Generational Differences between Gen X and Y in Work Experience, Work Value, Work Outcome, and Cultural Dimension in Southeast Asia

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Abstract

Purpose
The present study seeks to investigate generational differences in work culture between Generation X and Generation Y in Southeast Asia, particularly with regards to associations between work experience, work value, work outcome, and cultural dimension.

Methodology
A quantitative online questionnaire was distributed to 150 respondents who are executives working in the pharmaceutical industry in Cambodia, Indonesia, Myanmar, and the Philippines. The pharmaceutical sector was selected because of the breadth of its operations in the region over a period of 50 years with a workforce comprising the baby boomers right up to Gen Z.

Findings
Partial Least Square (PLS) analysis found that work experience, work value, work outcome, and cultural dimension were associated with each other, however, no generation differences were found between Generation X and Generation Y.

Originality

The present research translated and extended Western theoretical frameworks about generational differences in the workplace to the Indonesian context.

Introduction

Over time, changes in various dimensions such as parenting techniques, world conditions, life experiences, and education cause individuals growing up in different time contexts to internalize varying values and practices. Consequently, it is possible to differentiate between individuals who grew up in different time eras based on their values and practices (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008; Smola and Sutton, 2002).

In the context of the workplace, this creates unique opportunities and challenges as individuals from different time contexts with varying values and practices work and interact with each other (Lancaster and Stillman, 2002). In particular, members in multinational work teams face the additional challenge of navigating social relationships with others who are from a different culture than their own, thereby increasing the risk of social exclusion and a disorganized organizational culture (Robbins and Judge, 2013). For the first time in history, the workforce consists of five generations working together in the same roof: the "baby boomers" who are on the verge of retirement, the "Generation X" who are rapidly rising up to occupy the positions held by the retiring baby boomers, the millennials who make the majority of the workforce, and lastly the "Gen Z" who have just entered or are preparing to enter the workforce (Bresman and Rao, 2017; KPMG, 2017).

Hence, there is a need for managers to deal with such generational diversity in the workplace to ensure to better recruitment, retention, succession management, communication, employee engagement and conflict resolution and to ensure workplace safety for all employees (Lancaster and Stillman 2002). Failure to do so, conversely, can create intergenerational workplace conflict, ineffective communication, negative attitudes toward colleagues, decrease in productivity, decrease in the morale, and a decrease in citizenship behavior (Smola and Sutton, 2002), as well as decreasing employee performance and satisfaction (Smith and Nicols, 2015). This requires managers to learn and understand the unique characteristics of each generation and intergenerational differences to avoid difficulties and ensure worker wellbeing and work productivity (Kaifi et al., 2012).

While extensive research has focused on generational differences in the workplace, there is little

cogency in and generalizability of findings (Twenge et al., 2010), resulting in a culture where organizational practices to manage generational differences are based on exaggerated assumptions rather than facts (Hauw and Vos, 2010).Based on review of past literature within Indonesia, limited research into generational differences in work values yielded findings that coincided with common assumptions in the workforce—that Generation X tends to be more conservative in their work values and practices while Generation Y valued autonomy and independence and made career decisions accordingly (Indriyana and Djastuti, 2018; Nindyati, 2017).

Values reflect attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions that people have (Robbins and Judge, 2013). As such, work values refer to a worker's attitudes about what one should expect from the workplace and how he should go about reaching those expectations (Smola and Sutton, 2002). These work values vary between generations (Smola and Sutton, 2002). Various factors shape each generations' values. For example, generations growing up at the peak of the technological era and globalization value an electronically networked work environment with advanced technology (Lancaster and Stillman, 2002; Robbins and Judge, 2013).

