1. Introduction

According to Klaffke and Parment (2011: 5) the trade journal Ad Age first coined the term “Generation Y” in an editorial article in 1993. Generation Y encompasses people born between 1978 and 2000 (Sacks, 2006). Sometimes this generation is called “the millennials” (Forrester, 2006) although the term “generation Y” is more commonly used. While generation Y succeeds generation X, i.e. the generation of people born between 1960 and 1980 (Hamblett, Everson, 1964), the Y has a second greater significance. The English homophony of the letter Y to the interrogative pronoun “Why?” suggests that this generation tends to demand answers and seek meaning (Hurrelmann, Albrecht, 2014).
tional scientist Klaus Hurrelmann states that members of generation Y ‘want to have their cake and eat it’: – aspiring to “family and friends, vocation plus happiness plus meaning” (Bund et al., 2013). Earlier, Albert et al. (2011: 204) had described generation Y adolescents as ‘goal-oriented’ and ‘highly motivated towards delivering a strong performance’ but unwilling to ‘sacrifice fun in life for a career’ at all costs. Members of generation Y have lived since birth in the center of attention. Their parents – occasionally dubbed “helicopter parents” – constantly observed, supervised and promoted them during their childhood (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Personalführung e.V., 2011: 12).

The expectations of generation Y adolescents regarding their future vocational and career opportunities have clearly improved in recent years. While more than half of the German adolescents were still reluctant, skeptical or even negative/pessimistic regarding their training and vocational future (Bertelsmann-Stiftung, 2005: 3), the Shell study (Albert et al., 2011: 200) states that in 2010 a good 59% of the adolescents were confident about their future and only 7% perceived it as being gloomy. Shortly after the worldwide financial crisis this was a surprising development. Today, members of generation Y have many options for shaping the course of their life. This variety creates chances for self-fulfillment but also presents a high complexity; where and what to study and which vocational possibilities to choose. This leads to a “definite disorientation” (Becker, 2011). Demographic changes have resulted in labor shortage and human resources management increasingly focuses on the question, “how to bind members of generation Y to companies?” (Klaffke, Parment, 2011).

Which expectations do modern adolescents have for the future and, especially, for their career? Which factors determine expectations? Which roles do personality and type of school play? This article analyses the vocational expectations of 4,447 German adolescents (aged seventeen) across the years 2000 to 2013.

Several theories discuss the effect of personality traits on vocational choice (see Section 2). Our research goal is to quantify these effects, as well as the effects of skills, gender and school type on the chosen professions of adolescents across the years 2000 to 2013. We especially want to find out whether/how professional expectations have changed over time, adjusted for variables like personality, skills and school attendance.

Section 2 is a literature review. It addresses theories about professional choice and personality models. After a description of the data set in section 3, the operationalization of theoretical constructs is described in section 4. Section 5 explains the statistical methods used in the analysis. The results are stated in section 6 and then discussed in section 7. Section 8 supplies the conclusion of the article. The appendix includes additional tables that were not included in the body of the article for reasons of clarity.

2. Literature review

Choosing one’s profession is a complex process. Although society has changed since this decision was an all-determining decision, it can still have a long-term impact on one’s life. Contrary to a “job”, which denotes a limited and part-time employment with low wages that might be exercised without training, we often define a profession as “a paid occupation that involves prolonged training and a formal qualification” (Scott, Wolfe, 2015). Georg and Sat tel (2006: 139) differentiated the choice of a profession into a first decision, at the transition to the general school system to vocational schools, and a second decision at the transition to employment. To this understanding, it is the first decision at the end of general education that has the greatest impact on future vocational and educational options. Historically, quite a number of theories on vocational choice were developed. Psychodynamic approaches like those of Roe (1956) and Bordin (1994) trace the vocational choice back to formative experiences in the early childhood of the decision-maker (cited in: Seifert, 1977: 177). According to Roe (1956) people are either more people-orientated or more task-oriented, due to early childhood socialization experiences. They therefore decide on a profession that allows them to follow their orientation. The developmental psychological approaches of Ginzberg (1951) and Super (1957) view the vocational choice back to formative experiences in the early childhood of the decision-maker (cited in: Seifert, 1977: 177). According to Roe (1956) people are either more people-orientated or more task-oriented, due to early childhood socialization experiences. They therefore decide on a profession that allows them to follow their orientation. The developmental psychological approaches of Ginzberg (1951) and Super (1957) view the vocational choice back to formative experiences in the early childhood of the decision-maker (cited in: Seifert, 1977: 177). According to Roe (1956) people are either more people-orientated or more task-oriented, due to early childhood socialization experiences. They therefore decide on a profession that allows them to follow their orientation.
important and the professional choice obtains the character of an allocation. Adherents to these allocation theories are Musgrave (1967) and Blau et al. (1956, cited in: Seifert, 1977: 231). Differential-psychological or personality-psychological approaches are based on the assumption that each person is suited to a certain profession due to his or her personality traits (Seifert, 1977: 176). The personality-psychological model can be traced back to an approach by Parsons. Additionally, the congruency theory of Holland (1959, cited in: Holland, 1963) can be ranked among the differential psychological approaches. According to Holland’s model, people can be assigned to six different types - or “model orientations” - by their personality, skills, aims and their life story. A careful analysis of a person’s “type” can optimize assignment to a profession. Different empirical studies support Holland’s thesis (e.g. Guilford, 1954; Holland, 1963).

