volunteerism. It is vital to consider the specific student volunteer context.

Support structures are also directed at mitigating volunteer constraints to participation and sustained participation and commitment. It is a myth that students have the time to volunteer, as many struggle to balance their academic schedules with the rest of their student lives. Volunteer organisations are competing for students' time with all the other non-academic activities. For this reason, institutions should make it as easy as possible for students to volunteer in terms of providing the necessary structural support, such as transport. Support structures also aim to satisfy volunteer expectations in order to gain volunteer satisfaction and ultimately sustained involvement. Therefore, cognisance of volunteer motivates is important. This study indicated that students' motives relate to the *value function, citizenship,* and *understanding function* and to a lesser extent the *esteem function.* Developmental support is thus of utmost importance to address volunteer satisfaction.

Limitations of the study

The study had a few limitations. Firstly, across the six case studies and three participating universities the representation was significantly unequal, meaning that the active student volunteer voice was dominated by one or two contexts. Owing to SA's diverse culture and the impact of its history on the demographics of the three participating universities, the unequal representation allowed for a gap in the voices of certain student cultures. However, the unequal representation did also allow for debates about ineffective recruitment and retention strategies as well as the impact of lack of resources and volunteer structures.

Secondly, I was unable to collect all the data in one year. Volunteer leadership and structures change over one year due to the context of student volunteerism. Each leadership brings different leadership styles and foci to the project. Thus, collecting the data in one year would have provided a more closed case boundary, which might have led to better in depth analysis of the data and more comprehensive drawn inferences. Also, the integration of project data (including quantitative and qualitative data) spanning over several years.

Thirdly, the participants were drawn only from the Western Cape. The Western Cape is arguably more affluent of South Africa's provinces or regions. This macro context may be very different from other regions and thus have a particular influence on student volunteer dynamics. Notwithstanding,

the variance between the three participating Western Cape universities as well as between case studies associated to these universities demonstrates South Africa's diverse context. Hence the inclusion of *context*, in the MECS, four cornerstone model. The assessment of the university context along with that of the volunteer organisation adds to the outcome of this thesis to be applicable to student volunteerism beyond the Western Cape.

Lastly, one may argue that combining student volunteers with service learning students should be engaged with as a potential limitation. This is largely due to the ongoing debate about whether or not service learning students should be considered as volunteers. A fraction of the participants, (10%) indicated that they were service learning students. I do believe that the difference between service learning students and student volunteers in general were thoroughly deliberated throughout this manuscript. I also, separately indicated the responses of the mentioned service learning participants.

The need for further research

Two of the participating case studies alluded to the students not wanting to be called *volunteers* but that the notion of *team* was more acceptable and made them feel more valued. Students' perception of the term *volunteer* should be researched as this may also have an effect on recruitment and retention.

Most of the research on the impact of critical consciousness development focuses on privileged students volunteering in disadvantaged communities. This study has shown that there is an increase in students from disadvantaged communities entering the volunteer space. The process of developing critical consciousness among students coming from disadvantaged communities should be investigated. Also, research might be conducted on the experience of students coming from disadvantaged communities and the interaction between them and privileged students as part of the same volunteer group. What are the challenges in interaction between volunteers and how do such challenges influence critical consciousness? Furthermore, one may explore whether or not students from disadvantaged communities are in need of a different support structure to sustain their participation.

Student volunteerism poses many benefits but also risks for both the student and the community. Most research studies focus on either of the groupings. There is, however, space to conduct a comprehensive risk-benefit analysis for both the students and the community.

This study also highlighted the various types of student volunteerism in terms of structure and affiliation, and its impact on student volunteers. There is an opportunity to investigate the different student volunteer structures and its unique challenges and support requirements in order to help it flourish.

Student volunteers constitute but a drop in the ocean within the broader student population. Most research is conducted on active volunteers to assess why students volunteer, as is the case with this study. The question remains: why does the larger part of the student population not volunteer? Research should also be conducted with students who have never volunteered before. I speculate that the fact that volunteerism is facilitated within a social justice orientation could have an impact on students not volunteering, as most students might just not be interested in social justice or citizenship. This hypothesis should be tested as it would significantly contribute to literature and our understanding of volunteerism within HE.