It is important to define common work values across the generation as it helps in conflict resolution and employee management. Such attempts has led to the development identification of six sub-factors of work values: extrinsic objectives, intrinsic objectives, status, social, altruism, and freedom (Lyons, 2003) (Figure 1). In Lyon's study, Gen X workers ranked Extrinsic work-related values as the most valuable. They also valued intrinsic work values and valued freedom moderately. Although not many millennials participated in his study, he found that they valued extrinsic work values and social values more. This suggests significant differences in work values across generations. Cennamo and Gardner (2008) also found significant generational differences, particularly for status-related work values and freedom-related work values. These patterns could reflect the influence of external factors such as the economic and technological condition of the era. Occurrences such as poverty and the great recession could explain extrinsic work-related values being ranked the highest by Generation X while millennials, who could connect well with others due to technological advancements, valued social values more (Twenge et al., 2010).
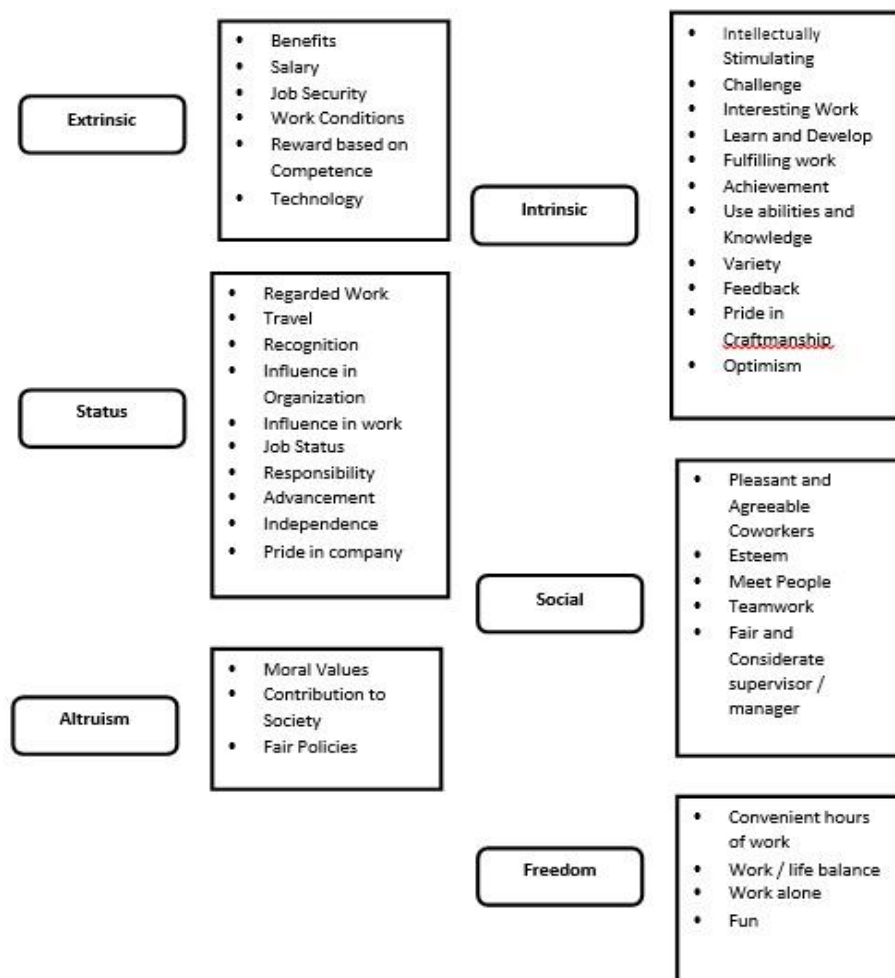

Figure 1. *Lyon's Work Values*

Consequently, employees' job satisfaction and intention to leave are determined by the extent to which their work values are met (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008; Riggle et al., 2009). Ensuring job satisfaction provides a productive and happier workforce (KPMG, 2017). Job satisfaction is described as a positive feeling about a job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics (Robbin and Judge, 2010). Past research has found that Gen X and Gen Y varied in their work values, and subsequently, varied in their job satisfaction depending on the work values adopted at their workplace (Maharani and Mashuri, 2019).

The present study aims to address this gap in literature by systematically investigating intergenerational differences in the workplace, specifically with regards to perceptions about work values and work outcomes. Additionally, the present study also translates previous findings about generational differences in the workplace from the West into the Asian context, incorporating a cultural dimension to assess how national culture influences the workplace (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008).

In addition to generational diversity, international working environments also consist of cultural diversity, which can be challenging to manage. The national culture influences the culture of the workplace. (Yi et al., 2015; Robbins et al., 1998). For example, Americans have a more positive impression of themselves, and are more likely to demand and expect more from their manager compared to Chinese workers (Yi et al., 2015). In addition, Yi et al. (2015) also found that generational differences are much bigger in US samples compared to Chinese samples, suggesting that the influence of culture also changes across generations. Cultural dimension consists of subcategories such as uncertainty avoidance- the extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events-, power distance- the extent to which the community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges-, long-term orientation- the extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future and delaying gratification. (Hofstead et al., 2010).

