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MILLENNIALS, ENTREPRENEURS AND THE HUNGARIAN WORKPLACE OF THE FUTURE

THE PRELIMINARY FINDINGS OF A PILOT STUDY

Existing research into generational differences in Hungary was based primarily on adapting findings from studies undertaken in Western Countries. If we consider not only the comparative history and wealth but also the cultural differences between Hungary and the countries in which these studies took place, then the apparent adaptability is brought into question. This study aims to examine the nature of millennial students in Hungary by building up the characteristics from the ground up rather than adapting data from other countries. The findings of the pilot study indicate that the instrument is of suitable length and clarity, and that a printed format is the most likely to produce a high response rate, despite its disadvantages. The findings also confirm the results of previous studies concerning the preference of students in Hungary for a clan type of organisation. There are also initial indications that Hungarian millennials have a high potential for entrepreneurialism.¹

Key words: Millennials, Hungary, organisational culture, entrepreneurial

There are a number of difficulties that arise when considering a study of generational diversity. Firstly, it not clear where one generation ends and another begins. For example, Tulgan (1995) reports that birth-years for Generation X range from 1963-1981, while Howe

and Strauss (1993) put Generation X birth-years from 1961-1981. Reeves and Oh (2008: p. 296.) highlight the range of differences not only in dates for each generation but also in the wide array of labels attributed to each generation, as can be seen in the table 1.:

Table 1.

The generations

Source	Labels			
Howe and Strauss (2000)	<i>Silent Generation</i> (1925–1943)	<i>Boom Generation</i> (1943–1960)	<i>13th Generation</i> (1961–1981)	<i>Millennial Generation</i> (1982–2000)
Lancaster and Stillman (2002)	<i>Traditionalists</i> (1900–1945)	<i>Baby Boomers</i> (1946–1964)	<i>Generation Xers</i> (1965–1980)	<i>Millennial Generation; Echo Boomer; Generation Y; Baby Busters; Generation Next</i> (1981–1999)
Martin and Tulgan (2002)	<i>Silent Generation</i> (1925–1942)	<i>Baby Boomers</i> (1946–1960)	<i>Generation X</i> (1965–1977)	<i>Millennials</i> (1978–2000)
Oblinger and Oblinger (2005)	<i>Matures</i> (<1946)	<i>Baby Boomers</i> (1947–1964)	<i>Gen-Xers</i> (1965–1980)	<i>Gen-Y; NetGen; Millennials</i> (1981–1995)
Tapscott (1998)	–	<i>Baby Boom Generation</i> (1946–1964)	<i>Generation X</i> (1965–1975)	<i>Digital Generation</i> (1976–2000)
Zemke et al. (2000)	<i>Veterans</i> (1922–1943)	<i>Baby Boomers</i> (1943–1960)	<i>Gen-Xers</i> (1960–1980)	<i>Nexters</i> (1980–1999)

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Not only are the actual ranges conflicting with ranges differing between 3 and 25 years in one 'generation' but we also have to question the precise basis for separation between these generations. Generation Z is not shown in this table but, as with the other generations, there is little agreement on the exact dates for this generation with some claims of it starting in the mid-1990s and others in the mid-2000s – a ten year difference is approximately half a generation in itself! This leads to the question of whether a current study of millennials is concerned with Generation Y or Z if it involves students in higher education and young employees. For the purposes of this study, the participants will be clustered according to common values rather than setting a particular breakoff point at a fixed point. In this way the study may or may not show the distinctive point at which one generation ends and the other begins, provided the distinction is that tangible. Moreover, the au-

how participants may affect workplaces in Hungary through their expectations of the ideal organisation and whether many of these participants would prefer to work for themselves and have their own company or become an employee. We consider how this Generation Y, or 'Generation M' as they are sometimes called, will perform and what expectations they will have not only during the course of their studies but in the workplace as well. Burstein (2014) highlighted that this generation has been nurtured in the environment of new technologies, three dimensionality, video games, online communications and screen and mobile devices, all of which entail a faster pace of life. The Grail report, published in 2011, highlights the differences between each generation, and the table 2., adapted with additional findings from Horsaengchai and Mamedova (2011), summarizes some of the key findings of the Grail report.

Table 2.