Impact of the thesis

The study has implications for both community volunteer organisations as well as universities. An effective evidence-based framework for recruitment and retention of student volunteers has been developed. This framework will assist organisations to focus their volunteer programmes and would hopefully be more time and cost-efficient.

Moreover, universities can use the findings of this study to build a stronger volunteer division within the institution. The findings suggest that student volunteerism at SA universities is facilitated by a social justice orientation inculcating active citizenship. Volunteerism at SA universities is indeed attracting students with prior disposition towards social justice and care for others, explaining the appearance of the same students occupying volunteer space on SA campuses. In order to broaden the volunteer division, universities need to strategise how best to elicit a social justice mentality among the broader student population without over politicising it. Hence, if students volunteer for self-oriented reasons, deliberate effort should be made to elicit a social justice orientation towards volunteerism. Institutional support and the management of reflection processes are crucial. Also, the development of graduate attributes through volunteerism should be more widely communicated on various constructive platforms.

7.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, I developed a model for the management of student volunteerism, in particular recruitment and retention. The model is based on what I term four cornerstones that are essential to consider when developing recruitment and retention strategies. These four cornerstones are *Motives, Expectations, Context and Support* (MECS). When one pronounces the abbreviation MECS, it sounds like a shortened version of the word 'maximise', otherwise spelled as 'max'. The pronunciation of the abbreviation MECS is meant to act as a reminder that this model's purpose is to maximise the participation of student volunteers in numbers and in time spent at the volunteer organisation. This model is designed to aid the management of volunteer organisations in order to

best recruit and retain student volunteers, as well as for HE institutions to grow their student volunteer division.

Moreover, the model posits that volunteer organisations should assess student motives for volunteering as well as their expectations. Motives and expectations are linked to perceived volunteer benefits. Next, the volunteer context needs to be considered in terms of project structures and project affiliation, along with the rules and regulations in terms of the affiliation and resources available. The specific context will normally also expose the possible constraints that students might experience to not being able to participate or retain their involvement. Hence, support structures need to be developed within the context of the volunteer organisation as well as the HE institution. The support provided is strongly linked to the retention of volunteers and is accompanied by practical implementations which is presented as communication, social (relational management), and administration tools. Owing to the restrictions on thesis length, I will only briefly discuss this model and refer to a few examples and ideas.
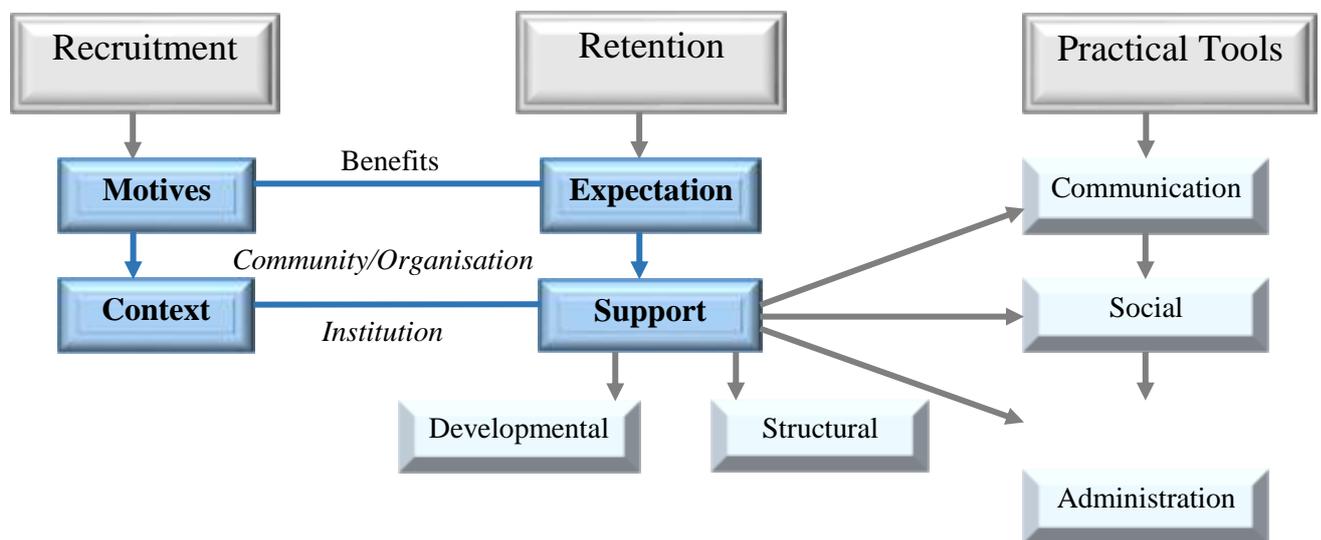
Figure 7:1 MECS 4-cornerstone model: Managing student volunteers