Personality-psychological models are based on classifications of personality traits that are based on factor-analytical approaches. The most commonly-used personality type model in personality psychology is the five-factor model. It is based upon a lexical approach (Goldberg, 1993); based on the idea that the more our day-to-day language reflects key personality traits, the more significant these traits must be to define personalities. To this end, Allport & Odbert (1936) assembled an 18,000 personality term corpus from an unabbreviated English dictionary. 4,500 of these terms were classified as stable-personality traits. From this basis, Cattell (1947) used factor analyses to extract twelve personality factors. Five of the resulting factors were replicable (Goldberg, 1993) and were at first denoted by i) extraversion, ii) agreeableness, iii) conscientiousness, iv) neuroticism and v) culture. McCrae and Costa (1985; 1987) redefined the fifth factor as ‘openness to new experiences’. The five-factor model is still used in this form. The five-factor model was differentiated by Costa and McCrae (1992) to give the NEO-PI-R, a personality model with six sub-factors to each of the five factors: these are measured in a questionnaire with eight items per subfactor. For the survey presented here, however, personality is operationalized by the five factors of the traditional five-factor model because the data set only contains twenty items pertaining to personality.

Herzberg and Roth (2006) examined different types of people with respect to their personality factors and the five-factor model. Many empirical studies confirm the prognostic power of personality traits across diverse areas. Personality influences, e.g. academic performance, professional choice and income (Hogan, 1998: 4). Ozer & Benet-Martínez (2006) asserted that personality attributes, “are associated with happiness, physical and psychological health, spirituality, and identity at an individual level; associated with the quality of relationships with peers, family, and romantic-others at an interpersonal level; and associated with occupational choice, satisfaction, and performance” (Ozer, Benet-Martínez, 2006: 401).

Our study focuses especially on occupational choice. We want to analyse how personality traits and skills influence vocational choice and which effects might remain as generational influences.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data

For this study, we use data provided by the 30th version of the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP v30). The SOEP v30 is an annual representative panel survey of private German households that has been carried out since 1984. To date, 30 waves (1984-2013) of the survey exist, which are based on individuals and whole households. The SOEP survey comprises different questionnaires. For the present study, we focus on the youth questionnaire (DIW Berlin/SOEP 2013) and the corresponding data set “bioage17”. The youth questionnaire was piloted in 2000 and tested for two years. Since 2002 the youth questionnaire has been filled out by seventeen-year olds who were for the first time asked individually in a SOEP household. Expectations regarding career have been recorded since 2000. Leisure-activities have been recorded since 2001 except for internet usage, which has only been recorded since 2006. Also, personality features have only been assessed since 2006.

3.2 Operationalization

This section explains how the considered constructs were operationalized and how the variables were coded. We start with the dependent variables “vocational expectations” and “aspects of the career choice process” and continue to the independent variables.
### 3.2.1 Dependent variables

#### Vocational expectations

The career expectations of adolescents were inquired after in the SOEP questionnaire by the question “For your vocational choice - how important are: ...” and the following items: “Secure position”, “High Income”, “Career opportunities”, “Recognized profession”, “Stimulating tasks”, “Independent work”, “Leisure time”, “Contact to others”, “Importance to society”, “Working conditions”, “Time for family” and “Helping others”. The items were coded from “1 – very important” to “4 – very unimportant”, i.e. higher values show an item is of lesser importance.