Key characteristics of generations



Group	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y	Generation Z
<i>Name</i>	Hippies and Yuppies	Latchkey kids	Millennial generation	Digital natives
<i>Birth year (approx.)*</i>	1945 to early 1960s	early 1960s to early 1980s	early 1980s to early 2000s	early 2000s to present day
<i>Nurturing Environment</i>	Increasingly stable and optimistic. Post WWII, widespread government subsidies in postwar housing and education, increasing affluence. Rebuilding after WWII. Women's rights, civil rights movement, protest Vietnam war	Trends towards divorce, economic uncertainty. New technologies (e.g. cable TV, video games, home computing), Disco / hip-hop culture, punks and anarchy.	Increasing interregional and intercommunity conflicts. New technologies moving at a rapid pace (internet, mobile phones, instant communication via email and sms).	Terrorism and environmental concerns. Economic slowdown. Rapid technological growth – social networking, hacking, programming
<i>Stereotypes</i>	huge consumers, idealistic, competitive	individualists, sceptical of authority	'techcomfortable', brand loyal, style-conscious, optimistic	tech savvy, globally connected, flexible and open / tolerant of diverse cultures

thor takes the view that this study of millennials, i.e. generation Y, refers to those born around 1976–2000 i.e. using the widest range depicted in studies over the past two decades (see table 1.).

The author takes the view that generations differ to a greater extent on perceptions and values than on precise dates of birth and age ranges. This study aims to identify the Hungarian millennial generation currently in higher education through the clustering of the values of participants with regard to their ideal organisation and self-assessment of their entrepreneurial potential. This study will then also consider

Such categories of generations as in table 2 have been accused of stereotyping entire generations and from the table it does seem that the focus lingers on the negative rather than positive impacts upon each generation. Although the author is mindful that such stereotyping may be considered unhelpful, categorizing some aspects that may emerge in the workplace may aid in promoting a mutual understanding across generations as well as giving the employer a basis for understanding and appreciating the diversity within an organisation as well as apparent communication gaps. Furthermore as this study extends beyond the basic attributes of the Y generation,

Table 3.

Generational diversity in the workplace

Name and birth year	Traditionalist Born 1925 – 1945	Baby Boomers Born 1946 – 1964	Generation X Born 1965 – 1980	Generation Y Born 1981 and after, (Gen Z – after 2000)
Workplace traits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team players • Indirect in communicating • Loyal to the organization • Respect the authority • Dedication and sacrifice • Duty before pleasure • Obedience • Respond well to directive • Leadership • Seniority and age • Correlated • Adherence to rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Big picture / systems in place • Bring fresh perspective • Do not respect titles • Disapprove absolutes and structure • Optimism • Team orientation • Uncomfortable with conflict • Personal growth • Sensitive to feedback • Health and wellness • Personal gratification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Impatience • Goal orientated • Multi-tasking • Thinking globally • Self-reliance • Flexible hours, informal work environment • Just a job • Techno-literal • Informal – balance • Give them a lot to do and freedom to do their way • Question authority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confidence • Sociability • Morality • Street smart • Diversity • Collective action • Heroic spirit • Tenacity • Technological savvy • Lack of skills for dealing with difficult people • Multitasking • Need flexibility
Attire	Formal	Business – casual (high end)	Business – casual (low end)	Whatever feels comfortable
Work Environment	Office only	Long hours – office only	Office, home, desires flexible schedule	Office, home – desires flexible schedule
Motivators	Self – worth	Salary	Security	Maintain personal life
Mentoring	Not necessary	Does not handle well negative feedback	Not necessary to receive feedback	Constant feedback needed
Retention	Loyalty	Salary	Security/Salary	Personal relationship
Client Orientation	Personal contact	Telephone	E-mail	E-mail/IM/Text
Technology	Dictates documents, e-mail only in the office, use of library instead of web, limited phone use	Documents prepared by the Associates, e-mail primarily in the office, web use to “google”	Creates own documents, uses mobile and laptop, uses web to research, review, etc., e-mail/mobile 24/7	Creates own documents, creates databases, uses web to research and network, use of email/text 24/7
Career Goals	Build a legacy, a life-time career with one company	Build a perfect career, excel	Build a transferable career, variety of skills and experiences	Build several parallel careers, have a several jobs simultaneously

Source: Adapted from the report *Overcoming Generational Gap in the Workplace* by United Nations Joint Staff Pension Fund (2009).

and is concerned with the relationship between the Y generation and the workplace, it is necessary to consider and compare the key characteristics that have been found for each generation as a means of gauging the similarities and differences between the findings of earlier studies in Western countries and those found in this study of Hungarian millennials. Some studies have already covered such categorizing specifically for the workplace, such as that by the United Nations, and the findings are summarized in the table 3. It should be noted that this table contains different generations to those in table 2 as generation Z is omitted and an earlier generation, called the traditionalist generation (1925–1945), has been added.