The model indicates that there are four cornerstones on which an effective recruitment and retention strategy for student volunteers are built, namely MECS: 1) *M*otives, 2) *E*xpectations, 3) *C*ontext, and 4) *S*upport. These building blocks need to be considered when one wants to maximise the participation of volunteers (number of students - recruitment), as well as maximise their continuous participation (volunteering period - retention).

7.3.1   Recruitment framework

The recruitment framework stands on two building blocks: motives and organisational and institutional context. Moreover, student motives and organisational and institutional context are not generic and constant, thus these factors need to be predetermined and continuously assessed.

7.3.1.1   *Motives*

Understanding volunteer motives are crucial in establishing incentives to help recruit volunteers. Thus, one has to appeal to the volunteers' motives in order to attract them. In essence, it is important to communicate the project's vision, mission and goals up front. This will attract students whose interests match the activities or cause that the organisation promotes. Also, it is essential to clearly state how the volunteer would be helping others (*value function*) and how they will be making a difference in society (*citizenship*).

One should try to establish target groups based on interests, skills and values when planning a recruitment drive. If the community project focuses on tutoring, a likely target group would be education students, since they also have the skills for effective teaching. If the specific subject is mathematics, then one may target engineering students or those courses that require students to be good at mathematics. Furthermore, one should assess the number of volunteers that would be needed

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to successfully execute the activities in relation to the number of recipients. It is important not to over-recruit. Volunteers want to feel that they are needed (*esteem function*) - it is not advisable to have volunteers standing around not knowing what to do.

It is imperative to deliberately communicate the benefits of volunteering to attract potential volunteers. Volunteer expectations and perceived benefits are directly linked to motives. Thus, knowing the motives of the volunteers will also indicate their perceived benefits. Promoting the fun elements of the activities along with opportunities to meet new people (*understanding* and *esteem functions*) is a good starting point. Volunteer socials are a proven way to create such opportunities. Also, students want to know that they will gain new perspectives (*understanding function*) and acquire career related skills (*career function*) along with the opportunity to grow personally (*esteem function*). Volunteer expectations need to be met in order to sustain involvement. When these expectations are met, organisational satisfaction occurs and those same volunteers become the organisation's biggest recruitment tool through word of mouth and invitation to friends.

Communication tools are important to consider when recruiting volunteers. Depending on the context, one may use posters and relevant communication platforms such as social media and/or meetings. How to communicate is as important as what to communicate: be inspirational and motivational when you communicate with potential volunteers. Add an interview process to assess volunteer motives and expectations and communicate potential benefits. Have a clear recruitment and sign up structure. Students need to know what to expect, when and where to sign up and where to find more details. An updated interactive website would be a great asset.

7.3.1.2 *Context*

Every volunteer project operates within a specific context. One needs to structurally examine the context and eliminate as much barriers as possible that might hinder students from participating. Recruitment of student volunteers can occur from within the university system in the case of student driven projects, and from outside the university in the case of an already established NGO. NGOs are advised to identify target groups and contact the relevant department. Also, the NGO should attempt to establish a reciprocal partnership with the relevant department or with the university's volunteer division if such exists. It is important that NGOs are clear on communicating their needs and expectations to the university. University staff can then try to find a fit between the NGO and the student needs.

Furthermore, there are several factors to consider when examining volunteer context. The first factor is time. Establish the time devoted to the volunteer activity. One has to assess if student availability matches the time of day that the activity takes place. For instance, if students use public transport,

then activities that are outside of the public transport availability times will limit students to participate. Also, having your programme during peak university class times will hinder students from being able to participate. Students do not have a lot of free time. Thus, I advise that the activity should not be more than two hours long, including traveling time. Time should also be considered on a bigger level, for example consulting the university and school timetables and public holidays. Student timetables normally change every semester, as students may choose semester subjects. Therefore, it is advisable to recruit twice a year, at the start of each semester. Having a recruitment drive during the first-year orientation period is challenging, because you simultaneously compete with other co-curricular activities and students are normally caught up in the hype, therefore signing up for more than they can commit to. Furthermore, students are not aware of their academic schedule during first-year orientation, and volunteer organisations should expect a significant dropout rate within the first three weeks. It is best to establish volunteer numbers only after the first week of classes. An interview process and adding a small sign-up fee might help students to really consider the project's vision, mission and goals in deciding whether it matches their interests before signing up.

