

NAVIGATING ACADEMIC–WORK ROLE CONFLICT: COPING STRATEGIES, STRESSORS, AND SUPPORT SYSTEMS AMONG WORKING UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Lina Mu'arrofatul A'la^{1*}, Heri Saptadi Ismanto², Agus Setiawan³

¹²³ Universitas PGRI Semarang, Indonesia

*Corresponding Author: muarroatulalinalina@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Working university students may experience academic–work role conflict when study requirements and paid employment compete for limited time and energy. This bounded qualitative case study examined the stressors experienced by student employees, the coping responses they used, and the contribution of social and organizational resources. The case comprised two university students (KN and RA) employed in a service-sector coffee shop in Semarang, Indonesia, and the workplace owner (OW) as a supporting informant. Data were generated through interviews, observation, and documentation and analyzed through an interactive process of data condensation, display, and conclusion verification. Five interrelated stressor clusters were identified: schedule and time conflict, academic demands, dual-role fatigue, family expectations, and self-imposed pressure concerning study completion. The students used problem-focused coping through prioritization and solution seeking and emotion-focused coping through rest, emotional regulation, interpersonal disclosure, and spiritual practice. Support seeking was distinguished from received support; peer encouragement and employer-provided schedule flexibility functioned as external protective resources. The case suggests that adaptation is shaped by interactions among stress appraisal, coping behavior, and contextual resources. Higher-education counseling should therefore combine individual coping development with early overload identification, flexible academic advising, peer support, and context-sensitive coordination with employers. Comparative, longitudinal, and mixed-method research is needed to test the transferability of this case-derived framework.

Keywords: Academic–work role conflict, Coping strategies, Organizational support, Social support, Working university students

INTRODUCTION

Paid employment during university is no longer a peripheral feature of higher education. Students increasingly combine study with paid work to finance living costs, gain experience, and strengthen employability, yet the same arrangement can compress the time and energy available for academic participation. A substantial international literature shows that student employment is neither uniformly harmful nor uniformly beneficial; its consequences depend on work intensity, role compatibility, job quality, and the resources available to students. Reviews and empirical studies have linked heavier term-time employment with reduced study time, weaker academic progress, stress, and difficulties participating fully in university life, while modest or well-integrated employment can also provide developmental and financial benefits (Riggert et al., 2006; Broadbridge & Swanson, 2005; Moreau & Leathwood, 2006; Hall, 2010; Darolia, 2014; Grozev & Easterbrook, 2022). This mixed evidence makes the quality of the work–study interface, rather than employment status alone, a central analytical issue.

Research on academic outcomes further indicates that the number and organization of working hours matter. Early studies reported that term-time employment can reduce time available for learning and may impede academic progress when working hours become substantial (Watts & Pickering, 2000; Curtis, 2007; Robotham, 2009). Similar patterns have been found among nursing students, where longer paid-work hours predicted poorer academic outcomes and a less positive university experience (Salamonson & Andrew, 2006; Rochford et al., 2009). Other evidence is more nuanced: limited employment hours may coexist with satisfactory or even stronger attainment for some groups, whereas intensive employment is more consistently associated with lower credit accumulation or attainment (Darolia, 2014; Dennis et al., 2018). Paid work can also contribute to burnout when students experience persistent conflict between occupational and academic demands (Lingard, 2007). Among international students in Australia, work–study conflict was associated with fatigue and timetable clashes, illustrating how schedule organization can become a direct mechanism of role interference (Thamrin et al., 2019).

The Indonesian literature cited in the original manuscript similarly portrays working students as managing overlapping academic, occupational, family, and personal pressures. Time-management difficulties, academic workload, fatigue, social expectations, and uncertainty about study completion recur across studies of students who study while working (Indriyani & Handayani, 2018; Rahmah & Khoirunnisa, 2023; Lubis et al., 2023). Stress is commonly understood as a psychological and physiological response that emerges when demands are appraised as difficult to manage with available resources (Andriyani, 2019; Sarafino et al., 2015). Research on Indonesian students also points to coping capacity, psychological resources, and social support as potentially protective factors (Subandy & Jatmika, 2020; Ningsih & Paryontri, 2023), while spiritual practices may provide meaning and emotional regulation during periods of academic pressure (Mohd Zawawi et al., 2019; Saihu & Abdushomad, 2021). Rivaldi (2024) likewise emphasizes that perceived inability to meet demands can intensify psychological strain. These findings demonstrate the relevance of stress and coping to working students but do not, by themselves, explain how individual strategies and environmental resources operate together within a specific workplace context.