#### Aspects of the career choice process

The decision-making process regarding profession was operationalized by five items in the questionnaire. Adolescents were expected to answer the item “How well informed are you about the profession you aim for?” on a four-level scale from “1 – very well informed” to “4 – not at all informed”. The process items “In the process of my vocational choice the suggestions of my parents are important”, “I have no special profession in mind, I wait to see what I am offered”, “I have long occupied myself with different vocational possibilities in order to make the right decision” and “I am still in the process of finding out about my skills and which profession suits me best” were also answered on a four-level scale ranging from “1 – I totally agree” to “4 – I do not agree at all”.

### 3.2.2 Independent variables

#### Gender

Gender was coded by “1” for men and “2” for women.

#### Type of school

In German mainstream education all pupils go to a regular primary school for the first four years (six to ten years old). After primary school the system splits into three different secondary school forms, the “Hauptschule” (five year duration), the “Realschule” (six year duration) and “Gymnasium” (eight or nine year duration). Pupil allocation to the school forms is principally based on their academic performance at primary school, with better-performing pupils joining the “Gymnasium”. Although changing between school forms is possible, it is still rare. Our study dummy codes the school form. As with six years of secondary school “Realschule” has a medium school attendance length, “Realschule” was set as the reference value in order to be able to see the effects of a longer or shorter school attendance on the dependent variables. All other school types, i.e. “Hauptschule”, “Gymnasium”, “Gesamtschule” (which is a school that combines all three classical types under one roof) and vocational school (which is a school apprentices visit parallel to their apprenticeship) were coded as dummy variables. The dummy variables were marked “1” when an adolescent attended the named relevant school form and “0” otherwise.

#### Leisure activities

The SOEP youth questionnaire encompasses different leisure activities, with answer possibilities ranging from “1 – every day” to “5 - never”. For this analysis, we formed dichotomous variables, thus: “exercising/sports every day” (yes/no), “making music every day” (yes/no), “reading every day” (yes/no), “using the computer every day (internet and/or computer games)” (yes/no), and “volunteering at least once a week” (yes/no).

#### Personality

Answers to the personality question “What kind of person are you?” with the items “I am somebody who ...” were assigned to the five-factor model, i.e. openness to new experiences, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (shown in Table 1). The item “I am somebody who is reserved” characterizes an introverted behavior, i.e. a non-extraverted behavior. It is therefore included with a reversed order of values in the dimension “extraversion”. The same holds true for “I am somebody who is sometimes a little rude”, which expresses a negative agreeableness, as well as for “I am somebody who is relaxed, can cope well with stress” as an expression of a negative neuroticism. In the youth questionnaire (DIW Berlin/SOEP 2013) the items were coded on a scale from “1 – does not ap-
ply at all” to “7 – fully applies”. A mean was calculated over the items of each dimension of the five-factor model.

The statistics were computed with the statistical software package SPSS (IBM® SPSS® 22.0.0). Two-tailed statistics are reported throughout, a p-value less than 0.05 (p<0.05) is considered significant. The survey has an exploratory nature, so no adaptation of the significance level has been made for the multiple test situation.

Means and rankings are reported for the descriptive statistics of vocational expectations. The “vocational expectations” items are of an ordinal scale. The variables are ascribed values (“very important”, “important”, “less important”, “not at all important”), which can however be regarded as being more or less equally spaced. The means and parametric tests, i.e. t-tests, in the inductive analyses are therefore considered to be reasonable. Additionally, medians are reported for some variables. The personality variables had values from “1 – does not apply at all” to “7 – applies fully”, with only the endpoints being depicted so that they can also be regarded as metric. The dimensions of the five-factor model were represented by the mean over all items fitting this factor. Leisure activities however, which had the values “every day”, “every week”, “every month”, “less often” and “never” could not be spaced at equal increments and were therefore dichotomized (see Section 4.5).

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to explain the adolescent expectations. The ingoing regressors were explained in section 4. Regression coefficients are denoted by “b”. The variance inflation factors ranged between 1 and 1.2 so that problems with multi-collinearity did not arise (e.g. Woolridge, 2013: 98).