Another factor to consider is language. Due to SA's diverse culture, the students' home language often does not match the home language of the service recipients. I advise that project management communicates possible language barriers as well as ways of overcoming these perceived barriers, along with personal growth and skills learned from interacting with others within a multilingual context. The project intervention on mitigating the perceived language barrier is also dependent on the volunteer activity and the impact of language on the outcome.

Graduate attributes and its benefits should be better communicated within the wider student population, as well as students' involvement in nation-building efforts.

Tools

The recruitment tools used will depend on the volunteer context. If you are recruiting within a residence setting, use the existing residence structures to market your project, such as residence meetings. Always ensure that you comply with the institutional guidelines of when and how to recruit.

7.3.2   Retention framework

Retention strategies include both volunteer satisfaction and the notion of providing support that mitigates volunteer constrains. Student volunteerism needs both institutional and organisational support that is structural and developmental.

7.3.2.1 *Expectations*

When volunteer expectations are met, this leads to volunteer satisfaction. As mentioned before, an interview process may be implemented to assess volunteer expectation. Volunteer expectations are normally related to volunteer motives and it also indicates perceived volunteer benefits. Programme leaders should be aware of unrealistic expectations, and should aim to manage unrealistic expectations through regular communication of aims and objectives. One of the most common unrealistic expectations is the perception that volunteer work should be fun only, rejecting the notion of hard work. Such students need to be inspired to commit to the vision and objective of the project, in order to give 'hard work' a purpose. Regular volunteer socials will also help to satisfy the expectation of having fun. Programmes should be educational and fun for both the volunteers and the recipients.

One guaranteed volunteer expectation is that volunteers want to know that their work is important and that what they contribute is noticed by the leadership and consequently appreciated. Ways of communicating appreciation is through external mechanisms such as the 100 hour challenge. This will act as motivation to commit and give recognition for the time spent serving others. Another means of recognition could be to choose a volunteer of the week and share his or her achievements with the rest of the group. Small appreciation gifts such as chocolates or an old school pat-on-the-back also goes a long way.

Most volunteer expectations are, however, met through the various support structures to be discussed next.

Tool

At the start of the volunteer process, ask volunteers to write a letter to themselves where they reflect on the processes and achievements throughout the volunteer process. This should be directed as a goal-setting, futuristic focus exercise. Another way to keep volunteers motivated and to address the expectation of making a difference is by incorporating once–off programmes. These programmes should have an achievable goal, for example making sandwiches for all the children or painting a classroom.

7.3.2.2 *Support*

Student volunteers function in both organisational and institutional structures. In order to sustain participation the students have to be supported by the organisation and the university. Support needs to be structural and developmental.

7.3.2.2.1   *Structural support*

Structural support involves logistics and administration. Many of these structural support factors are dependent on the institution's financial position and resources available for student volunteerism. If these structures are not in place it does have a negative impact on both the retention and recruitment of student volunteers.

Institutional support should include providing transport to the community sites, along with office space, telephone lines or copy machines, and other administrative resources. Providing administrative resources will ensure that students are not burdened to use personal funds to cover the cost of volunteer activities. The cost of student volunteerism should be minimised to their time and skills offered and should not include other financial expenses. In addition, institutional staff should provide financial assistance by consulting and mentoring students in skills such as budgeting, as well as providing an auditing system. Should volunteers need to approach sponsors for their projects, knowing that the volunteer project is being audited within the university system may help the process of gaining sponsorships. Institutional management should also assist with the governance of projects, ensuring that student volunteer projects comply with the rules of the university and laws of the country. Volunteer safety is more complex, as higher crime rates are often associated with disadvantaged communities. The above-mentioned support is particularly directed at student driven projects or student projects within a negotiated partnership with an NGO and the university volunteer sector. If students are volunteering independently, outside of the institutional structures, the onus is on the volunteer organisation to provide such structural support. Community access is vital and should be overseen by staff support. Students are not merely volunteering as individuals, but also as representatives of the university. Universities need to ensure student safety.