The present study is anchored primarily in the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping. In this perspective, stress does not reside exclusively in an external event or within the individual; it develops through appraisal of the relationship between demands and available coping resources. Lazarus and Folkman distinguish primary appraisal of what is at stake from secondary appraisal of what can be done, followed by coping efforts that may address the problem or regulate the emotional response. Empirical work has supported the importance of appraisal and coping processes for psychological symptoms and adjustment (Folkman et al., 1986). This perspective is compatible with broader descriptions of stress as arising from pressure, uncertainty, and perceived constraints (Robbins, 1994; Sarafino et al., 2015). The industrial-relations source retained from the original manuscript is historically older than initially cited; its bibliographic metadata identify it as Chartier's (1956) review of Yoder's personnel-management text. It is retained here because the original manuscript used it to situate work-related demands, but the present argument relies more directly on contemporary stress and role-conflict evidence.

Role-conflict theory helps specify why simultaneous study and employment may become stressful. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) distinguish time-based and strain-based forms of inter-role conflict: time committed to one role can make participation in another more difficult, and strain generated in one domain can impair functioning in another. Although developed in work–family research, these mechanisms map closely onto academic–work conflict when work shifts collide with lectures, or when fatigue from one domain limits performance in the other. Meta-analytic evidence on multiple-role conflict further shows that role interference is associated with psychological and performance-related outcomes (Michel et al., 2011; Amstad et al., 2011). For university students, qualitative and survey studies similarly show that role incompatibility is experienced through competing schedules, reduced recovery, and difficulty maintaining a coherent student experience while working (Broadbridge & Swanson, 2006; Swanson et al., 2006; Grozev & Easterbrook, 2022).

A second conceptual issue concerns the boundary between coping strategies and support systems. An individual may actively seek support as a coping behavior, but the availability, responsiveness, and quality of support are external resources. Cohen and Wills (1985) proposed that social support can buffer the adverse effects of stress, and later meta-analytic research has confirmed that support can reduce strain in occupational settings (Viswesvaran et al., 1999; Halbesleben, 2006). This distinction matters analytically: talking to a friend is an action undertaken by the student, whereas being listened to, encouraged, or assisted is a resource supplied by others. Treating these as the same construct obscures the mechanism through which students mobilize and receive help. It also clarifies why social support reported in studies of thesis-writing and working students should be interpreted as part of the resource environment rather than simply as another internal coping style (Ningsih & Paryontri, 2023).

Organizational support provides an additional resource layer. Perceived Organizational Support theory proposes that employees form beliefs about whether the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Research on supportive work environments has repeatedly shown that supervisor understanding, schedule control, and supportive organizational norms can reduce inter-role conflict and strain (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011). The Job Demands–Resources model similarly argues that demands consume

energy while resources facilitate goal attainment, learning, and resilience (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). These theories were developed mainly in employment and work–family contexts, so they should not be transferred mechanically to students. Nevertheless, they provide a useful mechanism for interpreting a service-sector workplace where flexible shifts may either increase or reduce students’ perceived control over academic obligations.

The state of the art therefore reveals a specific gap. Much of the student-employment literature has examined academic performance, working hours, stress levels, or work–study conflict using surveys and quantitative comparisons (Riggert et al., 2006; Curtis, 2007; Darolia, 2014; Dennis et al., 2018; Thamrin et al., 2019). Qualitative studies have illuminated working students’ efforts to balance roles and the subjective incompatibility of work and university life (Moreau & Leathwood, 2006; Hall, 2010; Grozev & Easterbrook, 2022), but fewer studies integrate four elements within one bounded case: specific stressors, students’ appraisals, coping responses, and organizational resources, while also comparing student accounts with an employer perspective. This gap is particularly relevant in service-sector shift work because scheduling practices are a direct point at which organizational policy can intensify or buffer academic–work conflict.

Accordingly, this study aims to explain how stressors, coping responses, and support systems interact among working university students within one bounded service-sector workplace. The novelty is case-analytic rather than population-generalizing: the study distinguishes individual coping from received social and organizational support and examines employer-provided schedule flexibility as a potential protective mechanism. Three research questions guide the analysis: (RQ1) What stressors characterize academic–work role conflict in this bounded workplace case? (RQ2) How do the two student employees appraise and cope with concurrent academic and work demands? and (RQ3) How do interpersonal and organizational resources interact with individual coping in this case?

