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Reasons full-time students of economics in Poland undertake jobs

1. Introduction

Observations of the behavior of full-time students at economics universities in Poland reveals that a significant percentage of these students combine studying with working in gainful employment (Jarecki, 2010; Ostoj, 2015). The determinants related to the supply of labor for a typical worker is relatively well researched, both in terms of the significance of the compensation levels and the role of other factors that are sources of utility to a worker (Marshall, 1961; Pigou, 1933; Ehrenberg and Smith, 2012; Bartel, 1980; Herzberg, 1987; Mathios, 1989; Ophem, 1991). However, there is a lack of research and theorization concerning the decision-making mechanisms of full-time students choosing to combine studying with work.

This article aims to investigate the determinants and motivations behind full-time students of economics in Poland deciding to take a job. The assumption proposed in this article is that an employment-seeking student may see work primarily as a source of income, or he/she may alternatively wish to gain professional experience that would make it easier for him/her to enter the labor market in the future. A combination of these two motivations is also possible. This article presents verification of the research hypothesis that, in the current conditions in Poland, students tend to manifest attitudes similar to a typical worker, while they are less likely to behave like individuals investing in human capital. The author conducted an in-depth study into the reasons for taking up work and the criteria that were of greatest importance to students when accepting a specific job offer. Particular emphasis was placed on the role of financial incentives as opposed to professional development-related motivations. This article presents and discusses

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the results of the survey created by the author and conducted among full-time students enrolled in a master's program of economics at the University of Economics in Katowice during the years of 2014–2016.

The article comprises four parts. The first part discusses the theoretical considerations of the micro-economic determinants of the individual labor supply decision (both the financial and non-financial incentives) relevant to the interpretation of the students' behavior. The second part presents the Polish socio-economic reality conducive to combining studying and working. The third part characterizes the survey, and the fourth part presents the results of the survey.

2. Determinants of individual labor supply decision – literature review

The drivers of the individual supply of labor of typical worker are well-researched in the literature. In micro-economic terms, the classic income-leisure choice model (Marshall, 1961; Pigou, 1933; Ehrenberg and Smith, 2012) proposes that the level of real remuneration (as the source of utility from consumption) is the primary determinant of an individual's decision to supply labor. According to this approach, the number of working hours grows proportionally with an increasing hourly rate. As a result, we can observe a positively sloped labor supply curve. Another model is a bending individual labor supply curve, implying that the number of hours the worker is prepared to work decreases beyond a certain hourly rate. This hourly rate is determined as the point when the marginal utility of the goods acquired with each extra hour of work meets the marginal utility of a leisure hour. A variety of other factors determining the individual labor supply decision include the level of fixed costs involved in taking up employment (e.g., commuting costs or household costs), the amount of income from non-wage sources, or changes in leisure-time preferences. Taking into account the level of remuneration for the analysis of individual labor supply decisions, one may refer to the reservation wage model within the framework of the job search theory (new microeconomics). According to this model, a job searcher defines his or her lowest acceptable level of income and, among the offers that satisfy this condition, compares the expected marginal benefits with the marginal costs of the job search (Mortensen, 1986).

This theory is usually applied to the unemployed, who are entitled to unemployment benefits or have no income at all. When applied to students, the assumptions are different, as they tend to remain financially dependent on their parents, obtain scholarships, or get student loans¹. Therefore, as they have a certain

¹ Student loans in Poland are rarely taken out, so the reference in the paper is purely theoretical.

level of income already and a limited amount of time to search, students will set a lower preference level of minimum income, which raises the employers' interest in employing them.

Ehrenberg and Smith (2012, p. 504) describe a model of a choice of a reservation wage, which is applicable when we assume that students' qualifications rise after each year of studies, which may increase the reservation wage as an additional source of income. Prasad (2003) provides the results of research that exhibits a negative relationship between the reservation-offer wage ratio and skill level. This phenomenon was explained as a pursuit to prevent human capital depreciation among highly-qualified people who cannot find jobs.

Apart from the neoclassical model or reservation wage model, there are alternative approaches accounting for other benefits from employment; for example, professional development and the opportunity to gain relevant experience, which constitutes a form of human capital investment. In principle, they indicate the need to take a more comprehensive view of the utility of work, which cannot be reduced to the utility from the consumption of goods (Bartel, 1980; Kunze and Suppa, 2013).