In the case of student driven projects, **organisational support** includes the administrative management support from the institution. If the university provides transport then the student leaders need to manage logistics such as who will drive the vehicle, when copies will be made, and who should be on office duty. If the institution cannot provide transport, the organisation should attempt to provide transport. If they are unable to provide transport they may need to help setup a transport timetable among the volunteers with the available cars and see if they are able to compensate those volunteers for driving. Students become frustrated when the leadership of the organisation is not organised. A big part of the perception of being organised entails planning and clear communication. Programme structures should be clear and volunteers should at all times know what is happening when and why.

It is important to put an effective communication system in place. Leaders should consider when to communicate what and to whom. It is also important to note that communication is a two-way process.

Thus, opportunities such as debriefing and feedback sessions are important as it allows for volunteers to communicate to the leadership. Communication should also be channelled at creating a sense of belonging and ownership by delegating tasks and asking volunteers for their opinions on programmes.

A central part of an effective communication system is establishing **what needs to be communicated**. It is essential for the leadership to address unrealistic volunteer expectations and provide space for volunteers to talk to someone when they feel overwhelmed and expectations placed on them are unrealistic. Project leaders should continuously communicate the vision, mission and goals of the project to remind volunteers of the significance of the project. Also, the leadership should communicate how the project is making a difference by highlighting small achievements and sharing individual success stories. At times, leaders need to help volunteers note the progress being made.

Student leaders not only communicate with student volunteers but also with various other stakeholders, such as university management and community partners. These communication channels are crucial to ensure the effectiveness of the programmes.

Establishing **when to communicate** is also important. For instance, leadership might want to send reminder messages a day or two before the activity to encourage volunteers to attend. Training sessions are key communication opportunities. This also adds to developmental support as students gain new insights and learn new skills. Training outcomes need to be aimed at being able to execute the programme as well as students' personal growth.

Next is establishing **which communication tools** works best. Emails are known to be an ineffective way of communicating with students. However, if this is the only means of communicating with a large group, the following should be considered: ensure that the emails are presented differently than the emails students receive from their lecturers and other academic related emails; keep emails short; rather send two emails per week than one long email; write the important parts such as due dates in bold or different colours or enlarge it. If the student scans the email, the important information will be highlighted and read. Always end the email with a motivational quote or something to inspire the volunteers, or show appreciation. Use the *bcc* function or a programme that addresses the volunteer by name. It is demotivating to read an email where it is clear it is a mass email and not directed personally. Alternative communication systems include bulk SMS, WhatsApp or social media platforms such as Facebook groups.

7.3.2.2.2   *Developmental support*

Developmental support should be focused on students' personal and professional development. This includes the development of soft skills related to their *understanding function* motives and leadership skills as well as managing volunteers' personal growth related to their *esteem function* motives.

Leadership skills can be advanced by providing space for students to lead by delegating responsibilities. This also communicates shared ownership, and a sense of shared ownership normally results in the development of a volunteer identity and affinity to the project. Institutions should help orientate students to the processes of volunteerism: particularly to that of a social justice orientation to promote active citizenship and graduate attributes. It is thus important to be cognisant of student orientation to community interaction. It might be the first time some students are entering a community other than their own. Institutions should host training sessions for general student volunteers on topics such as contact making or multicultural and citizenship education. These essential messages can also be developed in a credit bearing course.

Most of the students' personal growth occurs within the interaction with the community as well as fellow students. Subsequently, I divided the social tools section into six different possible relationships within student volunteerism. I briefly discuss the impact of those relationships on volunteer recruitment and retention.

The leadership of the organisation needs to manage the **relationship between the volunteers.** One of the expectations of student volunteers is to become friends with other volunteers. Organising volunteer socials is one way to facilitate such a process. Other expectations are for the volunteer process to be fun and for leaders to be organised. Thus, volunteer socials need to be planned with these aims in mind. Have a few icebreakers to help facilitate the initial process of becoming acquainted with each other. Make sure the food is good. Students love free, good food. Food is normally associated with celebrations and might aid to communicate volunteer appreciation. When possible, pair volunteers to work in groups. This will also help the volunteers to become friends and will add to accountability between volunteers, as the one volunteer might not want to disappoint the other by not participating in the activities. Healthy relationships between volunteers increase commitment and retention.