Source: Adapted from the report *Overcoming Generational Gap in the Workplace* by United Nations Joint Staff Pension Fund (2009).

This presents distinct differences across generations in values and expectations of the workplace and colleagues respectively. Besides the evident differences in familiarity with technology, the expectations with regard to mentoring, basis for motivation and reasons for retention of staff all represent significant challenges for leadership in multi-generational organisations. This issue has been covered for a number of years such as in 2006 when the Harvard Business School wrote that “*managing multigenerational workforces is an art in*

itself! Young workers want to make a quick impact, the middle generation needs to believe in the mission, and older employees don't like ambivalence! Your move". This is an indication of the current issues facing Hungarian managers and yet, multi-generational diversity has not had the same amount of attention in Hungary as cultural diversity. The issue of how to be deal with this diversity and its impact upon the organisation may be seen in the following section.

Generational diversity in the workplace

Managing diversity in the workforce is nothing new, such as in the case of multinationals managing cultural diversity and this topic can be traced back a number of decades. However the topic of managing the diversity between generations in the workplace is less prevalent. Seitel (2005) coined the term 'generational competence' for the organisational adaptation to the varying needs of different generations in the workforce as well as the marketplace. A study by the United Nations Joint Staff Pension Fund (2009) categorized attitudes to generational diversity into four different levels: Level 4: "The generation of people in the top boxes is the only one that matters... the rest just need to grow up or shut up"; Level 3: "The generational change is an emerging issue within our organization but we haven't done much about it"; Level 2: "We view generational change as an emerging opportunity"; Level 1: "We're actively changing the work culture to harness the power of generational change". To understand the potential diversity of the workforce by generation, we need to consider the spread of generations in general and the table 4. indicates the percentage of each generation that constituted the total workforce in 2007.

shown in table 4. also raises some other interesting questions. In cultural management we are told that certain cultures, such as in the UK, the working attitude is to "work to live", whereas in other countries it may be the opposite: "Live to work". In light of this data on generations, one is left to wonder if culture has a role to play. If examinations of national culture took place, such as with Hofstede, studying IBM between 1967 and 1973, then this surely should indicate the different national cultures for Veterans and Baby Boomers, depending on the ages of the participants. However, if cultural differences exist then does this mean generational diversity is a 'constant' across countries, which is moulded by national culture or that differences in national culture may in fact reflect generational differences of samples. If replications of Hofstede's study indicate that the findings are still valid such as that of De Mooij (2004) then it can be assumed that generational diversity remains somehow a constant in studies of national culture. However, personal experience tells us that there are differences between generations, especially as different generations are socialized by entirely different external environments and values systems. Whilst an allowance has to be made for the differences in national culture, if we accept the existence of generational diversity then the data available on national cultures seems a little obsolete. Not only did Hofstede undertake his study of national cultures between 1967 and 1973, Trompenaars' (2000) study of managers for national cultural differences was published when the current millennial generation had likely just been born in 1996. Thus, at the very least, we have to consider that most studies of national culture do not refer to millennials themselves but rather to the parents of millen-

Table 4.

Spread of generations in the workforce

Generation	Birth years	% of workforce	Work perspectives
Veterans / Traditionalists	1922–1945	10	"Company loyalty" – believed they would work for the same company for their entire career
Baby Boomers	1946–1964	44	"Live to work" – believe in putting in face time at the office. Women enter the workforce in large numbers
Gen Xers	1965–1980	34	"Work to live" – believe that work should not define their lives. Dual-earner couples become the norm.
Millennials / Gen Y	1981–2000	12 (increasing rapidly)	"Work my way" – devoted to their own careers, not to their companies. Desire meaningful work.

