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**VÁLTÁS VAGY MARADÁS: A “JOB-HOPPING” JELENSÉGE A
MAGYAR ÉS JAPÁN MUNKAERŐ PIACON**

**SHIFTING OR STAYING: THE JOB-HOPPING PHENOMENON ON
THE HUNGARIAN AND JAPANESE LABOUR MARKET**

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.....	OECD
Kanda University of International Studies	KUIS
Budapest Business University	BBU

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INTRODUCTION

Young individuals are an essential component of the labour force, and it appears that when seeking employment opportunities, they place significant emphasis on their own preferences. The younger generation have initiated a process of altering the labour market to better align with their own requirements.

3 research questions will serve as the foundation for this research:

- 1. To what extent does Hungary and Japan experience the job-hopping phenomenon?**
- 2. What are the motivations of the Hungarian and Japanese youth for navigating on the labour market?**
- 3. Are there any significant cultural differences which influences Hungary and Japan experiencing this phenomenon?**

To be able to answer my research question I will conduct a primary and secondary research. Firstly, in the secondary research and literature review, I will start with the explanation with the meaning of the job-hopping phenomenon to provide explanation on the main topic of my research. Then I would like to continue with the assessment of basic cultural differences that can provide basic information on understanding the two nations culture. Then I will assess secondary data on 27 OECD countries to support the existence of this phenomenon. I will also gather secondary data specifically in Hungary and Japan individually and then for comparison to tell whether this phenomenon occurs in these countries.

Then I will follow with my primary research, to find out the reasons of why the Japanese and Hungarian youth would change jobs several times in their career. The primary research will include a survey that I conducted among Japanese and Hungarian undergraduate students regarding this topic. The quantitative data will be analysed with statistical measures supplemented by the evaluation of the qualitative data that I received.

In the third part of my research, I would like to answer my research questions. I will assess if there's any cultural differences and other reasons that can cause the occurrence of this phenomenon. Then I would like to make an assessment on how the youths behaviour restructured the labour market and make speculations for the future. Lastly, I would like to explain why is this topic important in the perspective of organizations, and suggest organizational models which can be implemented to increase employee engagement.

The reason for make a comparative analysis specifically on these countries is that I have pursued my studies in Japan for one year with university scholarship. With this opportunity I had the chance to conduct my primary research on the multitude of Japanese undergraduate

students. With the data from both Japan and Hungary, the primary objective of this comparative analysis is to ascertain the features of the Job-hopping phenomenon specifically on the case of the Hungarian and Japanese youth. I believe that the comparison of Japan and Hungary can provide some interesting insights on the multi-faceted nature of the youth labour market for the reason of cultural and nation-based institutional differences.

From an individual standpoint, as a university student in the completion of my studies and preparing to enter the labour market, I am also affected by this subject matter.

Researching in this topic can provide valuable insight that can be utilized in many different ways in the perspective of a human resource department of an organization in the processes of recruitment, onboarding, and training.

I would like to state here that this research is entirely based on my research on “The job-hopping phenomenon on the Hungarian and Japanese labour market.” which I made for the Student Research Societies Conference. This thesis work is merely an extended version of the previously stated research. I would like to cite to this work now which will apply to the entirety of this thesis. (Csiszár, 2023)

1. JOB-HOPPING OR FREQUENT JOB CHANGES

Firstly, I would like to introduce you to the main subject of my research by explain the meaning of job-hopping in modern day context to be able to understand this phenomenon.

The occurrence of job-hopping, which refers to the practice of people often changing jobs, poses considerable issues for both companies and individuals. In recent years, there has been an observable trend of increased job mobility among workers. This phenomenon implies that their behaviour is impacted by underlying variables that are not readily apparent. The phenomenon in question eludes a comprehensive explanation based solely on rational factors. Hence, it is imperative to comprehend the phenomena of frequent job changes. This study aims to investigate the phenomena of workforce turnover and explore the underlying motives, preferences, and reasons that drive employees to seek changes in their employment. The objective is to design more effective tactics for maintaining the workforce based on a comprehensive understanding of these factors (Török-Kimoskó et al, 2023).