Volunteer socials are also a good time for the **leadership to get to know the volunteers**. Students want to know that they are working with others to make a difference and not necessarily working for others to achieve their goals. Subsequently, organisational leaders should mind the gap that might occur between the leadership and the rest of the volunteers. One way to mind the gap is to share responsibility and ownership by delegating tasks. However, be mindful of not placing unrealistic expectation on volunteers, and keep the delegated tasks minimal. The leadership needs to ensure that volunteers feel appreciated and supported. Regular debriefing, feedback or reflection sessions are important to keep the communication channels open between the leaders and the volunteers, and for leaders to know what the volunteers are struggling with in order to best support them. Reflection also permits evaluation of the programme and to accordingly bring about the necessary changes in order

for the programme to stay relevant and effective. Volunteers look up to the leader, therefore the leaders should model commitment and consistency. If the relationship between the leadership and the volunteers is healthy, leaders will be able to assess the volunteer's interest and skills to ensure that it matches with the project tasks. It is, however, impossible for the leadership to know the entire volunteer group if the group is large. It would be wise to appoint day leaders, programme leaders or group leaders so that each person on the leadership is allocated a group of volunteers to support and come to know on a personal level. Ensure that the volunteer groups are not too big, otherwise it will defeat this purpose. Healthy leaders and positive volunteer relationships add to the sense of belonging, feeling needed, being noticed and appreciated - addressing various psychological needs and volunteer functions. When volunteer needs are met it results in volunteer satisfaction and adds to retention.

Moreover, when the volunteers are linked with an NGO, above-mentioned relationship should be managed by both the **NGO or community partner management staff and the volunteers.** Depending on the context, students might have a separate programme within the larger NGO which has its own student volunteer leader structure. The above-mentioned guidelines are then more applicable to the student leaders. In such an instance, the NGO management only has to focus their attention on forming a healthy supportive relationship with the student leaders.

The **NGO or community partner** should also focus on forming a reciprocal relationship with the **university staff.** Often NGOs recruit student volunteers through a recognised university system. This relationship needs to be protected by both sides. Regular feedback is important. Universities should also assist in the understanding of building partnerships among students, along with reciprocal processes.

Some volunteer structures also require **student leaders to form a relationship with the university staff**.

The relationship between the volunteers and the community they serve is also important for sustained involvement. Where it is possible, try to form small consistent groups with whom the volunteer can work. Also ensure that the activities are fun and educational.

This relationship requires much of the communication tools discussed under the context section. The communication tools focus on establishing a communication structure to effectively manage all the important role players, thus formulating a system for best practice, whereas the social tools focus on building authentic and healthy relationships with individuals.

I hope that the model developed here will be tested in university based structures beyond the Western Cape and perhaps even beyond the borders of South African universities.

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Appendix 1

**Approval
Notice**
**New
Applic
ation**

18-Aug-2011
Joseph, Bianca BM

Protocol #: HS611/2011
**Title: Recruitment and retention of university student volunteers for South African
community projects**

Dear Bianca Joseph,

The **New Application** received on **27-Jul-2011**, was reviewed by Research Ethics Committee:
Human Research (Humaniora) via Committee Review procedures on **28-Jul-2011** and has been
approved.
Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Protocol Approval Period: **28-Jul-2011** -**27-Jul-2012**

Present Committee Members:
Fouche, Magdalena MG
Van wyk, Berte B
De Villiers, Mare MRH
Hatting, Johannes JP
Theron, Carl CC
Somhlaba, Ncebazakhe NZ
Viviers, Suzette S
Bitzer, Elias EM
Engelbrecht, Sidney SF
Van Zyl, Gerhard, G
Van der Walt, Nicolene N

Please remember to use your **protocol number** (**HS611/2011**) on any documents or

correspondence with the REC concerning your research protocol. Please note that the REC

has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require

further modifications, or monitor the
conduct of your research and the consent process.

After Ethical Review:

Please note a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the year has expired. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary). Annually a number projects may be selected randomly for an external audit. Translation of the consent document in the language applicable to the study participants should be submitted.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.
If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 0218089183.