Adapted from Marston (2007)

Whilst it may come as no surprise that the baby boomers and GenXers constitute a large part of the working population, the diversity of working attitude

nials or even earlier generations who may have an impact upon the values and beliefs of millennials through the socialization process but due to other environmen-

tal factors, it takes a certain leap of faith to assume that the values of one generation are passed perfectly onto another without any influence of the external environment, such as fast-paced developments in technology, financial crises and so on. Furthermore, DeLorenzo et al. (2009) in their paper on the internet age and globalization theory indicate stark differences may be found between cultures based upon generation / age differences, even though this was not the aim of their study. They emphasise that the population surveyed in Slovakia and the US “*reflected an age of 18-22 years of age*” as “*the original Hofstede study surveyed professionals working for IBM – presumably, adults for the most part reflecting an age span greater than 22*” (DeLorenzo et al., 2009: p. 464.). This distinction between differences in values based upon certain age groups reinforces the basis for the study in this paper.

Thus, this study needs to bear in mind the characteristics of Hungarian national culture as having an impact upon the generational characteristics of the millennials, but not necessarily negating generational differences in themselves. Heidrich (1999) claims that Hungarian culture was very much collectivist and prone to social grouping with informal groups forming at many workplaces prior to the changeover. Heidrich (1999) also claims that there was a lack of individual risk taking and autonomy in making decisions, which is also due to this aspect of collectivism. This particular finding may have an impact upon the level of potential entrepreneurialism expressed by participants. Meschi and Roger (1994) studied 155 companies with partial ownership in Hungary and, using the OCAI of Cameron and Quinn (1999), found the main types to be clan and hierarchy culture types. Bearing in mind these findings with regard to social aspects, it seems to point to the likelihood of millennials preferring a clan culture type. Heidrich (1999) also points out that power distance is a distinct characteristic of the education system, which may prove itself in this study when a comparison is made between millennials in employment and those in education. Bakacsi and Takács (1997) claimed that Hungarian culture tended towards masculinity rather than femininity.

In summary, articles by Hungarian authors such as Kissné (2014) of generational differences using Western studies provide useful insight into the differences between generations in general, as reflected upon in this paper, however, the assumption that these generational typologies from Western countries must be the same everywhere else, including Hungary, is rejected. If we are considering the values, beliefs and norms of different generations from different countries and claim they are all the same then we are ignoring the national

culture, traditions and history that may also shape individuals. It seems, conversely, that many studies of national culture have failed to allow for generational differences and often view national culture as not being age-sensitive, which, in the face of literature to the contrary, seems like another false assumption. The following section examines how cultural differences specific to Hungary may affect the characteristics of the millennials generation, relative to existing findings from studies in the West, such as the United Nations study referred to earlier in this paper.

Previous views of the ideal organisation in Hungary

This study intends to analyse what millennials perceive as the ideal type of organisation. This indicates not only the values of the participant with regard to an organisation but also the preferred culture type of organisation. Therefore the following section considers studies into the preferred culture type of organisational culture in Hungary.

Bognár and Gaál (2011) undertook a survey of 260 companies in Hungary using the OCAI and found that the majority favoured either the hierarchy (81 companies) or the clan culture type (81 companies), closely followed by the clan type (76 companies) and by far the least common type the adhocracy (8 companies). This is in stark contrast to the findings of Bogdány et al. (2012), who found from a survey of 1500 prospective employees that the majority (75.5 %) preferred the clan type as a future workplace followed by the market (9.2 %) and the adhocracy (9.4 %) culture types. In this study the hierarchy type was least preferred by prospective employees. This seems to indicate the potential for culture preference change over the coming years either as new employees are assimilated into current organisational cultures or new employees seek to gradually change existing cultures to suit their preferences. However, it should be noted that a similar study conducted by Balogh et al. (2011) found conflicting results to that of Bogdány et al. (2012) with 1242 prospective employees who preferred the clan type, followed by the adhocracy, and then by market and hierarchy with similar results. Although the clan type still comes as one of the more preferred, the preferences regarding the adhocracy and hierarchy types seem less certain.

Aside from the preferences found using the OCAI, Bakacsi et al. (2002) considered the perspective of managers and used the GLOBE findings to describe the Eastern European cluster (Albania, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Poland, Russia, and Slovenia). Managers from this cluster expressed distinctively high power distance and high family and group collectivism.