In the HR perspective this phenomenon can be called as “Big Quit”. The phrase referred to the notable voluntary attrition of employees witnessed in numerous countries globally in recent years. The phenomenon under consideration exerts a significant influence on the operational efficacy and commercial outcomes of enterprises, as well as on the labour market and overall economic conditions. Consequently, it is imperative for employers to undertake all feasible measures to mitigate its effects (Deloitte, 2023).

2. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

To be able to make a comprehensive comparative analysis, the cultural differences of Hungary and Japan has to be acknowledged in the very beginning.

The comparison of Hungary and Japan, which are in different continents, have different norms and customs. These cultural differences can marginally influence the countries business culture as well. In, order to try to understand the Japanese and Hungarian business culture, the two countries must be compared with each other to define the cultural differences.

The comparison will be done according to the Hofstede model. The Hofstede model analyses the 6 dimensions of national culture. In part 2 of my research, I will be citing information from the Hofstede country comparison tool so I would like to cite the website now and I would like this citation to be applied on entirety of part 2 and part 3 (Hofstede, 2023).

2.1. Power distance index

Considering power distance index, Hungary got 46 points while Japan got 54. This suggests that Japanese people accept that power is distributed unequally, the hierarchical order is a characteristic of Japanese society. Hungary achieving lower points, means that Hungarians does not accept inequalities and hierarchical order as much as Japanese do. They prefer being more autonomous, having a hierarchy only when necessary, having equal rights, having easy access to superiors, having management that coaches its leaders, and so on and so forth.

With a score of 54, Japan is on the cusp between being a flat society and a highly stratified one. In every social situation, every Japanese person must be aware of their position in social hierarchy and behave accordingly. However, the Japanese social structure is not as rigid as other Asian cultures (Hofstede,2023).

2.2. Individualism versus collectivism

In individualism, Hungary achieved 80 points and Japan 46. The Hungarian social structure is individualist, members of the society are expected to take care of only of themselves and those of his or her immediate family. People in an individualistic society prefer having human relationships in small communities where they are responsible only for their own needs and those of their close contacts. On the other hand, Japanese society can be characterized with collectivism, so in the Japanese social order the members of a family or ingroup are compelled to look out for not only themselves, but also one another in in hope of mutual benefit. Japanese culture displays many of the hallmarks of a collectivistic society, such as the prevalence of a keen sense of shame for losing face and the prioritization of group harmony over the expression of individual opinions. Traditionally, the eldest son in Japan would receive the family's name and assets from his father. Younger children left home to support themselves and join extended families (Hofstede, 2023).

2.3. Masculinity versus femininity

In masculinity both countries achieved high points, Japan got 95 and Hungary got 88 points. Japan got higher points which means that the Japanese society can be characterized slightly more masculine. A masculine nation is aspirational, aggressive, has materialistic values competitive. They place an emphasis on fairness, competition, and success; conflicts are resolved through open conflict; and managers are held to a higher standard of decisiveness and assertiveness. Hungary with 88 points is slightly more feminine than Japan, Hungarian society

reflects more on mutual benefit, kindness to the helpless, and life satisfaction. Furthermore, the opinion of the public in a more feminine nation shifts toward seeking common ground.

Japan can be considered one of the world's most masculine society in the past century. But in tandem with their mild collectivism, you will not find the aggressive and competitive individual behaviours that are typically associated with male-dominated societies. What you are witnessing is fierce competition between diverse groups. For example, children as young as five learn to compete for their teams on sports day at kindergarten (typically a red team versus a white team) (Hofstede,2023).

2.4. Uncertainty avoidance index

In the Uncertainty avoidance index Hungary got 82 and Japan got 92 points. This index shows that Japanese people have more discomfort with the ambiguity and uncertainty than Hungarian people. Both countries scoring high means that these societies tend to adhere to strict moral and ethical standards and show little tolerance for deviations from the norm, furthermore they prefer to specify their future. Time is money, people have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, and security is an essential element in individual motivation in these cultures.