One of the models that takes a comprehensive view of the utility of work is Herzberg's (1987) two-factor theory, identifying hygiene factors that, when realized at certain levels, reduce the dissatisfaction of work (e.g., job security, salary, interpersonal relationships) and motivators – contributing directly to job satisfaction (e.g., challenging work, development and promotion opportunities). The model was developed based on a study conducted among white-collar workers (which attracted criticism due to its limited scope); however, for the purpose of describing the potential utility that students may derive from their work, it may be considered adequate.

Mathios (1989) argued that the pay differences among people pursuing education for a longer period of time (more than 16 years) were greater, but the role of non-financial incentives was more significant. This is connected with a generally higher level of remuneration and job security in this group, which leads to a greater role of non-financial incentives. A good example of the concept of the determinants of the labor supply decision is also the extended theory of job search proposed by Ophem (1991), who pointed out that it was not only the unemployed who searched for jobs but also those in employment seeking new positions.

These conditions correspond with the characteristics of the researched group better because they usually have some source of income. According to Ophem, both the current and anticipated levels of remuneration accompanied by non-financial incentives have an impact on the decisions made by the employed to seek a new job.

Irrespective of the attraction of the approaches underlining a variety of dimensions of the utility of work, research is still being conducted into the influence of hourly rate maximization on labor supply. This is confirmed by empirical studies (Blau, 1991).

All of these reasons also undoubtedly play a role in the case of labor supplied by students; however, the models discussed above are insufficient for an in-depth analysis of the supply of labor of full-time students because they assume that an individual's labor-related activity is a natural phenomenon, indispensable in the process of need fulfillment. This may also apply to students; but at the same time, they are supported by their parents (at least in part) and have access to student grants and loans, so their motivations are more complex. A student intending to start a job has to plan his/her day to allocate time for classes at the university, class preparation at home, doing paid work, as well as rest and leisure. The problem is the absence of relevant studies into this phenomenon.

The number of hours spent at a university is linked with each specific degree program and the extent to which student attendance is required by a teacher. The amount of time devoted to home study in preparation for classes was researched by McMullen (2011), but he examined American students. He discovered, for example, that the number of hours spent on home study went up in line with a growing minimum wage, higher unemployment rates, and increased education intensity of the local industries (measured with an average education level among workers in a particular industry), whereas it fell when tuition fees increased.

These results were valid across the entire respondent population, although they manifested some diversification due to family background and the US state. These results, however, are of little value when it comes to the analysis of the behavior of Polish students, because full-time students pursuing education in public universities in Poland do not pay for tuition.

A minimum wage may affect them as prospective pay only, since they do not have a regular employment contract when they are employed as students; therefore, it does not apply to them (this was the case until the end of 2016, which is covered later in the article). The situation in the labor market in terms of the unemployment rate may have an impact when the rate is high among graduates and young people, especially if lack of experience is a barrier to finding employment. Then, a growing unemployment rate may encourage students to seek employment during their studies.

The identification of the motivations behind students' decisions to seek employment will reveal similarities and differences concerning the determinants of taking up gainful employment for students and regular workers. The analysis, however, should take into account specific socio-economic conditions under which such decisions are made.

3. Conditions conducive to combining full-time studies with employment by students in Poland

It can be argued that the phenomenon of combining studies with employment is observed in many countries (Eurostudent V, 2012–2015, p. 99). It usually concerns students from poorer families who are unable to finance their children's higher education, irrespective of whether education is free or paid. This problem normally affects a small percentage of students, and the work cannot interfere with studying and is performed at the cost of a student's leisure time (Schultz, 2014, p. 117; Jarecki, 2010; Marszałek, 2012). The phenomenon analyzed in this article, however, has a much wider scope. As the published research results indicate, it may even concern the majority of students (especially those in master's degree programs), and the income from employment may constitute as much as 70% of the total income of this group during their final year at the university (Jarecki, 2011, pp. 179–182). Moreover, in most countries, students who work do not tend to live with their relatives. In Poland, this factor is of minor significance and concerns all students to some extent (Eurostudent V, 2012–2015, p. 104).