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This seems to reinforce a form of ‘clan mentality’. The managers also highly valued future and performance orientations, as well as charismatic and team-oriented leadership. Gelei et al. (2012) highlight that Hungary being a member of the East European Cluster may have a significant impact upon organisational relationships with Germanic or Anglo regions, as the East European Cluster is closer to the Latin American, Middle East and Sub Saharan Africa clusters. However, the external relationships of the organisation are beyond the scope of this study. Matkó and Berde (2012) also used GLOBE to analyse the organisational cultures in the public sector, namely regional local authorities. This study found the highest values in future orientation and asserted this was due to the economic situation and an increasingly competitive sector. This may serve to indicate a similar situation in higher education in Hungary as it experiences drives to become more competitive. Matkó and Berde (2012: 21) point out that “the future cannot be planned without team work and cooperation”.

Borgulya and Hahn (2008: p. 222.) assert that Hungarians (as well as other Eastern Europeans) see the workplace as “not only an area for creating value added, but also a social net(work), where people can fulfill their social need for creating human relationships”, seemingly confirming the findings of Bakacsi et al. (2002: p. 69., 75.). This seems to indicate a potential for interactions leading to the formation of sub-cultures. Furthermore, Hofmeister-Tóth et al. (2005) take this view one step further and claim that Hungarian employees are very likely to develop informal relationships and arguably, thereby a closer relationship as they see each other out of working hours. It should be noted however that in a more recent work by Borgulya and Hahn (2013) they considered the impact of the economic crisis on Hungarian work-related values with a longitudinal analysis using data from the earlier study in 2008 and found that this importance placed on personal relationships at work had decreased somewhat leaving only two aspects with similar figures compared to their earlier study: good pay and a secure job.

Theoretical framework

It was found in the literature that the millennials are devoted to working in their own way and focusing on their own careers rather than their company. They desire meaning, which leads to the potential for an entrepreneurial nature to some extent. Therefore, bearing in mind the sample of Hungarian millennials and the findings of the literature review, the following hypotheses have been devised in relation to millennial entrepreneurialism in Hungary:

Hypothesis 1: Millennials attitudes to entrepreneurialism vary according to type of course taught and institution.

Hypothesis 2: There is a direct relationship between views of luck being the key to success and responses to failure.

It is also clear from the literature that millennials perceive the workplace and the values and norms associated with the workplace substantially differently to other generations. The author wondered what the ideal organisation would be like for Hungarian millennials and so a tool needs to be considered which will indicate an ideal type of organisation and the participants’ values in relation to the organisation. Once a tool is selected further hypotheses can be developed (see methodology section).

Based upon the peculiarities of Hungarian national culture having an impact upon the millennial generation, the following hypotheses have been developed as a means of allowing for this aspect:

Hypothesis 3: Hungarian millennials accept the darker side of entrepreneurialism to a greater extent than the positive traits (pessimism high).

Hypothesis 4: Hungarian millennials has a strong sense of the need for success and find it difficult to accept failure (masculinity high).

Hypothesis 5: Hungarians have a high desire for the social aspect and a preference for a clan/collegial culture in organisations (low context, high collectivism).

Methodology

In order to test these hypotheses the following two tools were chosen for the study: the OCAI (organisational culture assessment instrument) and the FACETS framework. The OCAI was developed based upon the competing values framework developed by Cameron and Freeman (1999) to consider the effectiveness of leadership. This framework was used to create the OCAI which has been used to assess an employee’s perspective of the current organisational culture and that which would be preferred. In this study we used the latter of these two, as the preferred type of organisation in which a millennial may work or want to work is considered. In this way, for each of the six dimensions the participant is required to decide between four statements, which represent four culture types. Thus, over six dimensions such as criteria for success, organisational glue and dominant characteristic, each student will have a dominant culture type out of four

total types or possible a balance of two or more types. This tool is planned to deal with the cultural aspects of the hypotheses, highlight the central values and the preferred organisation in which to work, for each participant. Based upon this research tool, the following hypotheses are put forward:

Hypothesis 6: Entrepreneurial millennials do not prefer the market culture type, but rather the ad-hocracy.

Hypothesis 7: Criteria for success has a relationship to how millennials view failure and success.