The personality trait variables of the adolescents have only been recorded in the SOEP since 2006. Therefore, when these variables are included in a regression, only adolescents of the years 2006 to 2013 were considered. For comparison reasons, we conducted additional regression analyses without including the personality variables in the model.

It was the aim of this study to find out which time effects remain when all other factors have been explained. Additionally, the factors themselves can be time dependent. We therefore conducted logistic regression analyses for the dichotomous leisure activity variables, e.g. “Exercising/sports daily”, etc. In a logistic regression, the odds, i.e. the probability of the characteristic, e.g. “Exercising/sports daily” being given divided by the characteristic not being given, are estimated. The exponentiated coefficients of the regression give the odds ratio, indicating how much the odds change when the variable of interest changes by one unit.

In addition to the logistic regression analysis, chi-square tests on independency were carried out between the leisure activity dichotomous variables and other variables, like gender, school type and survey year. Rates are reported in this context.

### Table 1 Assignment of the items of the question “I am somebody who…” (DIW Berlin/SOEP 2013) to the factors of the five-factor model, (-): reversed order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item “I am somebody who ...”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O (openness)</td>
<td>is inventive, has new ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appreciates artistic and esthetic experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>has a lively imagination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>is thirsty for knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C (conscientiousness)</td>
<td>works thoroughly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fulfills tasks effectively and efficiently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E (extraversion)</td>
<td>is communicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>is sociable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>is reserved (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (agreeableness)</td>
<td>sometimes is a little rude (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>can forgive people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>treats others kindly and thoughtfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N (neuroticism)</td>
<td>often worries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gets nervous easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>is relaxed, can cope well with stress (-)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s mapping of items to the five-factor model

### 3.3 Statistical methods

The "vocational expectations" items are of an ordinal scale. The variables are ascribed values ("very important", “important”, “less important”, “not at all important”), which can however be regarded as being more or less equally spaced. The means and parametric tests, i.e. t-tests, in the inductive analyses are therefore considered to be reasonable. Additionally, medians are reported for some variables. The personality variables had values from “1 – does not apply at all” to “7 – applies fully”, with only the endpoints being depicted so that they can also be regarded as metric. The dimensions of the five-factor model were represented by the mean over all items fitting this factor. Leisure activities however, which had the values “every day”, “every week”, “every month”, “less often” and “never” could not be spaced at equal increments and were therefore dichotomized (see Section 4.5).

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In addition to the logistic regression analysis, chi-square tests on independency were carried out between the leisure activity dichotomous variables and other variables, like gender, school type and survey year. Rates are reported in this context.
4. Results

4447 adolescents (age seventeen) were questioned between 2000 and 2013 by the representative survey of the SOEP. From these 37.9% attended grammar school ("Gymnasium"), 22.1% the six-year secondary school ("Realschule"), 8.4% the five-year secondary school ("Hauptschule"), 6.3% a secondary school in which the three other school types are mixed ("Gesamtschule") and 20.6% vocational school. 4.0% of the adolescents did not go to school at the time of the interview.

The adolescents are generally well informed about their desired profession, with a median of “2 - well informed” (Mean: 1.66). Young people who go to the five-year secondary school ("Hauptschule"), to vocational school or who do not go to school have a median of “1 - very well informed”. This is due to two factors; first, the fact that at "Hauptschule" the decision is more present, because they would leave school at or shortly after the time of the interview and, secondly, that vocational school students already made their first decision at their transition from the general school system.

Table 2 Means for the importance of certain aspects of professional life as well as ranking of items in the years 2000 and 2013 and in total, (“1 – very important” to “4 – totally unimportant”), * - p<0,05 for the t-test on differences for the mean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2000 Mean</th>
<th>2000 Ranking</th>
<th>2013 Mean</th>
<th>2013 Ranking</th>
<th>Total Mean</th>
<th>Total Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secure position</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Income</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career opportunities</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognized profession</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure time</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating tasks</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent work</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact to others</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.98*</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance to society</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for family</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.82*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping others</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s calculations based on the 30th version of the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP v30)
Table 3 Regression coefficients of significant regressors for the items concerning vocational expectations (*** - p<0.001; ** - p<0.01; *-p<0.05)