The study focuses on four countries in Southeast Asia with respondents drawn from the pharmaceutical sector which has already has five decades of operations in the region and having a workforce comprising of baby boomers to Gen Z

The study focuses on differences between Generation X and Generation Y. Generation X refers to individuals born between 1960 – 1980. They generally have two working parents, and have been through economic uncertainty, AIDS epidemic (Twenge et al., 2010), rise of popularity of MTV and personal computer (Lancaster and Stillman, 2002) (Robbins and Judge, 2013). As latchkey children of baby boomers, they are self-reliant and technology savvy (Ferri-Reed, 2013). They value true happiness, friendship, and pleasure in the workplace, valuing teamwork, quality of life and work-life balance over making sacrifices for and commitment to organisations (Robbins and Judge, 2013). For example, the Indonesian demographic statistics from 2017 shows that 25.34% of the population are generation X. Millennials, or Generation Y, are broadly classified as individuals born between around mid-1980s to 2000 and are expected to have reached adulthood around the turn of the 21st century (KPMG, 2017). They are currently entering their productive age between age 21-36, progressively replacing older generations in the workplace, and even climbing the career ladder (Gianniris, 2018). They account for 33.75% of the Indonesian population and is the majority of the workforce. They value meaningful work, constructive feedback and career progression (Ferri-Reed, 2012). They also prioritise their private lives and work-life balance (Ng et al., 2010; Smith and Nicols, 2015). Combined with the prevalence of internet use among this generation, this has resulted in more flexible and technology-integrated work processes (Ertas, 2015; Gianniris, 2018; Kaifi et al., 2012).

This research seeks to address the following four research questions:

1.   Does work experiences affect work outcome between Generation X and Generation Y?
2.   Does work values affect work outcome between Generation X and Generation Y?
3.   Does cultural dimension affect work values between Generation X and Generation Y?
4.   Does cultural dimension affect work experiences between Generation X and Generation Y?

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formed (Figure 2).

H1. Work Experience associates with Work Outcome
H1a. Work Experience associates with Work Outcome at Generation X
H1b. Work Experience associates with Work Outcome at Generation Y
H2. Work Value associates with Work Outcome
H2a. Work Value associates with Work Outcome at Generation X
H2b. Work Value associates with Work Outcome at Generation X
H3. Cultural Dimension associates with Work Experience
H3a. Cultural Dimension associates with Work Experience at Generation X
H3b. Cultural Dimension associates with Work Experience at Generation Y
H4. Cultural Dimension associates with Work Value
H4a. Cultural Dimension associates with Work Value at Generation X
H4b. Cultural Dimension associates with Work Value at Generation Y
H5. Generation moderates the association between Work Experience and Work Outcome
H6. Generation moderates the association between Work Value and Work Outcome
H7. Generation moderates the association between Cultural Dimension and Work Experience
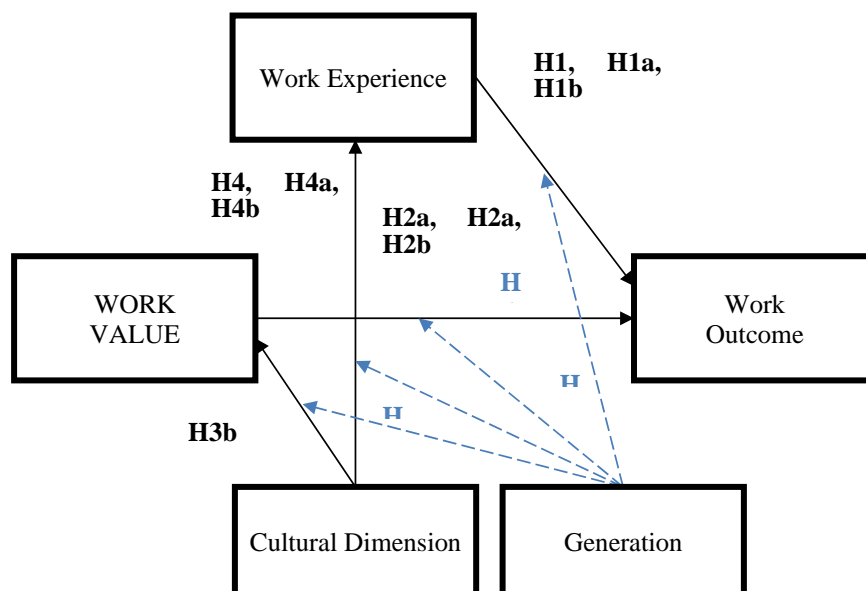**H8.** Generation moderates the association between Cultural Dimension and Work Values