METHOD

Research Design and Case Boundaries

A qualitative case-study design was used to obtain an in-depth account of academic–work role conflict in a real-life employment setting. Case study is appropriate when a phenomenon is examined within its contextual boundaries and when multiple sources of evidence are used to understand how processes operate in situ (Rahardjo, 2017; Yin, 2018). The case was bounded by one service-sector coffee shop in Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia, and by the experiences of employees who were simultaneously active university students. The precise street address included in an earlier version was removed because it was not analytically necessary and could increase identifiability. The design is interpretive and case-bounded; it does not seek statistical representation of working university students.

Participants and Sampling

Criterion-based purposive sampling was used. The primary inclusion criterion was being an active university student employed at the case workplace and having direct experience of managing academic and occupational responsibilities concurrently. The analyzed case comprised two student employees, coded KN and RA, and one workplace owner, coded OW, who served as a supporting informant. OW was included to provide contextual information concerning work shifts, workplace expectations, communication, and organizational flexibility rather than as a third student case. With only two student participants, the study does not claim thematic saturation or broad representativeness. Information adequacy is treated as case-specific and is based on convergence and contrast across the two student accounts, the owner’s contextual account, and the observation and documentation sources.

Data Collection and Instruments

The source study reports three forms of evidence: interviews, observation, and documentation, consistent with qualitative triangulation principles (Ratnaningtyas et al., 2023; Suggestion, 2019). Interviews were the primary source for exploring episodes of academic–work conflict, perceptions of stress, coping responses, and experiences of support. The manuscript originally described the interviews as unstructured; therefore, this revision does not claim the use of a standardized psychometric instrument. For transparent reporting, the interview domains evident in the dataset are specified as:

overlapping lecture and work schedules; academic assignments or thesis demands; fatigue and recovery; family and self-expectations; problem-solving and emotion-regulation responses; peer/family support; and workplace scheduling practices. The owner interview focused on work conditions and the organization's response to employees' academic obligations. Observation and documentation were used as contextual evidence to compare reported experiences with the work setting and scheduling practices.

Data Analysis, Trustworthiness, and Ethics

Analysis followed the interactive logic of data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification described by Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014). First, passages concerning concurrent academic and occupational demands were condensed into provisional codes. Second, codes were organized into four analytic categories derived from the research questions and sensitizing theory: stressors, appraisal of role conflict, individual coping actions, and contextual resources. Third, a cross-participant matrix was used to compare KN and RA and to assess where OW's account corroborated, extended, or potentially complicated the student accounts. Categories were then refined into higher-order themes and checked against available quotations and contextual evidence. Theoretical concepts were used sensitively rather than as fixed coding boxes so that theme labels remained anchored in the case material. Credibility was supported through source and method triangulation; transferability was addressed through thick description of the bounded setting; and the revised reporting strengthens dependability and confirmability by making the analytic path and theme-source links explicit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Participant identities are represented only by codes, and the precise workplace address has been removed. Figure 1 summarizes the case-study process used in the revised report.

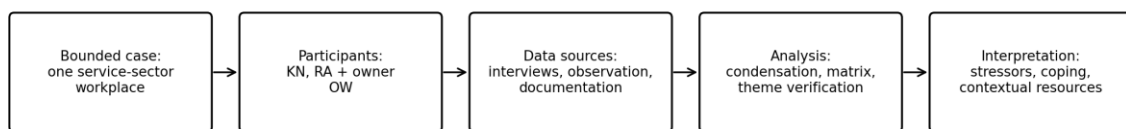


Figure 1. Case-study research process

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings are organized around three conceptually distinct domains: stressors that shaped academic–work role conflict, individual coping responses, and external social or organizational resources. Five stressor subthemes were identified in the reported accounts: schedule and time conflict, academic demands, dual-role fatigue, family expectations, and self-imposed pressure concerning study completion. The thematic matrix in Table 1 makes the evidentiary structure explicit and prevents support systems from being conflated with coping behavior. Because the case contains two student participants, terms such as ‘most dominant’ are avoided; where one issue was emphasized by both participants, it is described as the stressor most consistently foregrounded within this case rather than as a population-level finding.

Table 1. Thematic Matrix of Stressors, Coping, and Contextual Resources

Analytic domain	Theme/subtheme	Case evidence
Stressors	Schedule and time conflict	KN: academic work after shifts; RA: lecture–shift collision.
Stressors	Academic demands	KN and RA: assignments/revisions remained cognitively salient after work.
Stressors	Dual-role fatigue	RA, with parallel evidence from KN: reduced recovery between study and work.
Stressors	Family expectations and completion pressure	KN and RA: expectations to graduate on time while remaining employed.