| Source: Author's calculations based on the 30th version of the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP v30) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Secure position | High Income | Career opportun. | Recogn. profession | Stim. tasks | Indep. work |
| Year of survey | 0.012* | - | - | - | - | - |
| Gender | - | 0.130*** | 0.128*** | - | - | - |
| Do sports | - | - | -0.105* | -0.100* | - | - |
| Make music | - | 0.082* | - | - | - | - |
| Read | - | - | - | - | -0.09** | - |
| Computer | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Volunteer | - | - | - | - | - | -0.087* |
| Hauptschule | - | - | - | 0.14* | - | - |
| Gesamtschule | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Voc. school | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| No school | 0.15* | - | 0.242** | - | - | - |
| Gymnasium | 0.091* | - | 0.231*** | 0.156** | -0.107** | - |
| Openness | - | - | - | -0.049* | -0.08*** | -0.092*** |
| Conscientiousness | -0.068*** | - | -0.074*** | -0.077*** | - | -0.039* |
| Extraversion | -0.047*** | -0.051*** | -0.097*** | -0.047** | - | -0.046** |
| Agreeableness | - | 0.048** | - | - | -0.053*** | - |
| Neuroticism | -0.045*** | - | - | - | - | - |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure time</th>
<th>Contact to others</th>
<th>Import. to society</th>
<th>Working conditions</th>
<th>Time for family</th>
<th>Helping others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year of survey</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.018*</td>
<td>-0.019**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.328***</td>
<td>-0.104**</td>
<td>-0.072*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do sports</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make music</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.084*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.092*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.105*</td>
<td>-0.195***</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hauptschule</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.243**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gesamtschule</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. school</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No school</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnasium</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.126*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.098*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.055**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>0.062***</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.055***</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.204***</td>
<td>-0.081***</td>
<td>-0.027*</td>
<td>-0.04**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
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<td>-0.127***</td>
<td>-0.082***</td>
<td>-0.068***</td>
<td>-0.092***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.037**</td>
<td>-0.059***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows the means and rankings of the different expectation items regarding future profession reported by adolescents between the years 2000 (n=229) and 2013 (n=256), as well as the total means. “A secure position” ranked best overall during this period, followed by “stimulating tasks”. These two items switched importance between 2000 and 2013. Most other aspects of professional life remained stable in their ranking; neither did they change much in their absolute values. Examples are “high income” and “career opportunities” which figure at ranks six and seven. Both items, however, still had a mean above 2 and a median of 2 (in our rating “2” stands for “important”). “Importance to society” and “leisure time” figured on the lowest ranks with “importance to society” becoming more valuable in 2013. The ranking of the items “contact to others” and “time for family” changed considerably. “Contact to others” became less important (change of the mean by 0.15; \( p=0.042 \)) for the adolescents while “time for family” (change of the mean by -0.16; \( p=0.012 \)) became much more important.

The effect of gender is high for several items. Women indicate more often that a “high income” (\( b=0.13 \)) and “career opportunities” (\( b=0.128 \)) are less important to them, with a very high significance (\( p<0.001 \)). On the other hand “contact to others” (\( b=-0.328 \)) and the possibility to “help others” (\( b=-0.288 \)) are significantly more important to them (each: \( p<0.001 \)). Additionally, young women place great value in their profession being “important to society” (\( p=0.009 \)) and having “good working conditions” (\( p=0.025 \)). We can therefore see that, even today, women meet common stereotypes, and tend to choose a caring profession over a high-income position.

As far as personality traits are concerned it is striking that extraverted adolescents assign a higher importance to all items except for “leisure time”. This is also true for “stimulating tasks”, but the effect is not as prominent (see appendix, Table 5). The reason why extraverted youngsters give more importance to almost all items might be that they are in general less timid when stating their preferences and opinions. The more conscientious an adolescent is, the greater the agreement to career-oriented characteristics like “career opportunities”, a “recognized profession” and a “secure position” (each: \( p<0.001 \)). Additionally, as conscientiousness increases, so does the importance of “independent work” (\( p=0.02 \)) and “working conditions” (\( p<0.001 \)), while “leisure time” is less important (\( p<0.001 \)). More conscientious adolescents do not seem to associate “leisure time” with their profession. Adolescents who rank high on the “openness to new experiences” factor feel that a “recognized profession” (\( p=0.015 \)), “stimulating tasks” (\( p<0.001 \)), “independent work” (\( p<0.001 \)) and “importance to society” (\( p=0.009 \)) are significantly more important than for people with lower “openness” scores. It is remarkable that career-oriented aspects of the vocation do not show high importance for highly agreeable respondents. Significantly, a “high income” is even less important (\( p=0.004 \)) to people with higher agreeableness than to those with lower agreeableness scores. Furthermore, aspects like “stimulating tasks” (\( p=0.001 \), “contact to others”, “importance to society” and “helping others” are more important to agreeable respondents (each \( p<0.001 \)). There is a correlation between the importance of work-life-balance (items like “working conditions” and “time for family”, each \( p<0.001 \)) and the agreeableness of respondents. More neurotic adolescents rate a “secure position” (\( p<0.001 \), “working conditions” (\( p=0.006 \)) and “time for family” (\( p<0.001 \)) as well as the possibility “to help others” (\( p<0.001 \)) as important.