Figure 2. *Hypotheses Model*

Methodology

Recruitment and Sample

In this study of Generational Differences in the Workplace, the research is applied to the workers from four countries of Southeast Asia. Target population in set of age range, defined as generation, has targeted two specific categories. Generation X, individuals who born

between 1965 to 1981, and generation Y, individuals who were born between 1982 to 2000. The measures were disseminated to participants in the form of an online questionnaire on Google Form. In total, there were 105 executives from Cambodia, Indonesia, Myanmar, and Philippines who completed the questionnaire.

Design and Materials

A quantitative approach was used to investigate the relationship between different work values and work outcome, as well as the influence of culture, between Generation X and Generation Y. The work values scale developed by Lyons (2003) was also adapted for this study, consisting of 31 items. Cennamo and Gardner (2008) have validated the scale in previous research. The work outcome measure was developed for this study by adapting items used to measure work outcomes in past research (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008). The scale consisted of six items measuring intention to leave organization, job satisfaction, autonomy, equality, learning opportunity and differentiation of culture. The work experience measure consisted of 16 items developed by Morgeson and Humprey (2006). Lastly, a series of 14 items were adapted to measure differentiation of culture with respect to the four different countries that participants came from (Globe Project, 2006). Culture was operationalized as consisting of six dimensions, as proposed by (Hofstede et al., 2010). This measure has been validated and commonly used for differentiating working values across countries or regions. For the present study, the three most relevant dimensions, namely, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation, were focused upon. Please see Appendix for full list of items. All items required responses on a 5 point Likert scale, ranging from 1 "Strongly Agree" to 5 "Strongly Disagree".

Results

Generational differences workforce was studied based on responses from 105 executives who came from four countries in Southeast Asia: Cambodia, Indonesia, Myanmar, and Philippines. 66 respondents belonged to Generation Y and 39 respondents were from Generation X. 45% of the sample were male, 55% were female, and 5% preferred not to disclose their gender. 51% of the sample was from the Philippines, 23% from Myanmar, 17% from Indonesia, and 9% from Cambodia. Most of the executives have worked for more than 2 years in their present job.

Partial Least Square (PLS) was used for analyzing the relationship between variables. It was determined to be suitable for use with the sample size in this research. Cross-national differences were also analysed qualitatively. Subsequently, conclusions were drawn.

Data Analysis

Structured Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed for scale validation and hypothesis testing. It is an integrated model which incorporates gauging estimates for a series of dependent relationships between a set of constructs represented by multiple measured variables (Malhotra et al., 2017). SmartPLS 3.2 software was used to run the SEM model on the data of the present study. This method was apt for the present study due to the minimal demands on measurement, sample size, and residual distributions (Wold, 1985).

Assumption testing for SEM-PLS was carried out (Hair et al., 2016). The main analysis will use the developed theories implied and related to the research hypotheses and predicting the outcome from the analysis. The attributes were non-normal data and had a small sample

size. Normality of data distribution was not assumed and the sample size required was not as large as covariance-based SEM. Three stages of PLS have been applied: evaluation of measurement model (outer model), evaluation of structural model (inner model), and Multi Group Analysis (MGA).

1. Evaluation of measurement model is a set of examination on the relationship between the indicators and latent variables (Hair et al., 2016). In this testing phase, the researcher would testify the validity and reliability of the data, also evaluating the fitness level between the data and the research model or known as goodness of fit (GOF).

2. Evaluation of structural model, In SEM-PLS, structural model of the research is the inner model which is the relationship formed between the latent variables of the overall model (Hair et al., 2016). The hypothesis testing that used for looking at structural model analysis will apply the bootstrapping method by using SmartPLS 3 software. The spread, shape, and bias of the sample distribution of population will be estimated by using the bootstrap method.

3. Multi Group Analysis, the multi-group analysis allows to test if pre-defined data groups have significant differences in their group-specific parameter estimates (e.g., outer weights, outer loadings and path coefficients).