Individual coping	Problem-focused coping	KN: prioritization; RA: active solution seeking.
Individual coping	Emotion-focused coping	KN: rest, calming environment, disclosure; RA: prayer/spiritual practice.
Individual coping	Support seeking	KN: actively talked with friends when pressured.
External resources	Received peer support and schedule flexibility	KN: listening/encouragement; OW: shift adjustment for lectures/exams.

Table 1 is referenced throughout the discussion to make clear which participant sources support each theme and to separate individual coping from external resources.

Stressors Shaping Academic–Work Role Conflict

Schedule and time conflict was the stressor most consistently emphasized by KN and RA. KN described the compression of academic work into the period after employment, whereas RA emphasized direct collisions between lectures and work shifts. These accounts correspond to the time-based form of inter-role conflict identified in role-conflict theory (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). They also resemble international student-employment research showing that timetable clashes, long work hours, and declining study time are common pathways through which paid employment interferes with university responsibilities (Watts & Pickering, 2000; Hall, 2010; Thamrin et al., 2019). In the Indonesian evidence retained from the original manuscript, difficulty dividing time is likewise repeatedly reported among students who study while working (Indriyani & Handayani, 2018; Rahmah & Khoirunnisa, 2023; Lubis et al., 2023).

“The hardest part is dividing my time between college and work. Sometimes after I get home from work in the afternoon, I still have assignments to finish, so there is very little time left to rest.” (KN)

“When the lecture schedule and my work shift clash, I have to manage the time carefully so that both can still continue.” (RA)

The contrast between KN and RA is analytically useful. KN’s account represents schedule compression without necessarily requiring a formal clash: academic tasks continue after work and displace rest. RA’s account represents explicit competition between two scheduled roles. Both forms reduce perceived control over time, but they may call for different responses. Compression may be addressed through workload prioritization and recovery planning, whereas direct schedule collision may require negotiation with lecturers or employers. This illustrates the transactional principle that the same broad stressor category can produce different appraisals depending on the resources available to the individual (Folkman et al., 1986).

Academic demands remained psychologically salient after work. KN referred to assignments and thesis revisions that had to be continued after a shift, while RA differentiated physical tiredness from the cognitive burden of unfinished academic tasks. This pattern is consistent with studies showing that students’ employment can affect academic engagement not merely by reducing available hours but by fragmenting attention and recovery (Curtis, 2007; Robotham, 2009; Grozev & Easterbrook, 2022). It also supports the original manuscript’s argument that academic demands and employment interact rather than functioning as independent stressors.

“When there are many assignments or revisions, my mind feels full because after work I still have to continue with my thesis.” (KN)

“Sometimes I feel tired not because of the job itself, but because I keep thinking about college assignments that are not finished.” (RA)

Dual-role fatigue emerged from repeated transitions between study, work, and renewed study with insufficient recovery. RA described a recurring cycle of studying in the morning, working later,

returning home at night, and beginning again the following day. KN's need to complete assignments after work points to a similar displacement of recovery time. Previous studies show that long paid-work commitments can be associated with fatigue, burnout, and poorer academic experience, particularly when students lack sufficient time for recuperation (Lingard, 2007; Salamonson & Andrew, 2006; Rochford et al., 2009). From a demands–resources perspective, fatigue is not simply another task; it is an indication that cumulative demands are consuming resources faster than they are restored (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

“The hardest part is managing time: studying in the morning, working later, going home at night, and studying again the next day. There is very little time to rest.” (RA)

Family expectations and self-imposed completion pressure added a social and evaluative dimension to the conflict. KN experienced parental support for working while simultaneously perceiving an expectation to graduate on time. RA similarly referred to questions about graduation and uncertainty about whether academic targets could be achieved while remaining employed. The pressure therefore involved both external expectations and internal appraisal. This is compatible with transactional accounts in which perceived meaning and stakes determine the intensity of stress (Andriyani, 2019; Sarafino et al., 2015) and with Rivaldi's (2024) emphasis on perceived inability to meet important demands. In this case, future completion concerns were not separate from current workload; they amplified the meaning attached to everyday schedule and assignment problems.