As far as school type is concerned, grammar school students indicate that “stimulating tasks” are most important to them, followed by a “secure position”, while for all other school types “secure position”, a “recognized profession” and “career opportunities” are significantly more important than for their male peers.

As far as personality traits are concerned it is striking that extraverted adolescents assign a higher importance to all items except for “leisure time”. This is also true for “stimulating tasks”, but the effect is not as prominent (see appendix, Table 5). The reason why extraverted youngsters give more importance to almost all items might be that they are in general less timid when stating their preferences and opinions. The more conscientious an adolescent is, the greater the agreement to career-oriented characteristics like “career opportunities”, a “recognized profession” and a “secure position” (each: \( p<0.001 \)). Additionally, as conscientiousness increases, so does the importance of “independent work” (\( p=0.02 \)) and “working conditions” (\( p<0.001 \)), while “leisure time” is less important (\( p<0.001 \)). More conscientious adolescents do not seem to associate “leisure time” with their profession. Adolescents who rank high on the “openness to new experiences” factor feel that a “recognized profession” (\( p=0.015 \)), “stimulating tasks” (\( p<0.001 \)), “independent work” (\( p<0.001 \)) and “importance to society” (\( p=0.009 \)) are significantly more important than for people with lower “openness” scores. It is remarkable that career-oriented aspects of the vocation do not show high importance for highly agreeable respondents. Significantly, a “high income” is even less important (\( p=0.004 \)) to people with higher agreeableness than to those with lower agreeableness scores. Furthermore, aspects like “stimulating tasks” (\( p=0.001 \), “contact to others”, “importance to society” and “helping others” are more important to agreeable respondents (each \( p<0.001 \)). There is a correlation between the importance of work-life-balance (items like “working conditions” and “time for family”, each \( p<0.001 \)) and the agreeableness of respondents. More neurotic adolescents rate a “secure position” (\( p<0.001 \), “working conditions” (\( p=0.006 \)) and “time for family” (\( p<0.001 \)) as well as the possibility “to help others” (\( p<0.001 \)) as important.
After controlling for all other factors, the survey year remains significant for the items “secure position” \((p=0.042)\), “importance for society” \((p=0.026)\), “working conditions” \((p=0.004)\) and “helping others” \((p=0.004)\). The “secure position” has become less important to adolescents during the time considered. The three other aspects have gained importance over the thirteen year study duration. This result remains when the personality factors and the use of computers that only have been recorded since 2006 were eliminated from the regression. The significance of survey year to the “importance to society” item even increases in this case \((p=0.001)\).