Evaluation of Measurement Model (Outer Model)

The purpose of the evaluation of measurement model is to test the validity and reliability of the model. In PLS – SEM, the outer model is the measurement model consisting of the convergent validity test. According to Hair et al (2014), to meet the convergent validity requirement, the loading factor score should be above 0.7. The score between 0.5 to 0.7 and above could be stated as valid indicator (Hulland, 1999). As such, 17 indicators were removed (CD1, CD10, CD14, CD2, CD3, CD4, CD5, CD6, CD7, CD8, WE1, WE7, WO5, WO6, WV15, WV3,WV4). The data was re-analysed and another variable (WV17) was dropped for failing to meet the requirement. The final model was accepted (See Appendix B).

Discriminant Validity Test

The next stage is testing discriminant validity to ascertain the correlation values among the latent variables (Wong, 2019). This method consists of two statistics, the Fornell Lacker Criterion and the HTMT. As Wong (2019) had mentioned, the value loading should be bigger than correlation toward other latent variables for the Fornell Lacker Criterion. In the present study, loading values were bigger than the correlation (See Appendix C, Table C1). Thus, the discriminant validity was confirmed.

However, on some cases the Fornell Lacker Criterion fails to identify discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). Therefore, Henseler et al. (2015) suggested doing heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) test to ascertain discriminant validity. In an ideal model, heterotrait correlations should be smaller than monotrait correlations, meaning the HTMT ratio should be below 1.0 (Garson, 2016). According to Henseler et al. (2015), discriminant validity would be established between a given pair of reflective constructs if the HTMT value is below 0.90. Garson (2016), and Gold et al. (2001) also use the 0.90 cutoff, though Kline (2011) used the more stringent cutoff of 0.85. Results show that all the value of HTMT are below 0.90, it can be concluded that discriminant validity has been established (See Appendix C, Table C2).

The next method to test discriminant validity is by the cross loading criterion. According to Henseler et al (2009), the value of cross loading will be considered valid when measurement item value is higher than their cross-loadings. As found in Table C3 (See

Appendix C), the loading value of intended construct is greater than loading value of their cross loading. Hence, this supports discriminant validity as well.

Construct Reliability Test

Construct reliability test could be established using the value of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, and value of rho A. As Wong (2019) stated that the value of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability should be above 0.70, while rho A demanded value 0.70 or greater to be accepted as reliable. Hence, reliability is ensured in this study (See Table C4, Appendix C).

Collinearity Statistics (VIF) Test

Multicollinearity assumption aims to confirm that there is no independent variables that are highly intercorrelated. Acceptable correlation values should not be greater than 10 (Hair et al., 1995). Hence, absence of multicollinearity is confirmed (See Table C5, Appendix C).

Evaluation of Structural Model (Inner Model)

Outer model was established with the assurance of validity and reliability, following which, inner model was ascertained with coefficient of determination (R^2) and predictive relevance (Q^2).

Coefficient of Determination (R-Square)

Coefficient of determination refers to how much of the variation of endogen variables can be explained with exogenous variables in the research. The measurement values are 0 to 1(0.19 as weak, 0.33 as moderate, and 0.67 as substantial).

In this research, variable endogen is work outcome, which could be explained by work experience, work value, and cultural dimension. While work experience and work values were influenced by cultural dimension. Results show that R-Square or coefficient of determination of work experience is 0.115. The result indicates that endogen variable (work experience) could be explained by its exogenous variable for 12% of its variance, while 88% was impacted by other variables outside this research. Work outcome could be moderately explained by work experience, work value, and cultural dimension (estimated at 46%). Lastly, work value is weakly explained by cultural dimension with only 1% effect (See Appendix C, Table C6).

Blindfolding (Q-Square)

Predictive relevance (Q^2) measures how good the value of observation result is. According to Hair et al. (2017) if the measurement value (Q^2) greater than 0, it indicates that the predictive relevance to the endogenous construct is confirmed. The results show, predictive relevance as estimated were 0.059, 0.353, and 0.028, which all are above 0, thus it can be concluded that this research model has predictive value (See Table C7, Appendix C).

Evaluation of Model Fit

The evaluation of model fit on this research conducted by two tests; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) and normal fit index (NFI). Results imply that the structural model in this research is categorized as a good fit because standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) value is below 1.00. Furthermore, the value of normal fit index (NFI) measured for 63% (0.626) greater than null model. Additionally, Chi-square pass the requirement above 0.90, counted for 2,408.245 (See Appendix C, Table C8).