“My parents support me working, but they also hope that I can finish college on time. That is what sometimes stays on my mind.” (KN)

“I often wonder whether I can reach the target while still working, especially when my parents have started asking when I will graduate.” (RA)

Coping Responses: Managing Problems and Emotions

Both student participants described problem-focused coping when they believed some aspect of the situation could be changed. KN prioritized tasks according to urgency, while RA emphasized searching for solutions rather than ruminating. These actions correspond to the problem-focused dimension of the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping and to Indonesian descriptions of adaptive coping among working students (Andriyani, 2019; Lubis et al., 2023; Subandy & Jatmika, 2020). They are also consistent with the wider literature suggesting that the consequences of combining employment and study depend partly on how students organize time and negotiate competing role requirements (Broadbridge & Swanson, 2006; Swanson et al., 2006).

“I usually look first at what is most important and what has to be finished that day. If I can still do my assignments at night, I finish them after I get home from work.” (KN)

“When there is a problem, I focus more on finding a solution than on continuing to think about the problem. If I keep thinking about it, I become even more stressed.” (RA)

The two accounts nevertheless suggest that prioritization is a coping response rather than a complete solution. KN could reorder tasks, but prioritization did not create additional hours or eliminate fatigue. This distinction is important for counseling practice because time-management training alone may inadvertently individualize a structural scheduling problem. Where the stressor is an actual collision between a compulsory class and a work shift, the available coping repertoire depends on whether academic and organizational systems permit negotiation. In this respect, individual problem solving and contextual flexibility should be analyzed together rather than treated as competing explanations.

Emotion-focused coping appeared when participants needed to regulate distress that could not be immediately removed. KN described seeking a calmer environment, resting briefly, and talking with friends, while RA emphasized prayer and drawing closer to Allah. These accounts indicate heterogeneity in emotion regulation even within one workplace case. Spiritual coping has been described as a way of generating meaning, hope, and calm under stress (Pargament, 1997; Xu, 2016), and Indonesian

scholarship cited in the original manuscript similarly identifies spiritual practices as relevant to student coping (Mohd Zawawi et al., 2019; Saihu & Abdushomad, 2021).

“When I am really tired, I usually look for a place where I can calm down, talk with friends, or at least rest for a while so that my mind feels lighter.” (KN)

“When I have too many things on my mind, I usually pray and try to draw closer to Allah. After that, I feel calmer.” (RA)

Analytically, talking to friends is treated as support seeking—an individual coping action—whereas the listening, encouragement, or practical help subsequently received is treated as a social resource. This distinction responds directly to the conceptual ambiguity identified by the reviewers. It is consistent with social-support theory, which conceptualizes support as a resource that can change the perceived balance between demands and coping capacity (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Meta-analytic work in occupational settings also indicates that social support can attenuate stress and burnout (Viswesvaran et al., 1999; Halbesleben, 2006). Thus, an individual may use a coping strategy to access a resource, but the strategy and the resource remain analytically separable.

Social and Organizational Resources as Protective Conditions

The case indicates that adaptation occurred within a resource environment rather than solely within the individual. KN described emotional relief after disclosing difficulties to friends, demonstrating the importance of received peer support. This finding aligns with Ningsih and Paryontri (2023), who reported the relevance of social support during thesis-related stress, and with the broader buffering hypothesis of Cohen and Wills (1985). However, the most distinctive organizational evidence came from OW, who described a practice of adjusting shifts when lectures or examinations created conflicts.

“When I am tired, I usually talk to my friends. After telling them what is happening, I feel more relieved because someone is willing to listen and encourage me.” (KN)

“We understand that they are still studying, so when there is a lecture or examination schedule, the shift can usually be adjusted as long as communication is good.” (OW)

OW’s account provides an important negative or deviant pattern relative to a simple assumption that employment itself is necessarily the primary stressor. The available evidence did not describe rigid scheduling or deliberate obstruction of academic commitments; instead, the workplace was portrayed as a source of both demands and flexibility. This pattern is compatible with Perceived Organizational Support theory, in which supportive treatment can shape employees’ beliefs that the organization values their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Evidence from work–family research also shows that schedule control, supervisor support, and organization-specific support are related to lower inter-role conflict and strain (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011). These studies concern family roles rather than student roles, so the analogy should be interpreted cautiously, but the underlying mechanism—greater control over incompatible time demands—is directly relevant to shift-based student employment.

The employer perspective also strengthens the study’s novelty because it identifies a mechanism rather than merely confirming that the students were busy. Schedule flexibility changes the set of coping options available to KN and RA. When an employer permits shift adjustment, a timetable clash can potentially be converted from an uncontrollable demand into a negotiable problem, thereby affecting secondary appraisal of available resources. The Job Demands–Resources model offers a complementary interpretation: work schedules constitute demands, while autonomy, communication, and supportive supervision function as resources that help individuals attain goals and limit resource depletion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This mechanism helps explain why paid employment may generate different outcomes across contexts and work intensities (Riggert et al., 2006; Darolia, 2014; Dennis et al., 2018).