Furthermore, the variable “volunteering at least once a week” also changed with the survey year. The logistic regression gave a change in the odds for “volunteering at least once a week” of 1.069 for every year. In effect, the rates of adolescents volunteering rose from 9.7% in 2001 to 32.4% in 2010. After 2010 the rate then fell to about 16% again. Voluntary work is mostly done by grammar school pupils; from this population 38.5% engaged voluntarily while only 8.3% of “Hauptschule” students and 21.8% of “Realschule” students did so (rates over the whole period of 2001 to 2013, \(p<0.001\) in a chi-square test). We find it slightly surprising that male respondents worked voluntarily a little more often (17.5%) than female respondents (15.8%), however, statistically insignificant \((p=0.089)\). Since “volunteering at least once a week” and the survey year affect the same vocational expectation variables, the effects result in a larger change over time. More recent respondents have higher expectations regarding “importance to society” and being able to “help others”. For “making music every day” the odds changed significantly by 1.08 with each further survey year. Furthermore, the variable “volunteering at least once a week” also changed with the survey year. The logistic regression gave a change in the odds for “volunteering at least once a week” of 1.069 for every year. In effect, the rates of adolescents volunteering rose from 9.7% in 2001 to 32.4% in 2010. After 2010 the rate then fell to about 16% again. Voluntary work is mostly done by grammar school pupils; from this population 38.5% engaged voluntarily while only 8.3% of “Hauptschule” students and 21.8% of “Realschule” students did so (rates over the whole period of 2001 to 2013, \(p<0.001\) in a chi-square test). We find it slightly surprising that male respondents worked voluntarily a little more often (17.5%) than female respondents (15.8%), however, statistically insignificant \((p=0.089)\). Since “volunteering at least once a week” and the survey year affect the same vocational expectation variables, the effects result in a larger change over time. More recent respondents have higher expectations regarding “importance to society” and being able to “help others”. For “making music every day” the odds changed significantly by 1.08 with each further survey year. Similarly to the voluntary work there was a rise from 7.3% of respondents making music every day in 2001 to 35% in 2010 (in the mean about 30% in the years 2007 to 2010). The rate then fell to 14.7% in 2012 and 8.6% in 2013 again. However, making music did not affect the same vocational expectation variables as were affected by the survey year. “Doing sports every day” and “reading every day” were not significantly affected by the survey year. As expected, “using the computer every day (internet and/or computer games)” was the most affected by the survey year, with a change in the odds of 1.309 for each following year \((p<0.001)\). Adolescent internet usage has rapidly risen in recent years. While in 2006 20.4% of the respondents still answered that they would...
never use the internet, this number fell to 0.8% in 2013 (once a month or less: 2.8%). The rate of adolescents that used the computer every day, i.e. either for computer games or for surfing the internet rose from 47.9% in 2006 to 85.9% in 2013. There is a huge imbalance between boys and girls with regard to computer usage. Over the whole time period of 2006 to 2013 42.9% of the boys and only 8.6% of the girls answered that they use the computer every day (p<0.001). This ratio holds for every year in the survey. However, as mentioned above, computer use did not affect vocational expectations. The personality traits were stable across the time period.

5. Discussion

Adolescents in this representative study from 2000 to 2013 stated that they were rather well-informed about the professions they were going to choose. Except for a reversion of the ranks for “contact to others” and “time for family” the rank order of important items was relatively stable over time.

A “secure position” ranked highest in the total sample, with a slight loss of importance in the subsample of 2013. However, a difference could be seen between boys and girls, where for girls a “secure position” only ranked second after “stimulating tasks”. The same is true for grammar school pupils. While for other school types a “secure position” was the most important item, grammar school pupils (“Gymnasium”) and the Gesamtschule ranked “stimulating tasks” higher. These results correlate well with the results of Berger, Brandes and Walden (2000, cited in: Moser, Senden, 2014) who conducted a study of 7,000 pupils and found that for grammar school pupils a “profession that suits one’s skills” ranks before “interesting tasks” and “a secure position”. The item “secure position” has changed the most between generations X and Y. Although the ranking of a “secure position” has remained the same, in our study “a secure position” was only judged as “very important” with a rate of 58%. “Contact to others” was rated moderately high in the Saterdag and Kraft study; it was chosen as “very important” by 24% of the boys and by 43% of the girls. The same is true for our study with the “very important” operationalization, with nearly the same numbers. A “high income” was on a low rank in the Saterdag and Kraft study, with only 28% of the boys and 16% of the girls rating it as “very important”, something which is reflected in our study. A “highly recognized profession” figured lower in the 1977 study (boys: 9%, girls: 5%). This may be partly due to a different question formulation; “a vocation being highly recognized by family and friends”. The item “secure position” has changed the most between generations X and Y. Although the ranking of a “secure position” has remained unchanged, it has, however, become less important in absolute terms.