Included Documents:

Consent Form HS611/2011

Letter of permission 4 HS611/2011

Application for letter of permission HS611/2011

Consent Form 2 HS611/2011

Letter requesting permission HS611/2011

Letter of permission 3 HS611/2011

Letter of permission 1 HS611/2011

Letter requesting permission 2 HS611/2011

Letter of permission 5 HS611/2011

Letter of permission 6 HS611/2011

Letter of permission 8 HS611/2011

Letter of permission 7 HS611/2011

Letter of permission 2 HS611/2011

Application Form HS611/2001

Research Proposal HS611/2011

Sincerely,

Sidney Engelbrecht

REC Coordinator

Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humaniora)

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research
Participants

Some of the responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1.Conducting the Research. You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research.

2.Participant Enrollment. You may not recruit or enroll participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use. If you need to recruit more participants than was noted in yourREC approval letter, you must submit an amendment requesting an increase in the number of participants.

3.Informed Consent. You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (15) years.

4.Continuing Review. The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research protocols at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period.** Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the continuing review report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur.** If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrollment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5.Amendments and Changes. If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, number of participants, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You **may not initiate**any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6.Adverse or Unanticipated Events. Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to the REC within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch Universtiy Health Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures www.sun025.sun.ac.za/portal/page/portal/Health_Sciences/English/Centres%20and%20Institutions/Research_Development_Support/Ethics/Application_package All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the SAE Report Form.

7.<u>Research Record Keeping</u>. You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of fifteen years: the REC approved research protocol and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC

8.<u>Reports to MCC and Sponsor</u>. When you submit the required annual report to the MCC or you submit required reports to your sponsor, you **must** provide a copy of that report to the REC. You may submit the report at the time of continuing REC review.

9.<u>Provision of Emergency Medical Care</u>. When a physician provides emergency medical care to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognized as research nor the data used in support of research.

10.<u>Final reports</u>. When you have completed (no further participant enrollment, interactions, interventions or data analysis) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.

11.<u>On-Site Evaluations, MCC Inspections, or Audits</u>. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the MCC, the sponsor, any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.

Appendix 2

Queensland University of Technology

Kelvin Grove Campus
Victoria Park Road
Kelvin Grove QLD 4059 Australia
Phone +61 7 3138 2000
www.qut.edu.au

02.03.11

To whom it may concern,

I gave permission for Bianca Joseph to utilise the questionnaire based on my previous research.

Kind regards,

Katherine White
Associate Professor
School of Psychology and Counselling
Queensland Unviersity of Technology

Appendix 3

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Recruitment and retention of university student volunteers for South African community projects

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Bianca Joseph, PhD student, from the Educational Psychology department at Stellenbosch University. The results will thus contribute to her thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a key role player in the selected community project.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study will explore university students' reasons for volunteering and the organizational factors that support their activities.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Be available to be interviewed and to answer questions on your community project as well as provide the researcher with the appropriate year reports and volunteer statistics. You will also be asked to help set up a time to hand out questionnaires to your volunteers.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS
No risks or discomforts are involved

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

You will not directly benefit from participation.

This study will contribute to the knowledge on volunteering amongst university students, as no other study on this topic has yet been conducted in South Africa. Results will be helpful for community projects that rely on volunteers. The respective universities will also benefit from the results as it will enable them to build stronger volunteer divisions. Results may also help to enrich service learning programmes. On a broader scale this study is likely to contribute to an understanding of one of the mechanisms in higher education that can contribute to building citizenship.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

You will receive no payment for your participation. Participation is strictly voluntarily.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained in a number of ways. Interviews will be anonymous. Results will be recorded as project leader. No personal names will be mentioned. Data will also be kept in a safe and secure space with no access to it except for the researcher and the supervisor.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Bianca Joseph *Principal Investigator* @ 073 501 40 50 or bianca@enstb.co.za Stellenbosch University *or* Prof Ronelle Carolissen *Supervisor* @ *rlc2@sun.ac.za or 0218082738/0833035022.*

9.   RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to [*me/the subject/the participant]* by [*name of relevant person]* in [*Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other]* and [*I am/the subject is/the participant is]* in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to [*me/him/her]*. [*I/the participant/the subject]* were given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to *[my/his/her]* satisfaction.

[I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study/I hereby consent that the subject/participant may participate in this study.] I have been given a copy of this form.