Hypotheses Testing

Measuring the value of Path Coefficient and T-statistic with bootstrapping procedure was done for hypotheses testing. According to Helm et al. (2009) and Hair et al. (2014), the value of path coefficients between -1 to +1, where the values greater than +1 indicate strong and positive correlations while path coefficients which have values closer to -1 show strong negative correlations. The value range of T-statistic is ± 1.96. Cohen (f^2) as a measurement for seeing the effect size of a path model. According to Cohen (1988) and Hair et al. (2014), its value can be categorized as small (0.02), medium (0.35), and high (0.35).

Results show that work experience strongly and positively associates with work outcome. It shown by the result test among them with the value of path coefficient 0.683 approaching +1, T-Statistic 11.274 (above 1.96), f-square 0.836 (high effect) and a p-value of 0.000 (below 0.05). It can be concluded that the more positive the work experiences, the more positive the work outcomes. Thus, H10 is rejected and H1a is accepted.

Work value does not significantly associate with work outcome. This supported by the value of path coefficients 0.144 close to +1, T-Statistic value 1.746 (less than 1.96), f-square counted for 0.037 (small effect), and the value of p-value 0.081 (more than 0.05). For that reason, it can be summarized that work value has no effect on work outcome. Thus, H20 is confirmed and H2a is denied.

Cultural dimension has a positive and significant correlation with work experience. The value of path coefficient is 0.339 nearly +1, T-Statistic 3.302 (>1.96), f-square 0.130 (small effect), and p-value 0.001 (<0.05). Thus, H30 is rejected and H3a approved.

Lastly, there is no association between cultural dimension and work value, with a path coefficient value of -0.24 (close to -1), the value of T-Statistic 2.138 (>1.96), f-square 0.058 (small effect) and p-value 0.058 (>0.05). Hence, H40 is confirmed and H4a is denied.

Multi-Group Analysis (MGA)

According to Garson (2016), Multi-Group Analysis (MGA) is used to determine if the PLS model significantly differs between groups. For this research, MGA was used to determine if there were differences in the models for Generation X and Generation Y for the measured variables.

Confidence Intervals (Bias Corrected)

This method computes the bias-corrected confidence intervals for the group specific estimations of parameters in the PLS path model. The group-specific results of a path coefficient are significantly different if the bias-corrected confidence intervals do not overlap (Hair et al., 2018; Henseler et al., 2018). A confidence interval (CI) that includes the value one indicates a lack of discriminant validity (Henseler et al. 2015). Since the confident intervals in the present study excluded one, discriminant validity is confirmed (Appendix E, Table E1).

Comparison Hypotheses Testing Amongst Generation X and Generation Y

To test the proposed hypotheses, a comparison of the value of path coefficients and T-Statistics between the two generations were conducted using bootstrapping procedure. The results show that (Appendix E, Table E2) there were no differences in correlation between work experience and work outcome among Generation X and Generation Y. The correlation value was positive (β = 0.636) and significant (t = 5.010, p = 0.000) for generation X, and positive (β = 0.738) and significant (t = 11.442, p = 0.000) for Generation Y as well.

However, the correlation between work value and work outcome varied between Generation X and Generation Y. The correlation was found to be positive (β = 0.192) but not significant (t = 1.344, p = 0.179) for Generation X, while it was positive (β = 0.160) and significant (t = 1.566, p = 0.117) for Generation Y.

Cultural dimension, too, had a differential impact on work experience among generation X and generation Y. The correlation was positive (β = 0.072) but not significant (t= 0.237, p = 0.812) for Generation X, but it was positive (β = 0.457) and significant (t = 3.873, p= 0.000) for Generation Y.

On the other hand, there were no differences between the association of cultural dimension and work value among generation X and generation Y. The correlation was negative (β = -0.261) and not significant (t = 0.956, p = 0.339) for generation X and negative (β = -0.301) and not significant (t = 1.933, p = 0.053) for Generation Y.

Moderator Hypothesis Testing

Probability Multi- Group Analysis, Parametric Test and Welch-Satterthwait Test were conducted to test the moderator hypotheses, namely, that Generation would act as a moderator of the associations between the different variables.