At the same time, the owner’s dual role as employer and supporting informant requires caution. An employer has incentives—conscious or otherwise—to describe workplace policies positively, and students may moderate criticism when they know the workplace is part of the study. Therefore, OW’s

statement should be treated as contextual evidence of reported flexibility rather than independent proof that all scheduling conflicts were effectively resolved. The triangulated pattern is nevertheless informative because the students' quotations foregrounded time pressure without attributing it directly to inflexible employer behavior. Future studies should independently document shift rosters and include supervisors, coworkers, and academic advisors to test whether perceived flexibility corresponds to actual scheduling practices.

Integrated Interpretation and Practical Implications

Taken together, the case supports an integrated sequence: academic and work demands are appraised against limited time, energy, and control; students deploy problem-focused or emotion-focused coping; and the success of those efforts is conditioned by social and organizational resources. This interpretation moves beyond a checklist of stressors and coping strategies. It explains why the same student may use different forms of coping across situations and why workplace flexibility can alter the practical meaning of a stressor. The mechanism also helps reconcile the international literature's mixed findings: employment can be developmental or manageable at lower intensities and under supportive conditions, but it becomes more harmful when hours, scheduling conflict, or resource depletion exceed students' capacity to adapt (Broadbridge & Swanson, 2005; Swanson et al., 2006; Darolia, 2014; Dennis et al., 2018).

For guidance and counseling, the findings support a multilevel rather than exclusively individual intervention model. At the individual level, counselors can help working students map fixed and flexible commitments, identify overload early, prioritize high-stakes academic tasks, and distinguish solvable problems from pressures that require emotion regulation. This is consistent with stress-coping approaches that strengthen appraisal, problem solving, and adaptive regulation (Andriyani, 2019; Folkman et al., 1986). At the peer level, structured support groups or peer mentoring can provide opportunities for disclosure, practical advice, and normalization of dual-role challenges. Social-support research suggests that perceived and received support can buffer strain, particularly when it matches the needs created by the stressor (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Viswesvaran et al., 1999).

At the institutional level, universities could develop flexible academic advising for students who can document recurrent work–study conflicts, especially around compulsory classes, examinations, and thesis milestones. Such flexibility should not reduce academic standards; rather, it should improve predictability and planning. Employers of student workers can contribute through transparent shift-exchange procedures, reasonable notice, and supervisor communication. Evidence from supportive-workplace research indicates that specific forms of supervisor and organizational support are more strongly related to lower role conflict than generic expressions of concern (Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011). A practical support package derived from this case would therefore combine time-priority coaching, overload screening, peer-support pathways, flexible academic advising, and—only with the student's consent—limited employer–campus communication when compulsory academic schedules require shift adjustment.

These recommendations must remain proportionate to the evidence. The case directly supports the value of schedule planning, solution seeking, peer disclosure, and employer flexibility because each appears in participant accounts. By contrast, formal employer–campus coordination and systematic overload screening are practice proposals derived from the case and the wider literature, not interventions tested in this study. Distinguishing evidence-based case implications from future practice propositions avoids overstating what can be concluded from two student participants.

Limitations and Future Research

Several limitations constrain interpretation. First, the study is a single-workplace case involving two student participants and one owner informant; its findings are analytically specific and cannot establish prevalence or causal effects. Second, occupational homogeneity limits transferability to other sectors, contract arrangements, universities, and socioeconomic groups. Third, the cross-sectional design captures retrospective accounts at one point in time and cannot show how coping changes across semesters, examination periods, or changes in work intensity. Fourth, reliance on self-report creates the possibility of recall and social-desirability bias. The owner's dual role as employer and informant may

have encouraged a favorable portrayal of workplace flexibility, while student participants may have moderated criticism of their employer. Fifth, the source manuscript did not report several methodological details now expected in qualitative research, including complete participant demographics, detailed fieldwork metadata, coding personnel, and formal procedures such as member checking or a documented audit trail; these items must be verified from the original research records before resubmission.