_____
Name of Subject/Participant

_____
Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

_____   _____
Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative   **Date**

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [*name of the subject/participant]* and/or [his/her] representative _____ [*name of the representative]. [H*e/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in [*Afrikaans/*English/*Xhosa/*Other*] and [*no translator was used/this conversation was translated into* _____ by _____].

_____   _____

Signature of Investigator   **Date**

Appendix 4

Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

I am investigating reasons for student volunteerism. This work forms part of a doctoral study.

All information obtained through this questionnaire is viewed as strictly confidential.

Section1

1.1 Age: _____

1.2 Race: | white | | black | | coloured | | indian | | other |

1.3 Gender: | male | | femal |

1.4 Name of province where you attended high school: _____

1.5 Name of current University: | US | | UCT | | UWC | | CPUT |

1.6 Year of study: | 1st | | 2nd | | 3rd | | 4th/honours | | masters | | doctorate |

1.7 Name of course that you are enrolled in: _____

1.8 How long have you been volunteering at this project? _____

1.9 Are you volunteering at this organization as part of a service learning course? | YES | | NO |

1.10 Have you previously volunteered at this organization as part of a service learning course? | YES | | NO |

1.11 Have you volunteered at any other project before? | YES | | NO |

Section 2

2.1 Functional Approach variables

Using the 5-point Likert scales ranging from 1= completely disagree; 2= disagree; 3= neutral; 4= agree and 5= completely agree, please complete the following:

Question	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.1 Value function					
a. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.					
b. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.					
c. I feel compassionate about people in need.					
d. I feel it is important to help others.					
e. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.					
2.1.1 Understanding functions					
Question	1	2	3	4	5

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a. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.					
b. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective.					
c. Volunteering lets me learn through direct hands-on experience.					
d. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.					
e. I can explore my own strengths.					
2.1.3 Career functions					
a. Volunteering can help me get a foot in the door at the place where I would like to work.					
b. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.					
c. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.					
d. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.					
e. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.					
2.1.4 Social functions					
a. My friends volunteer.					
b. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.					
c. People I know share an interest in community service.					
d. Others with who I am close to place a high value on community service.					
e. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.					
2.1.5 Protective functions					
a. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.					
b. By volunteering I feel less lonely.					
c. Doing volunteer work relieved me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.					
d. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.					
e. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.					
2.1.6 Esteem functions					
a. Volunteering makes me feel important.					
b. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.					
c. Volunteering makes me feel needed.					
d. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.					
e. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.					

Section 3

3.1 What motivates you to volunteer? Please state in one sentence:

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.2 Why did you decide to volunteer at this organization?

_____

_____

_____

3.3 How did you come to know about this organization?

_____

_____

_____

3.4 Are your expectations for volunteering being met by volunteering at this organization? Explain:

_____

_____

_____

3.5 How long do you still intend to continue volunteering at this organization and why?

_____

_____

_____

3.6 Do you volunteer at this project on a regular basis? | Yes | | No |

Explain what "regular" means to you and your reasons for volunteering on a regular basis or not.

_____

_____

_____

3.7 Please rate the organizations' management team.

| Excellent | | Good | | Satisfactory | | Bad |

3.7.1 Explain your ratings.

_____243
_____
_____
_____

3.8 What do you think the organization should do differently to accommodate future volunteers?

_____
_____
_____
_____

3.9 Describe your relationship with the management staff as well as with the other volunteers:

_____
_____
_____
_____

3.10 Do you consider volunteering in general as a social responsibility that all South Africans should do? Please explain

_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you for completing the questionnaire

Appendix 5

Researcher's conference presentations related to the thesis topic on student volunteerism

Year and Place	Conference	Title	Form
2007, Durban – South Africa	PsySSA	Student experiences in service – learning: the case of the Phelophepa health train.	Poster
2008, Lisbon-Portugal	International Community Psychology Conference	The Phelophepa health train as a primary prevention intervention.	Oral
2008, Lisbon – Portugal	International Community Psychology Conference	Managing relationships in a student initiated community project: The case of the Watergarden project.	Oral
2010, Stellenbosch – South Africa	Stellenbosch University's symposium on: Community interaction through volunteerism.	Recruitment and retention of student volunteers	Oral
2011, Stellenbosch South Africa	SAHECEF), Volunteerism Work Group	Recruitment and retention of student volunteers	Oral
2013, Miami – USA	SCRA	What does research, a train and choir have in common? Communal thriving in South Africa	Oral