The second instrument to be used is the FACETS theoretical framework, which is the Bolton Thompson Entrepreneur Indicator (the BTEI). This framework is used for defining the entrepreneur and based on six character themes, Focus, Advantage, Creativity, Ego, Team and Social, hence the acronym, FACETS. Thompson (2004) indicates that the FACETS framework could also be 'a practical and accurate assessment of a person's entrepreneurial potential' (Thompson, 2004: p. 244-248.). Both of these models have been updated in the early 2000s and as there is no significant time lapse between the latest versions of these tools, it is felt that there is a matching which will allow comparison of the data. However, the different forms of assessment means that they are not directly comparable but will involve, say, relationships between nominal and scale data.

This study takes the assumption put forward by Horsaengchai and Mamedova (2011) that the focus is on the internal potential to become an entrepreneur, rather than delve into the complexity of considering all other external factors such as access to finances, environment, and sociability / networking opportunities. This being the case, only Focus, Advantage, Creativity and Ego (FACE) of the instrument are to be used.

The second stage of this study will take a qualitative approach and delve deeper into the characteristics of the millennials in terms of additional qualities found in this literature review such as attire and motivation, as well as triangulate the quantitative data.

Design of the pilot study

The aim of the pilot study was to test the questionnaire on a small sample whose characteristics are the same or similar to those who will be completing the final questionnaire as a means of spotting any flaws which can be corrected before implementing the main survey. The pilot study is a means of considering unanticipated procedural problems not only in the administration of the questionnaire but also in the planned

statistical and analytical procedures. The pilot study also investigates the comprehensiveness of the questionnaire and the usefulness of the answers given. This pilot study was conducted in August 2015 prior to the main stage of questionnaire distribution and data gathering, planned for the following autumn semester.

Sample

The size of sample is a small one for the pilot for two reasons. Firstly, Bless and Higson-Smith, (2000: p. 52.) argue that the pilot study should involve taking a sample from the population upon which the study is planned. With a case study involving a limited number of around 1000 participants, a large sample for the pilot study might result in a less than representative sample of the actual study as the data of those involved in the pilot study would not be used in the main study (Peat et al., 2002: p. 57.). Furthermore, questionnaires would not be given in the main study to those who took part in the pilot study due to concerns about "questionnaire fatigue" and the possibility that participants will no longer follow the protocol as it is no longer novel (Van Teijlingen – Hundley, 2001). Secondly, the interviews concerning evaluation of the pilot questionnaire were qualitative rather than quantitative in nature and a smaller sample was deemed adequate (Hudson et al., 2007; Jacobson – Wood, 2006; Haralambos – Holburn, 1995).

The sampling frame for the pilot study involved both students and employed persons between 18 and 35, considered part of the millennial generation, totaling 20 participants in all. Through the random selection of young people, it is hoped to avoid convenience bias of only students from the Budapest Business School. A limitation of this pilot study is that unemployed 18-35 year olds did not participate and the lower age range had a higher number of participants.

Pilot study instrumentation

A semi-structured interview methodology was utilized to assess the suitability of the questionnaire. The interview questions were based upon those questions recommended by Bell (1999) and Wallace (1998) for a pilot study:

1. Were the instructions clear and easy to follow?
2. Were any of the questions unclear or ambiguous?
3. Were you able to answer all of the questions?
4. Did you object to answering any of the questions?
5. Did you find any of the questions embarrassing, irrelevant or irritating?
6. In your point of view, are there any important or concerned issues omitted?

Table 5.

Summary of initial findings

Code	Age	Gender	Student / employed	Entrepreneur potential	Top motivator	Ideal organisational culture type
001	21–23	male	both	4.83	Working atmosphere	Adhocracy
002	18–20	female	both	4.30	Opportunities for study	Clan*
003	24–25	male	both	4.30	Working atmosphere	Clan*
004	21–23	female	student	4.65	Opportunities to develop	Clan*
005	24–25	male	student	4.21	Opportunities to develop	Clan*
006	26–28	male	employed	4.15	Independent decision-making	Adhocracy
007	18–20	female	employed	4.26	Flexible working conditions	Clan
008	26–28	male	student	4.72	Promotion opportunities	Market
009	29–30	male	employed	4.03	Trust in company and colleagues	Clan
010	24–25	male	student	4.81	Work fitting studies	Adhocracy
011	21–23	male	student	4.50	Salary and benefits	Adhocracy
012	21–23	female	student	3.79	Opportunities to develop	Clan
013	24–25	male	student	4.28	Opportunities for further study	Clan
014	18–20	male	student	4.02	Promotion opportunities	Clan
015	24–25	female	student	4.09	Opportunities for further study	Clan
016	24–25	male	student	4.20	Opportunities to develop	Clan
017	18–20	female	student	3.68	Opportunities for further study	Clan
018	31–33	male	employed	4.16	Better salary and benefits	Market
019	18–20	male	student	4.19	Long-term job	Clan
020	21–23	male	both	4.54	Working atmosphere	Clan