Hungary scoring lower than Japan can mean that Hungary is slightly more laid back, and prioritizes practicality over principle, and doesn't mind if their future is unpredictable as much as Japan does.

Japan with 92 points, is among the highest-ranking countries, it's one of those which shies away from the unknown the most. Natural disasters such as earthquakes, tsunamis (a Japanese word used internationally), typhoons, and volcanic eruptions are a constant threat in Japan. Because of this, Japanese people have become experts at being ready for anything. This applies to all sides of society, not just the contingency plan and safety measures for unexpected natural disasters. You could say that in Japan, everything is prescribed so that the results are guaranteed to be consistent. Life is highly ritualized and there are many ceremonies from birth to death (Hofstede,2023).

2.5. Long term orientation versus short term normative orientation

Comparing Hungary and Japan based on their long-term orientation Hungary scored 58 points, on the other hand Japan scored 88. This means that Japan is more resolute towards making efforts in present times to move forward in the future even the chance to the detriment of cultural heritage. Scoring less points, as Hungary did compared to Japan means that Hungary

can be considered a more normative society. Hungary puts first traditions and norms instead of societal change.

With a score of 58 on this metric, Hungary in a more pragmatic country, tend to think that the truth is highly situational, contextual, and temporal. They show a propensity to save and invest, frugality, tenacity, and a readiness to adjust traditions to new circumstances. In contrast, Japan ranking among the highest with 88 points, have a tendency to view their own lives as fleeting blips in the vast timeline of humankind. It can be said that fatalism is well known in Japanese society. The concept of a single, all-powerful God is foreign to Japanese culture. Virtues and good examples in daily life serve as inspiration for people's daily actions (Hofstede, 2023).

2.6. Indulgence versus restraint.

In comparison of the two nations scores it can be found which one is a more indulgent and which one is more restrained society. Japan is the one that is a more restrained society scoring 42 points set side by side to Hungary which scored less than Japan, with 31 points it's a more indulgent society.

Both scoring low in this indicator means that both Societies are more restrained, cynicism and pessimism are hallmarks of these societies. Hungary in contrast to the slightly more restrained Japanese society, value work over play and limit the ease with which they indulge in their passions. Restrained individuals believe that they must restrain from showing emotions and behave according to the specific societal norms. Therefore, self-indulgence is considered to be unethical in this perspective (Hofstede, 2023).

3. BUSINESS CULTURE

Based on the cultural differences explained previously, let us see how these norms are integrated in the Japanese business culture.

3.1. Power distance index

The concept of power distance is easily identifiable in the context of Japanese management. There exists a significant disparity among workers based on Japanese cultural norms. This can be discovered for example when managers are treated casually on a first-name basis. Some international business people's perception of Japan is to have a notoriously slow decision-making process, which necessitates approval from higher-ups at every level of the organization before being implemented (Hofstede, 2023). The most evident characteristic of

Power distance in a Japanese corporation is hierarchical structuring (Ford, Honeycutt; 1992). The existence of a very rigid hierarchical system in Japan can be traced back to religion. Confucianism appeared in Japan due to Chinese influence. This religion suggests that hierarchy is natural and unavoidable. Since then, hierarchical order is deeply embedded in Japanese culture (Subhash et al, 1993). Every individual possesses a designated position within the hierarchical framework of the corporation, and instances of ambiguity concerning one's placement within the organizational hierarchy are infrequent. The concepts of status, order, and harmony is intricately interconnected.

For example, the younger members of a team should generally remain quiet and defer to their seniors during the meetings. Their real job will be to go out drinking with the Japanese team's young executives at night. The Japanese like to convey important information (e.g., "Our boss was very angry at your offer today") via junior executives (Morrison, et al, 2006).

It's not common for employees to move to a higher position before turning 50, on that account, to have an opportunity to fill a high position such as chief executive typically happens around the age of 60. The order and structure mentioned above also lead to the categorization of firms within the prominent trading conglomerate known as zaibatsu.