The determinants of this phenomenon should be studied both in terms of supply and demand in the labor market. For students to be able to find employment, the economy must need workers to meet particular criteria. It might seem that students who are less flexible in terms of the time they have available for work will have difficulty finding employment. In Poland, however, job adverts run by employers in newspapers often explicitly require students for specific positions. This is caused by the lower costs involved in employing a student rather than a regular worker. Although in the case of employing a student based on a regular employment contract, the employer incurs the same costs as with a regular employee because all of the types of social insurance and health insurance apply to students as well. However, an employer can enter a different kind of agreement with a student; for example, a contract work agreement (or agency contract, contract on service provision), which generates much lower costs provided the students has not yet turned 26 (Ustawa z dnia 13 października 1998... Art. 6.1, Item 4). In such cases, the employer does not have to pay social insurance contributions for the students that they employ, and they do not have to be registered with the social insurance institution. Until the end of 2016, regulations concerning remuneration for workers employed based on such contracts did not exist. On January 1, 2017, a minimum pre-tax hourly rate for contract work was established at PLN 13, which will change employment arrangements in the future. In fact, it is related to the minimum wage under a regular employment contract (Ustawa z dnia 22 lipca 2016... Art. 1). Employers can also use a range of flexible working time arrangements, which is an extra incentive for students.

The supply of the labor of students is shaped by actual opportunities to combine studying and work. This depends on the kind of degree program and its time intensity. This article focuses on a specific field of study; this being economics, which is relatively less time-intensive and requires few laboratory classes/tutorials. Additionally, a university may often arrange the timetable in such a way so as to allow students to save time and money on commuting; thus, classes are scheduled for 3–4 days a week.

Another factor is the demographic low. During the years of 2005/2006, Poland had 1,953,800 students, whereas during 2016/2017, there were only 1,405,100 (28% fewer). This is despite a high percentage of secondary school students pursuing tertiary education, amounting to 53% in the 19–24 age group during the academic year of 2015/2016 (GUS, 2016, pp. 341, 343). At that time, universities did not reduce their potential, operating also as scientific research institutions. As a consequence, they had to compete for students, especially in light of the tertiary education financing system that linked the amount of the subsidy for teaching purposes with the number of students. This caused universities to aim at keeping the number of students high. In 2017, these regulations were changed, but the period of time under analysis in this article concerns the conditions prior to this change.

Students' decisions may also have been affected by the general situation in the labor market, including the unemployment rate in the entire population and (especially) among university graduates. According to the Labor Force Survey, the unemployment rate reached 9.8% over the entire population and 23.8% among university graduates aged up to 30 in the third quarter of 2013, whereas in the corresponding period of 2016, the general unemployment rate was 5.9% and 17.7% for the group of university graduates aged up to 30 (GUS, 2014, p. 85; 2016, p. 125). The situation in the labor market improved within this period, but the situation of university graduates remained relatively worse when compared to other demographic groups. This might have been another incentive for students to seek employment while still at a university.

The phenomena discussed above created a combination of circumstances conducive to students' decisions to seek employment during the course of their studies.

4. Description of survey

The scale of the phenomenon of combining studies with work observed in Poland became the inspiration for conducting a survey among the students of the University of Economics in Katowice. The survey was developed and carried out by the author of this article. It did not have any financial backing. It can be viewed as

a pioneer project in this field, and the presentation of a part of its results aims to achieve the goals of this article. The study made an attempt to, *inter alia*, identify the motivations behind seeking gainful employment while attending a university. The factors taken into account were both financial and non-financial, referring to the theory of individual labor supply decision; however, they were adapted to the conditions that affect Polish students' decision on their employment.

The survey included all of the first-year students in the full-time master's degree program in economics at the Faculty of Economics of the University of Economics in Katowice. Accordingly, they were all bachelor degree holders pursuing further education in master's degree programs. The survey was conducted in three consecutive years – in January and March of 2014, in January of 2015, and in January and February of 2016. The survey was carried out with the use of an anonymous paper-based questionnaire. The use of this technique ensured a 100% collection rate. The questionnaire contained 17 questions; however, due to the issue under discussion in the article, only some of them will be included in the analysis. These comprise two multiple-choice questions targeting all of the respondents and two questions addressed to working respondents only, including one multiple-choice question and one ranking question.