Future research should test the proposed stressor–appraisal–coping–resource framework across multiple occupations and universities. Comparative qualitative designs could contrast workplaces with high and low schedule flexibility; longitudinal studies could examine how role conflict evolves across academic deadlines and changing work hours; and mixed-method studies could combine qualitative mechanisms with validated measures of work–study conflict, perceived organizational support, coping, and well-being. Such work would clarify which elements of the present case are transferable and which are specific to this service-sector setting.

CONCLUSION

Within this bounded service-sector case, academic–work role conflict emerged through five interconnected pressures: schedule/time conflict, academic demands, dual-role fatigue, family expectations, and self-imposed concern about completing study goals while working. The two student participants used both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, but their adaptation cannot be explained by individual coping alone. Support seeking was an individual coping behavior, whereas received peer support and employer-provided schedule flexibility were external resources that changed the conditions under which coping occurred. The employer account is particularly important because it shows that the workplace can function simultaneously as a source of demands and as a source of protection when shifts are negotiable. The study therefore supports an integrated case framework in which stressors are appraised against available time, energy, control, and social or organizational resources. For guidance and counseling practice, the defensible implication is to combine individual skill development with attention to the academic and workplace environments surrounding working students. Because the evidence comes from a very small single-site case, these implications should be treated as case-derived propositions for further testing rather than generalized conclusions about working university students.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(3), 414–435. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2000.1774>
- Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes with a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(2), 151–169. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022170>
- Andriyani, J. (2019). Strategi coping stres dalam mengatasi problema psikologis. *At-Taujih: Bimbingan dan Konseling Islam*, 2(2), 37–55. <https://doi.org/10.22373/taujih.v2i2.6527>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands–resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309–328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>
- Broadbridge, A., & Swanson, V. (2005). Earning and learning: How term-time employment impacts on students' adjustment to university life. *Journal of Education and Work*, 18(2), 235–249. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080500086008>
- Broadbridge, A., & Swanson, V. (2006). Managing two roles: A theoretical study of students' employment whilst at university. *Community, Work & Family*, 9(2), 159–179. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668800600586878>
- Chartier, R. (1956). Review of *Personnel management and industrial relations* (4th ed., by D. Yoder). *Relations industrielles / Industrial Relations*, 11(3), 223–224. <https://doi.org/10.7202/1022638ar>
- Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 98(2), 310–357. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.98.2.310>

- Curtis, S. (2007). Students' perceptions of the effects of term-time paid employment. *Education + Training*, 49(5), 380–390. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910710762940>
- Darolia, R. (2014). Working (and studying) day and night: Heterogeneous effects of working on the academic performance of full-time and part-time students. *Economics of Education Review*, 38, 38–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2013.10.004>
- Dennis, C. A., Lemon, J., & Louca, V. (2018). Term-time employment and student attainment in higher education. *Journal of Perspectives in Applied Academic Practice*, 6(1), 28–38. <https://doi.org/10.14297/jpaap.v6i1.294>
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500–507. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500>
- Folkman, S., Lazarus, R. S., Gruen, R. J., & DeLongis, A. (1986). Appraisal, coping, health status, and psychological symptoms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(3), 571–579. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.50.3.571>
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 76–88. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4277352>
- Grozev, V. H., & Easterbrook, M. J. (2022). Accessing the phenomenon of incompatibility in working students' experience of university life. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 28, 241–264. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11233-022-09096-6>
- Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2006). Sources of social support and burnout: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5), 1134–1145. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1134>
- Hall, R. (2010). The work–study relationship: Experiences of full-time university students undertaking part-time employment. *Journal of Education and Work*, 23(5), 439–449. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2010.515969>
- Hammer, L. B., Kossek, E. E., Yragui, N. L., Bodner, T. E., & Hanson, G. C. (2009). Development and validation of a multidimensional measure of family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). *Journal of Management*, 35(4), 837–856. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308328510>
- Indriyani, S., & Handayani, N. S. (2018). Academic stress and motivation to excel in students who work while studying. *Journal of Psychology*, 11(2), 153–160. <https://doi.org/10.35760/psi.2018.v11i2.2260>
- Kossek, E. E., Pichler, S., Bodner, T., & Hammer, L. B. (2011). Workplace social support and work–family conflict: A meta-analysis clarifying the influence of general and work–family-specific supervisor and organizational support. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(2), 289–313. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2011.01211.x>
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. SAGE.
- Lingard, H. (2007). Conflict between paid work and study: Does it impact upon students' burnout and satisfaction with university life? *Journal for Education in the Built Environment*, 2(1), 90–109. <https://doi.org/10.11120/jebe.2007.02010090>
- Lubis, R., Irma, N. H., Wulandari, R., Siregar, K., Tanjung, N. A., Wati, T. A., N., M. P., & Syahfitri, D. (2023). Coping stress in students who study while working. *Journal of Psychological Research*, 10(1), 18–28. <https://ejournal.unesa.ac.id/index.php/character/article/view/53320/42766>
- Michel, J. S., Kotrba, L. M., Mitchelson, J. K., Clark, M. A., & Baltes, B. B. (2011). Antecedents of work–family conflict: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(5), 689–725. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.695>
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). SAGE.
- Mohd Zawawi, N. I., Md. Sham, F., & Ismail, A. (2019). Stress according to Western and Islamic scholars. *International Journal of Islamic Thought*, 16(1), 85–97. <https://doi.org/10.24035/ijit.16.2019.008>
- Moreau, M.-P., & Leathwood, C. (2006). Balancing paid work and studies: Working(-class) students in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 31(1), 23–42. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070500340135>