The preservation of harmony is of utmost significance and must be upheld within all collective entities in Japan. We can conclude from this information that, in order to keep harmony and peace in society people must accept inequality in society and in a more specific context, within the corporation itself too.

3.2. Individualism versus collectivism

As of individualism Hungary, as an Individualist society the relationship between employers and employees in corporate context is viewed as a contractual arrangement that aims to benefit both parties. Consequently, decisions regarding hiring and promotion are ideally made solely on the basis of merit. In this context, management is primarily concerned with the effective management of individuals and for the time being the individuals are navigating in the business culture seeking the best opportunity for one-self (Hofstede, 2023).

In cultures that exhibit a greater degree of collectivism like Japan does, individuals tend to display loyalty towards their primary social units, which may include their extended family and local community, based on their inherited membership within these groups. Inherited membership, in corporate context means that the individuals foster the relationship of the whole, partially because it will arise the progress of one-self, like promotion. One example that appears paradoxical is the renowned loyalty of Japanese individuals towards their companies,

in contrast to a more individualistic society like Hungary where there's a relatively higher tendency of switch jobs more frequently.

Decisions are made within the group with little or no personal recognition. A person's actions reflect on the group, particularly his or her family. Outsiders must be accepted into the group before they can participate in decision-making. Japanese are usually more subjective than objective, disregarding facts and arguing based on their own ideas, to strive for consensus within their groups. Therefore, individuals are prepared to change their position for the sake of group harmony (Morrison, et al, 2006).

However, the concept of company loyalty is a personal choice made by individuals, reflecting an individualistic mindset does appear in Japanese context. It can be argued that the concept of the Japanese in-group is contingent upon the specific situation at hand. Therefore, it is relative if Japanese society's perceived as collectivist or individualistic even though it scored low on this indicator. It can be concluded that according to Western standards, it can be considered collectivist, meanwhile being perceived as individualistic according to Asian standards, because they exhibit a higher degree of privacy and reservation compared to the majority of other Asian populations (Hofstede, 2023).

3.3. Masculinity versus femininity

In Japanese corporate culture can be characterized with masculinity instead of femininity. Workers in Japanese corporations are at their most energized when they feel like they are contributing to an overall victory. Everything from the quality of their material goods (monodukuri) to the presentation of their services (hotels and restaurants) and the packaging (gift wrapping and food presentation) is a reflection of Japanese men's commitment to excellence and perfection. Masculinity also reflects the employee's behaviour and actions (Hofstede, 2023).

According to Moran, Abramson, and Moran (2014), the high scores achieved by Japanese individuals indicate a tendency towards assertiveness and adherence to stereotypical emotional gender roles. Considering this perspective, it would be ill-advised for a male leader to enter an organization and inquire about the emotional state of the workers. In the Japanese context, if a male leader has "feminine" attributes can be a downside of receiving respect and change coworkers' perception of their credibility. An alternative method of undermining the credibility of a leader involves the deliberate implementation of decisions that possess a significant degree of ambiguity.

Male dominance is still strong in public situations. Gender roles in society are clearly differentiated which is a masculine significant characteristic of Japanese business culture but a desire for Western-style equality is growing among Japanese youth (Morrison, et al, 2006).

3.4. Uncertainty avoidance index

The comfort of certainty appears at many aspects of Japanese everyday life including the workplace. For example, there are strict norms on how to act in different social events. Etiquette books explain in thorough detail how to dress and act, for example at a funeral, wedding or business meeting.

Educators and government workers are wary of acting in ways that have no precedent. Before beginning any new project, Japanese corporations devote significant time and resources to conducting thorough feasibility studies and assessing all potential risks. Before making a call, managers want to see all the data at their disposal (Hofstede, 2023). Employees are generally expected to adhere to established protocols and guidelines, prioritizing compliance over the pursuit of innovation, even in situations where the latter may be deemed necessary. Additionally, inter-organizational mobility is not common because the employees are hesitant to transition to a new work culture.