In 2014, the survey was taken by 129 respondents, and 124 correctly completed questionnaires were returned. In 2015, there were 194 respondents who completed 192 questionnaires correctly, while in 2016, the survey had 116 respondents with 115 returning correctly completed questionnaires. The survey was comprised of all of the students who were present on the day of the survey (which was chosen in a manner ensuring maximum turnout). In Poland, full-time programs at public universities are free, so all of the respondents were pursuing a free education. The sample was homogenous in terms of age (about 23 years of age) but was diverse in terms of gender. In 2014, among the respondents who correctly completed the questionnaire, there were 89 women (71%) and 35 men (29%). In 2015, the respective figures were 129 (67%) and 63 (33%), while in 2016 – 86 (75%) and 29 (25%). There was a distinct majority of women in each year – the highest was in 2016. The author chose not to break the results down by gender due to such a significant disproportion between women and men, since the subpopulation of working men would be too small. However, it does not seem to have an impact on the results of the research. For instance, in the part of the Eurostudent research regarding the students' employment, distinction by gender is not applied.

A critical element of the study was the identification of the group of students who worked at the time of the survey or had had a paying job prior to the survey. Table 1 presents the breakdown of the researched population by status based on the supply of labor.

Table 1
Breakdown of respondents by job status

Job status	2014		2015		2016	
	No.	[%]	No.	[%]	No.	[%]
I do not work and have never worked before	42	34	53	28	18	16
I used to work	17	14	44	23	34	30
I work	31	25	51	26	36	31
I run a business	0	0	6	3	0	0
I work part-time (weekends, summer break)	34	27	38	20	27	24
Total	124	100	192	100	115	100

Source: Author's survey

At the time of the survey in 2014, 52% of the respondents worked. In 2015, 49% of the respondents worked or ran their own businesses, while 54% of the students worked in paying jobs in 2016. The percentage of working students was similar to the figure that was the result of a survey conducted at the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Management at the University of Szczecin in 2008/2009, which revealed that 48% of economics students earned income from employment during the course of the academic year (Jarecki, 2010). On the other hand, this is higher than in the survey among university graduates conducted by the Institute of Labor and Social Studies (IPiSS) in 2012, which put the figure at 44% (IPiSS, e-Dialog, 2012, pp. 10–12) and in the nationwide study carried out by the Polish Agency for Enterprise Development (PARP) in 2013, treating economics and administration students as one group and putting the percentage of working students at 45% (Jelonek et al., 2014, p. 40).

It is also worth noting the percentage of the respondents who had any experience of working in a paying job (at the time of or prior to the survey). In 2014, this number was 66%. In 2015, it was 72%, while in 2016 – 85%. This clearly indicates that the vast majority of the respondents had already experienced their first job.

5. Results of survey

All of the respondents in the sample were asked for their opinions about the reasons why full-time students took up gainful employment. Their answers referred both to financial motivation and professional experience (Tab. 2). The respondent was to choose one of the proposed answers or formulate their own reply.

Table 2

Breakdown of responses to following question: What do you think is the most important reason full-time students find employment?

Reason	2014		2015		2016	
	No.	[%]	No.	[%]	No.	[%]
Financial motivation	78	63	112	58	80	70
Awareness of the need to gain professional experience	40	32	69	36	28	24
Little chance of being awarded scholarship	–	–	3	2	2	2
Following the example of older friends	–	–	2	1	–	–
Pressure from the media and environment on developing practical skills	3	2.5	6	3	5	4
Other, what?.....	3	2.5	–	–	–	–
Very low scholarship	1	–	–	–	–	–
Low grants that are insufficient for a student to support him/herself without parental assistance	1	–	–	–	–	–
Depends on the kind of job	1	–	–	–	–	–
Total	124	100	192	100	115	100

Source: Author's survey

Based on the opinions expressed by the entire sample, the survey results clearly confirm the dominance of financial motivation behind full-time students seeking employment. This dominance was highest in 2016. Even when you examine other reasons (2014), income-related causes were given; for example, low grants and scholarships. Another important factor was the awareness of the need to gain professional experience. This was indicated by almost a third of the respondents in 2014 and 36% in 2015 but by less than a quarter in 2016, which shows that this motivation lost importance according to the respondents. In the opinion of only a few students in 2015 and 2016, another reason was pressure from the media on developing practical skills. Additionally, the percentage of the respondents sharing

this opinion grew from year to year. It should also be added that the results of this part of the survey did not differ greatly from the above based on job status. In 2016, financial motivation as the main reason behind finding employment was chosen by nearly 73% of the respondents who worked at the time of the survey or prior to it and by 63% of the respondents who had never worked; in 2015, these figures were 56% and 62%, respectively, and in 2016 – 63 and 62%, respectively (the data comes from the survey and was not included in the table).