*Note: These participants had a very close second dominant type as the adhocracy

7. Was the layout of the questionnaire clear?
8. How long did it take you to complete the questionnaire?

For each participant, the aim of the pilot was explained and then they were asked to complete the questionnaire. Participants were asked to think out loud when completing the questionnaire and notes were taken of any comments made during the completion of the questionnaire. Following completion of the questionnaire, the interview was held using the questions above as a loose structure for the interviews. Each interview lasted approximately 20-40 minutes depending upon the responsiveness of the interviewee and interruptions.

Summary of findings and future directions

One of the biggest concerns was about the length of the questionnaire as too long a time would result in impatience and fatigue, thus providing inaccurate results. From the pilot study, it was found that the majority of respondents took 10-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire (18 respondents) and another 2 respondents

taking 21-30 minutes. Although there was some concern about the completion time creeping towards 30 minutes, it should be stated that in this case, there was a number of interruptions, causing the extension of completion time. Although the questionnaire was lengthy, when questioned, none of the respondents complained of fatigue or grew impatient. It was a surprise that the questionnaire took less time than anticipated to complete. It should be noted that in most cases the time was closer to 10 minutes than 20 minutes.

There were a number of issues in relation to ambiguous wording. In one case the wording of the instructions for the OCAI was altered to facilitate completion of what was considered an unusual format. Another example was that in question 2C of the OCAI; the questionnaire was reconsidered by experts in translation and with an understanding of business. A new wording was agreed and then the respondents were consulted concerning this new wording. They agreed that this was much clearer and posed no further problems.

The pilot seemed to confirm the selected case-study as a good platform for conducting the investigation –

especially from the point of view of access to potential participants. To avoid 'undercoverage' of certain demographics, the questionnaire will be in printed format and handed out personally, although much of the sample is likely to have access to electronic format. The author hopes in this way to include all the target population, with minimum non-response bias thanks to feedback from the pilot study. With regard to the demographic data, it has also been decided to not have the age put in ranges but simply a year of birth. In this way, categorising can take place based upon differences in values and entrepreneurial data for age.

The future research is planned to extend this pilot study by examining a larger pool of Hungarian students and young employees from as many locations as accessibility allows. This would allow for generalizability and additional cross checks and verification of initial findings of this pilot study. A further extension is being considered on an even wider scale encompassing participants from other generations as a means of comparing the diversity of generations in Hungary. However, the findings from this small sample are indicated in the following summary, standard deviation has not been calculated for a small initial sample, but these findings may give an indication of the likely results for the entire sample once complete. (Table 5.)

The findings shown in the table 5. seem to indicate a preference of millennials for a clan culture type organisation, and with this, a desire for a good working environment. Studies of millennials indicated that they would be devoted to their own careers, not to their companies with the desire for meaningful work. This aspect might be reflected in many participants putting the opportunity to develop as the top motivator, however it can be seen in the table that this is often the preference for participants who are students and may be due to the fact that they live within the education system where the need to learn and study is a value that is constantly reinforced, rather than a devotion to their own careers. It is hoped that following the quantitative study, the qualitative study will provide answers to such questions. It may also uncover whether the top motivators are general motivators for each participant or based upon a current issue being dealt with e.g. if good salary is listed as a good motivator, is the person generally motivated by money or simply has temporary financial problems at the time of completing the questionnaire.

One clear result is that, based upon the Likert scale of 1-6, the majority of participants believe they have entrepreneurial potential, with an average of 4.28 for the sample. This may also be reflected in the fact that a

number of participants have a preference for the adhoc-racy culture type, which is associated with innovation and flexibility, both characteristics of entrepreneurs. A larger sample will confirm whether these initial findings are representative of the entire sample or not, but as a pilot study it has proved the viability of the questionnaire and the potential for answering some important questions on the shape of Hungarian workplaces in the future.

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