Typically, there is a preference for adhering to stringent timetables, with individuals being anticipated to arrive promptly for various engagements and conform to established work procedures. The emphasis for promotion is placed on seniority rather than merit. Foreign managers may be viewed with suspicion due to their association with the unfamiliar or unknown (Takei; Alston, 2018). All in all, the preference of certainty can be a reason why it is hard to implement change in a very short time in the Japanese culture.

3.5. Long term orientation versus short term normative orientation

The long-term orientation is a main strategy of Japanese corporations. For example, the focus of Japanese corporations is evident in their dedication to R&D (Matsushita, 2015) spending even in bad economic times, their emphasis on expanding their market share over increasing profits quarterly, and their high rate of own capital. These will contribute to the growth of the company in the long term. Companies exist to serve stakeholders and society at large for many generations, not just to maximize short-term profits for shareholders. An additional facet of commitment within the context of Japanese business pertains to the inclination towards long-term strategic planning. Certain Japanese companies demonstrate a willingness to incur financial losses during a specific timeframe in order to establish a

significant presence within a particular market. An additional facet of commitment within the context of Japanese business pertains to the inclination towards long-term strategic planning. Certain Japanese companies demonstrate a willingness to incur financial losses during a specific timeframe in order to establish a significant presence within a particular market (Ford, Honeycutt; 1992).

3.6. Indulgence versus restraint

Japan is a more restrained society compared to Hungary. One of the main examples of restraint in corporate context is how loyal committed Japanese workers are. Demonstrating loyalty to groups and corporations necessitates dedicating extensive periods of time to desk work or engaging with clients and colleagues. This phenomenon can be attributed to the fact that Japanese workers typically utilize only 50% of their legally mandated vacation entitlement. This implies that individuals in Japan exhibit a preference for engaging in work-related activities rather than utilizing their vacation time for personal leisure pursuits. Individuals often experience a sense of restriction due to societal norms, which subsequently hinders their pursuit of personal passions. For instance, employees harbour the belief that being on vacation may be perceived by their peers as an act of self-centeredness, potentially leading to a decline in their standing, performance assessments, and ultimately impeding opportunities for significant career advancements (Takei; Alston, 2018). Furthermore, having a "poker face" is one tool of restraint. Strong emotional expressions in public are unpopular in Japan.

The Japanese have very high anxiety about life because of the need to avoid embarrassment. There are constant pressures to conform. A very strong work ethic and strong group relationships give structure and stability to life. Emotional restraints are developed in childhood, and all behaviours are situation-bound. “Westerners” often will remain in doubt, because they won’t have a sure understanding of Japanese feelings. People will have a different “face” in different types of situations or different communities, consequently a different face for business situations. During business talks, people will think you lack self-control and are a dubious business partner if you display astonishment or fury (Morrison, et al, 2006).

4. THE YOUTH LABOUR MARKET TRENDS

Now let me introduce the secondary data that supports the job-hopping phenomenon in international perspective. In this section I will be analysing the Hungarian and Japanese data separately and competitively.

4.1. Changing workforce in OECD countries

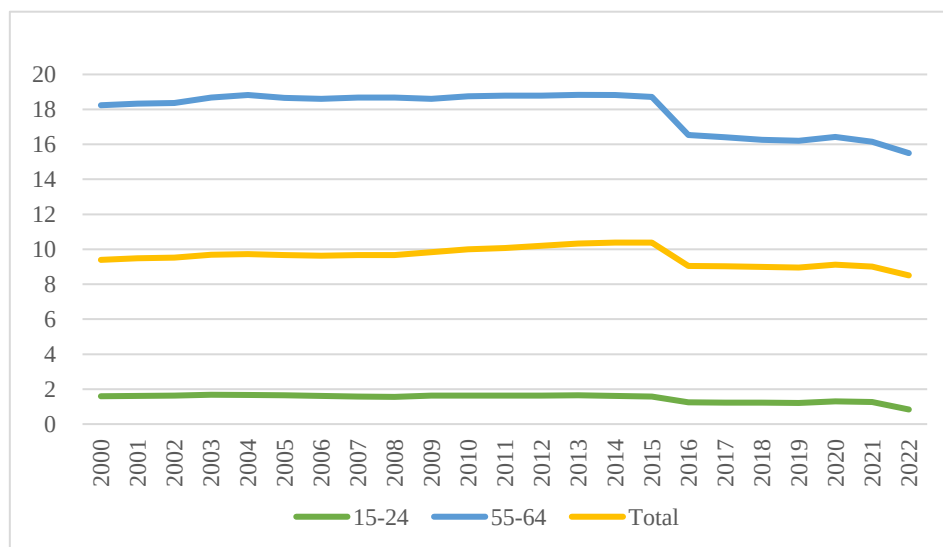
There is a wide range of information available on the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) website regarding the changes of labour market trends.