The breakdown of the answers to the above question gives a general picture of the students' opinions, which were shaped by observation and experience. The most important motivations, however, were those declared by the working students.

The students who worked or ran their own businesses at the time of the survey were asked about the real motivations behind their decision to seek employment. Each respondent was able to reflect on their own situation and motivation behind their choices. The breakdown of the responses is presented in Table 3 (93 out of 95 respondents working in 2015 correctly completed the relevant part of the questionnaire, while in 2016 – 62 out of 63).

Table 3
Breakdown of responses to following question:
What was the main motivation behind your decision to seek employment?

Motivation	2014		2015		2016	
	No.	[%]	No.	[%]	No.	[%]
Financial motivation	31	48	45	48	32	52
Willingness to gain professional experience	3	5	10	11	8	13
Financial motivation combined with gaining professional experience	29	45	33	35	20	32
Finding a job that would be continued after graduation	1	1.5	1	2	1	1.5
Following the example of friends and acquaintances	–	–	–	–	1	1.5
Other, what?	1	1.5	4	4	–	–
Pursuing interests	1	1.5	–	–	–	–
Helping out in a family business	–	–	1	1	–	–
Need to manage leisure time	–	–	1	1	–	–
Passion and financial independence	–	–	2	2	–	–
Total	65	100	93	100	62	100

Source: Author's survey

In the group of working students participating in the survey, nearly half in 2014 and 2015 and more than a half in 2016 chose financial motivation as the main reason for seeking employment. This was definitely the dominant motivation. Only 5% of the working students in 2014 and a little more – 11% in 2015 and 13% in 2016 – were driven by the willingness to gain professional experience. If considered through the prism of graduation within the next one and a half years, this figure is really small. On the other hand, a positive sign is the fact that this percentage grew from year to year. A significant percentage of the respondents chose a combination of the need to earn some income with the need to gain professional experience (as many as 45% in 2014, 35% in 2015, and 32% in 2016). Other responses were given by one respondent only, including the decision to seek employment that might continue after graduation.

It should be assumed that the students made a thorough assessment involving the consideration of all of the information about the available positions prior to the decision to accept a particular job. Hence, the respondents were asked to rank seven criteria according to their importance in the next part of the survey. The most important criterion was to be ranked as first. Table 4 shows how the students ranked specific criteria.

Table 4
Percentage of respondents who ranked specific criterion
in particular manner

Motivation	Year	Rank						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Remuneration level	2014	48	18	15	11	5	3	0
	2015	38	22	17	9	7	3	2
	2016	42	15	22	18	0	0	3
The opportunity to apply the knowledge acquired during the course of their studies in practical situations	2014	9	12	5	18	14	19	23
	2015	3	13	17	17	12	18	20
	2016	2	6	11	19	24	21	17
The opportunity to build a relationship with an attractive employer with the intention of maintaining it after graduation	2014	11	12	25	8	11	18	15
	2015	19	18	11	18	12	8	14
	2016	5	23	16	21	7	9	19
The opportunity to develop new skills and competences	2014	22	23	17	22	7	9	0
	2015	34	19	17	12	10	5	3
	2016	41	16	17	10	10	2	3
Convenient transport connection	2014	2	20	15	14	14	17	18
	2015	2	12	15	7	20	25	19
	2016	5	12	19	14	19	24	7

Table 4 cont.

Motivation	Year	Rank						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Distance from their place of residence	2014	9	9	16	9	18	18	21
	2015	7	6	13	16	13	26	19
	2016	8	25	5	13	12	17	20
Good opinion about a company as an employer	2014	0	5	8	18	31	15	23
	2015	4	9	13	16	23	11	24
	2016	2	5	14	12	22	19	26

Source: own elaboration based on survey results

The largest percentage of the respondents ranked the remuneration level as the most important criterion for accepting a job offer (although there were significant differences among the years). The significance of this criterion is also confirmed by the fact that 82% of the respondents in 2014, 77% in 2015, and 79% in 2016 ranked it as first, second, or third. The second criterion that was ranked most frequently was the opportunity to develop new skills and competences, and it gained in popularity from year to year to come close to the compensation level as the criterion most frequently ranked as first. In total, this criterion was ranked as first, second, or third by 62% of the respondents in 2014, 79% in 2015, and 74% in 2016. In light of the above, it comes as a surprise that the opportunity to apply the knowledge acquired over the course of their studies in practical situations was of relatively little importance to the students, which may imply that the job they accepted was not intended to give them experience in the profession they were training for but rather to allow them to develop skills and competencies in new fields. In 2014, 42% ranked the criterion related to the practical application of the knowledge acquired during the course of their studies as the next-to-last and last places; in 2015 and 2016, this number was 38%. This may also signal a certain discrepancy between the university curriculum (or the chosen degree program) and the demand created by employers in the labor market.