- Ningsih, A. E. Y., & Paryontri, R. A. (2023). Coping stress on students working on thesis: Is it related to social support? 7(2), 2019–2026. <https://doi.org/10.21070/ups.2853>
- Pargament, K. I. (1997). *The psychology of religion and coping: Theory, research, practice*. Guilford Press.
- Rahardjo, M. (2017). *Case studies in qualitative research*.
- Rahmah, H. A., & Khoirunnisa, R. N. (2023). Coping stress for students who study while working. *Character: Journal of Psychological Research*, 10(1), 18–28.
- Ratnaningtyas, E. M., Ramli, Syafruddin, Saputra, E., Suliwati, D., Nugroho, B. T. A., Karimuddin, Aminy, M. H., Saputra, N., Khaidir, & Jahja, A. S. (2023). *Qualitative research methods*.
- Riggert, S. C., Boyle, M., Petrosko, J. M., Ash, D., & Rude-Parkins, C. (2006). Student employment and higher education: Empiricism and contradiction. *Review of Educational Research*, 76(1), 63–92. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543076001063>
- Rivaldi, A. A. (2024). Analysis of factors causing stress in students and their impact on mental health. *Sec. 4*.
- Robbins, S. P. (1994). *Organisational behaviour: Concepts, controversies and applications: Australia and New Zealand*.
- Robotham, D. (2009). Combining study and employment: A step too far? *Education + Training*, 51(4), 322–332. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910910968337>
- Rochford, C., Connolly, M., & Drennan, J. (2009). Paid part-time employment and academic performance of undergraduate nursing students. *Nurse Education Today*, 29(6), 601–606. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2009.01.004>
- Saihu, M., & Abdushomad, M. (2021). Coping strategies for student stress in thesis writing. *Alim | Journal of Islamic Education*, 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.51275/alim.v3i1.200>
- Salamonson, Y., & Andrew, S. (2006). Academic performance in nursing students: Influence of part-time employment, age and ethnicity. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 55(3), 342–349. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2006.03863_1.x
- Sarafino, E. P., Smith, T. W., DeLongis, A., & King, D. B. (2015). *Health psychology: Biopsychosocial interactions*. Wiley.
- Subandy, K., & Jatmika, D. (2020). The relationship between psychological capital and coping stress in working students. *Psibernetika*, 13(2), 68–82. <https://doi.org/10.30813/psibernetika.v13i2.2382>
- Suggestion. (2019). *Qualitative quantitative research methods and R&D*. Alphabet.
- Swanson, V., Broadbridge, A., & Karatzias, A. (2006). Earning and learning: Role congruence, state/trait factors and adjustment to university life. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(4), 895–914. <https://doi.org/10.1348/000709905X65009>
- Thamrin, Y., Pisaniello, D., Guerin, C., & Rothmore, P. (2019). Correlates of work–study conflict among international students in Australia: A multivariate analysis. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(15), 2695. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16152695>
- Thomas, L. T., & Ganster, D. C. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work–family conflict and strain: A control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(1), 6–15. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.1.6>
- Viswesvaran, C., Sanchez, J. I., & Fisher, J. (1999). The role of social support in the process of work stress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54(2), 314–334. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1998.1661>
- Watts, C., & Pickering, A. (2000). Pay as you learn: Student employment and academic progress. *Education + Training*, 42(3), 129–134. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910010372670>
- Xu, J. (2016). Pargament’s theory of religious coping: Implications for spiritually sensitive social work practice. *The British Journal of Social Work*, 46(5), 1394–1410. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcv080>
- Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods* (6th ed.). SAGE.