The following data on “job tenure” has been gathered based on an OECD survey question, quoted as "How long have you been continuously employed by your current employer/continuously self-employed?" (OECD, 2023).

As it can be seen in Figure 1, the average job tenure in 27 OECD countries significantly differs in different age groups. In case of 15–24-year-olds the average job tenure in 2022 was below a year with 0,8 years meanwhile among the 55–64-year-olds it's an average 15,5 across 27 OECD countries. Both age categories have seen a decrease in job tenure over the duration of 2000 to 2022. In case of the younger category there was a decrease of 0,8 years, and for the older category there was a more significant decrease of 2,7 years. The duration of employment is seeing a downward trend within the OECD among all generations. From the year 2014, the average job tenure has decreased or stayed the same. There was a notable decrease of 1,3 years in the average duration of employment for individuals within the same occupation among all generations. From the year 2000 to 2022 the average job tenure of 27 OECD countries among all ages has seen a decrease of 0,9 years.

It can be concluded that the job-hopping phenomenon does exist not exclusively in the younger age group but in fact in the older age group as well but in the younger age group it is the most significant in OECD countries.

Figure 1: Job tenure in 27 OECD countries on average (in years)

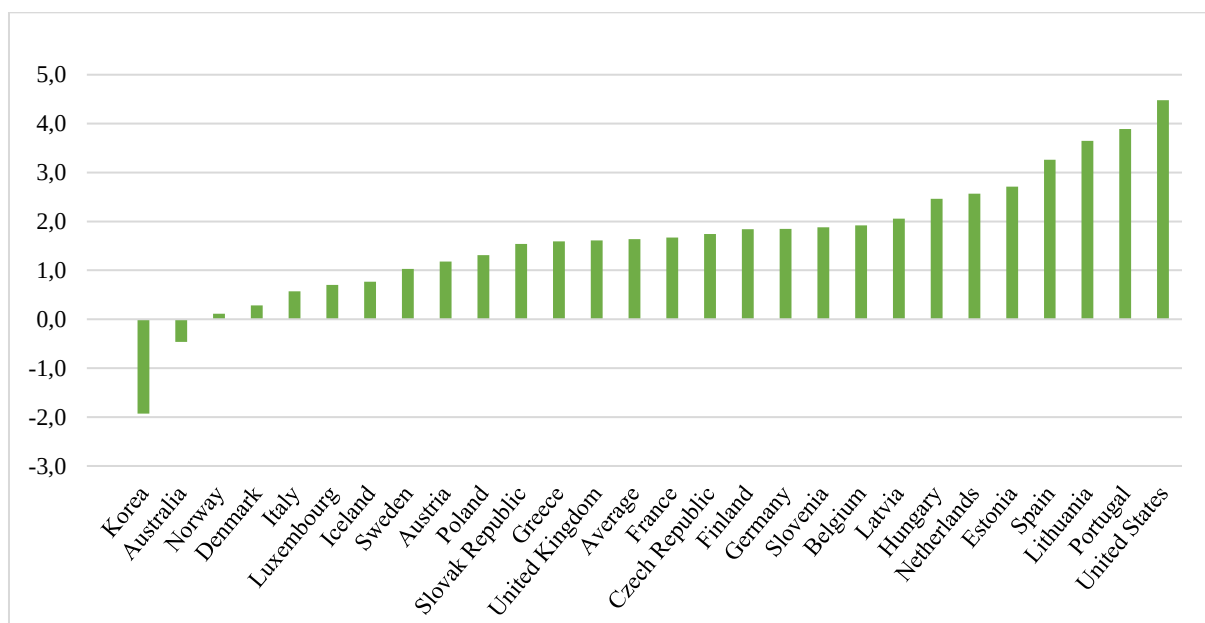


Source: OECD (2023)