Probability Multi-Group Analysis

To test for differences in group-specific results that builds on the PLS-SEM bootstrapping results, the non-parametric probability multi-group analysis was conducted. A result is significant at the 5% probability of error level, if the p-value is smaller than 0.05 or larger than 0.95 for a certain difference of group-specific path coefficients (Hair et al., 2018; Henseler et al., 2018). Based on the result of Probability PLS-MGA (Table E3, Appendix E), generation did not moderate the correlation of work experiences with work outcomes, with a non-significant p-value of 0.811 at α = 5%. The path coefficient difference of 0.102 showed positive association. Similarly, generation did not moderate the correlation between work value and work outcome, with a non-significant p-value of 0.420 at α = 5%.The value of path coefficient difference of 0.032 showed positive correlation. Generation also did not moderate the correlation between cultural dimension and work experience, with a non-significant p-value of 0.878 at α = 5%. A path coefficient difference of 0.385 showed positive association. Lastly, generation did not moderate the correlation between cultural dimension and work value, with a non-significant p-value of 0.516 at α = 5%. The path coefficient difference of 0.040 showed positive association.

Parametric Test

To test the difference of group-specific PLS-SEM results that assumes equal variances across groups, a Parametric Test PLS-MGA was conducted (Table E4, Appendix E). Generation was found to not moderate the correlation between work experience and work outcome, with a non-significant p value of 0.423 at α = 5%. The value of path coefficient difference of 0.102 showed positive correlation.

Generation also did not moderate the correlation between work value and work outcome, computed to have a non-significant p-value of 0.852 at α = 5%. Path coefficient difference value of 0.032 showed positive correlation. Generation similarly did not moderate the correlation between cultural dimension and work experience, with a non-significant p-value of 0.165 at α = 5%. The value of path coefficient difference of 0.385 showed positive correlation. Also, generation did not moderate the correlation between work value and work

outcome, with a non-significant p-value of 0.890 at α = 5%. Path coefficient difference value of 0.040 showed positive correlation.

Welch-Satterthwait Test

The results of Welch-Satterthwait Test (Table E5, Appendix E) showed that generation did not moderate the correlation between work experiences and work outcome, with a non-significant p-value of 0.471 at α = 5%. A path coefficient difference value of 0.102 showed positive association. Generation also did not moderate the correlation between work value and work outcome, with a non-significant p-value of 0.855 at α = 5%. The value of path coefficient difference of 0.032 showed positive correlation. Generation also did not moderate the correlation between cultural dimension and work experience, with a non-significant p-value of 0.238 at α = 5% and a path coefficient difference of 0.385 which showed positive association. Generation also did not moderate the correlation between cultural dimension and work value, with a non-significant p-value of 0.898 at α = 5%, and a path coefficient difference of 0.040 which showed positive association.

Discussion

Effect of Work Outcome

Work experience was positively associated with work outcome and hence, the first hypothesis (H1) was accepted. This finding is in line with past research (Weiss et al.,2014). However, this association did not vary between Generation X and Generation Y. This suggests that work satisfaction and intention to remain came with perceptions of autonomy and respect at the workplace, and that this was universal. Hence, feeling respected and independent is a basic need to be met in the workplace. This has been witnessed in previous research as well (Andrisani and Nestel, 1976).

Work value was not associated with work outcome and hence, the second hypothesis (H2) was rejected. However, this association varied by generation. While work value did not affect work outcome for Generation X, work value increased work outcome for Generation Y. This is in line with past research, which found that the younger generation of workers made work-related decisions based on person-organisation fit and values more so than the older generation (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008).

The Effect of Culture

Furthermore, culture positively affected work experience, hence, the third hypothesis (H3) was accepted. Similarly, culture did not affect work experience for Generation X but positively affected work experience for Generation Y, suggesting that the younger generation were more conscious about personal preferences and characteristics when seeking employment than the older generation (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008). In contrast, culture did not affect work value. This did not vary by generation either. This could be because all the participants in the study were from southeast Asian regions which may have had very similar work cultures.

Effect of Generation

Generation did not affect the relationship between any of the variables, as such, H5 to H8 were rejected. This could be because the conservative work culture in the southeast Asian region (Bjerke, 2000) meant that the values and behaviors that were prioritized by the older generation were passed down to future generations, as such, resulting in similar work values, outcomes and experiences between both generations.

Limitations, Implications and Future Directions

Even though generational differences were not found, the present study found important variables that would affect work outcomes. Future studies should broaden the sample to ensure that no specific generation is overrepresented. Based on the results of research, it is suggested that there should be more opportunities to improve multi-functional experience by rotation or by having inter-department projects. Specifically, the aspect that related to interpersonal factors. The relationship among the executives with senior management, as well as opportunities for independent and autonomous working. These findings would be the key to align the expectations of executives and senior management.

Acknowledgment

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