One should expect that the labor supplied by students one and a half years prior to the completion of a master's degree program would be an effective way to establish a relationship with a prospective employer who might wish to continue employing the student after graduation. Even if this was not the main motivation for seeking employment (which was shown in the breakdown of the responses presented in Table 3), it might be one of the most important criteria for accepting a job offer. In 2014 and 2015, 48% of the respondents and 44% in 2016 ranked it as first, second, or third; however, only 11% ranked it as first in 2014, 19% in 2015, and a mere 5% in 2016. The low importance of this motivation may be surprising, especially due to the lower costs involved in employing a student. Employers are

often more willing to hire a person without professional experience, train them, and continue to employ that person later on after graduation. This way, a student can find a position requiring higher qualifications more easily, whereas graduates tend to face higher expectations from an employer.

A criterion of relatively low importance was convenient transport connection. In 2014, 49% of the respondents, 64% in 2015, and 50% in 2016 ranked it from fifth to seventh, 35% in 2014, 27% in 2015, and 31% in 2016 – second or third. The distance from one's place of residence also ranked low, but 9% of the respondents in 2014, 7% in 2015, and 8% in 2016 chose it as the most decisive factor.

A good opinion about an employer was usually ranked as fifth or seventh, and none of the respondents ranked it as first in 2014. This criterion grew in importance in 2015; 4% of the respondents saw it as the primary decisive factor, while about a quarter ranked it as first, second, or third (with only a fifth of them in 2016). This may be due to the fact that, effectively, the students did not see their current employer as a prospective employer, which was also the conclusion drawn from the analysis of the previously discussed criteria. Additionally, this problem was addressed in more detail by another question (not presented in this article), which asked the students whether they would like to continue working for the same employer after graduation. In 2014, 69% said "no" or "rather not." In 2015, the same answer was given by 53%, and in 2016 – 69%, which confirms that the decision to seek employment during their studies was not dictated by the prospect of staying in the job after graduation despite the relatively high unemployment among university graduates (as mentioned earlier in this article).

The other criteria (not shown in the table) such as combining work and studies or pursuing a passion attracted only one respondent. Their small number seems to confirm that the criteria listed in the questionnaire generally matched those followed by students in practice.

6. Conclusion

The study revealed new unresearched phenomena concerning the motivations behind seeking and accepting employment by full-time students of economics, which may be analyzed through the prism of the concepts of the individual labor supply of regular workers discussed in the articles. It was shown that, at the moment of conducting the survey, more than half of the respondents worked. All of the students (both working and not working) underlined the significance of financial motivations behind their decision to seek employment, which would indicate that the motivations manifested by regular workers were also relevant to the choices made by the students. In more-detailed questions addressed towards

working students, the dominance of financial incentive was very clear (although a large albeit decreasing percentage of the respondents also pointed to combining a paying job with gaining professional experience). Among the criteria that was decisive for the choice of a job, remuneration ranked first, closely followed by the opportunity to develop new skills and competences. This sheds new light on the decisions made by young people who start to see such employment as a chance for development. The relatively lower importance of such determinants as the distance between the place of work and place of residence or convenient transport connection (in other words, the fixed costs of employment) also points to the differences between students and regular workers, who often wish to minimize commuting time and costs. The finding that young people are not concerned with the opinion about an employer is likely to indicate that they do not intend to stay with the same employer in the long term. The investigation of the sources of these attitudes would require a separate study.

In conclusion, the significance of remuneration among other reasons behind the decisions to seek employment and accept a particular job by students is beyond question. However, the in-depth research also reveals the importance of developing new skills and competencies as pro-growth factors relating to investment in human capital. They may play the role of motivators for young people. These conclusions are consistent with the concepts pointing to the growing significance of non-financial incentives for people pursuing a relatively long education, which is grounded in the theories presented by Herzberg, Mathios, and Ophem. It might be worth supporting these kinds of motivations behind students' decisions to find employment, which would enhance their future employability through a better match with employers' expectations.

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