For the present study, “importance to society” and “helping others” did not change in rank order during the years 2000 to 2013, although they did change in absolute values. These numbers seem to indicate a change in the attitudes of young people over the analyzed time period. Volunteers expected a profession to be “important to society” and to give them the opportunity to “help others”. The proportion of volunteers did indeed rise in the years 2000 to 2010. This change in attitude was not, however, exclusive to volunteers, since our analysis showed that survey year had an extra influence on both items.
6. Conclusion

It was the aim of the paper to find out about the generation effect, i.e. the time effect on vocational expectations after having controlled for possible other influencing factors. The effects of gender, school type, personality and leisure activities have been elucidated in the discussion. After controlling for these factors, time remained significant for a “secure position” which became less important, while “working conditions”, “importance for society” and “helping others” became more important. Thus, for generation Y a trend towards higher valuation of one’s individual social responsibility can be noticed. The question of human resources managers cited in the introduction of “how to bind members of generation Y to companies” could thus be answered in this direction. Employers who offer jobs to members of generation Y could stress the potential of their companies and offer jobs in which the individual might “make a contribution to society”.

The data was limited to the years 2000 to 2013. It would have been interesting to use the same data for a longer time span to be able to not only compare the time effect within generation Y but also between different generations. Unfortunately, the youth questionnaire was launched only in the year 2000. Since our study relied on secondary data, there was also no possibility to further elucidate adolescents’ reasons for particular choices. The reasons for the change in values of adolescents remain an open question. In future research, additional qualitative interviews could help illuminate the world views of young people.
References


**Table 4 Ranks for the importance of certain aspects of professional life for young men and women as well as for different school types (“Haupt.” – five-year-“Hauptschule”, “Real.” – six-year-“Realschule”, “Gym.” – eight-year-“Gymnasium”, “voc. school” – “vocational school”)**

<table>
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<th></th>
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<td>9</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s calculations based on the 30th version of the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP v30)
Table 5 Regression coefficients of all regressors for the vocational expectations (*** - p<0.001; ** - p<0.01; *-p<0.05)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secure position</th>
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<th>Recogn. profession</th>
<th>Stimulating tasks</th>
<th>Indep. work</th>
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<td>-0.100*</td>
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</tr>
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### Table 1: Leisure time and Its Relation to Various Factors

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Leisure time</th>
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*Source: Author’s calculations based on the 30th version of the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP v30)*
Table 6 Regression coefficients for the profession finding process (**p < 0.001; *p < 0.01; p < 0.05)

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<td>0.034</td>
<td>-0.042*</td>
<td>-0.082***</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-0.192*</td>
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<td>-0.184</td>
<td>0.075</td>
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Source: Author's calculations based on the 30th version of the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP v30)
Kirsten Wüst

Zanimljivi zadaci, neovisnost ili doprinos društvu - očekivanja generacije Y u vezi sa zanimanjem

Sažetak

Odabir zanimanja složen je proces i često utječe na više područja budućega života pojedinca. U reprezentativnoj studiji analizirali smo podatke o 4447 njemačkih sedamnaestogodišnjaka koji su intervjuirani u razdoblju od 2000. do 2013. Cilj studije bilo je utvrditi utjecaj spola, vrste škole, osobnosti i aktivnosti u slobodno vrijeme na očekivanja u vezi sa zanimanjem, kao i na stadije izbora budućega zvanja kod generacije Y. Osobito se pokušalo utvrditi koji se utjecaj zadržao kao generacijski vremenski utjecaj nakon kontrole navedenih varijabli. U okviru analize izračunati su pokazatelji deskriptivne statistike za ordinalna obilježja, kao i aritmetičke sredine, te je primijenjena linearna i logistička regresijska analiza. Uključenost u različite aktivnosti u slobodno vrijeme, spol i vrsta obrazovanja imaju velik utjecaj na percipiranu važnost karakteristika zanimanja. Dok djevojke općenito i učenici njemačkih gimnazija na prvo mjesto stavljaju „zanimljive zadatke“, mladići i učenici ostalih škola smatraju da je najvažniji „siguran položaj“. Nadalje, čimbenici osobnosti utječu na percipiranu važnost karakteristika zanimanja, tako da prijateljski raspoloženi i ekstrovertirani adolescenti daju znatno veće ocjene svojstvima „kontakt s ljudima“, „doprinos društvu“, „pomaganje drugima“ i sličnima. Nakon kontrole navedenih varijabli zadržala se značajna korelacija između godine anketiranja i termina „siguran položaj“ koji je postao manje važan, te termina „radni uvjeti“, „doprinos društvu“ i „pomaganje drugima“, od kojih su sva tri postala važnija. Prema tome, uočava se trend pridavanja veće važnosti osobnoj društvenoj odgovornosti.

Ključne riječi: izbor zanimanja, očekivanja, adolescenti, generacija Y