The phenomenon of decreasing job duration is observed in conjunction with a heightened frequency of job transitions among individuals. Specifically, around one-fifth of the workforce undergoes a change in their working circumstances on an annual basis. Moreover, the rate of job transitions has exhibited an upward trend in 24 out of the 27 OECD nations for which longitudinal data is accessible.

The most frequent type of job transitions has been “job-to-job” transitions. According to the OECD research, “job-to-job” transition means as quoted “Individuals who were employed in both the current and previous year, and who have been at the current employer less than 12 months”. As it can be seen in Figure 2, within 27 countries of the OECD (including Hungary, but not including Japan), over the period of 2012 to 2019 the average job-to-job transitions have increased by 1,6 percent. However there has been two exceptions of Korea (-1,9 percent) and Australia (-0,5 percent). In case of Hungary, it is higher than the average being an 2,5 percent of increase during the time period specified above.

Figure 2: Change in the rate of job-to-job transitions between 2012/14 and 2017/19 (in percentages)



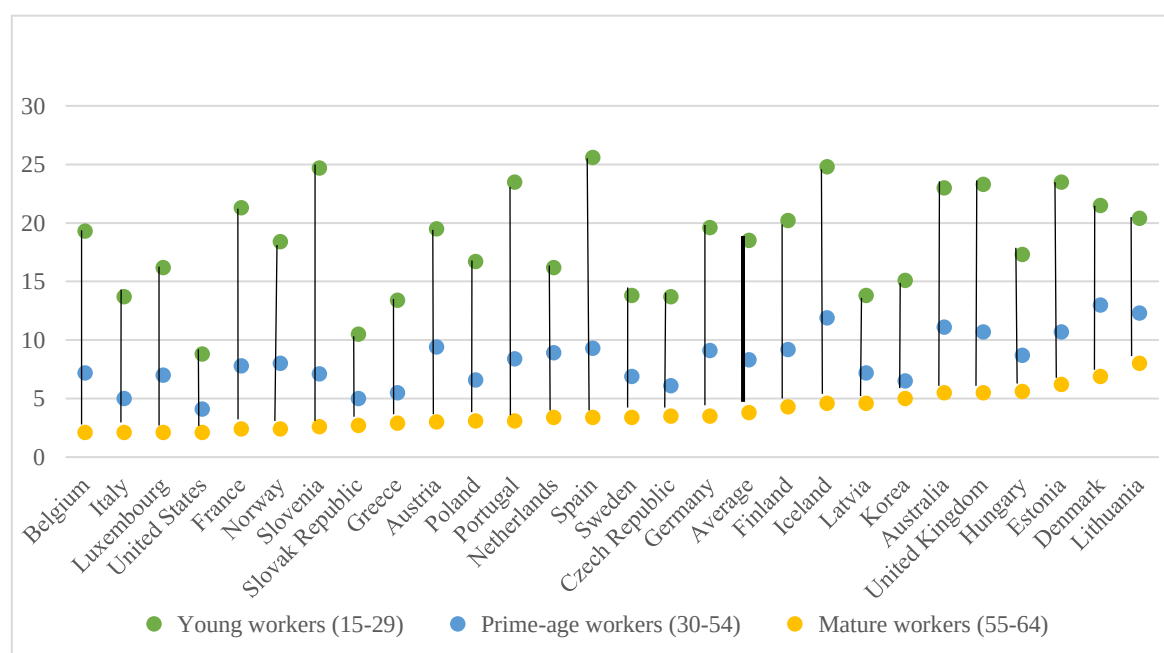
Source: OECD (2023)

According to Figure 3, it can be seen that on average of 27 OECD countries, older individuals exhibit a lower propensity to switch employment with 3,8 percent compared to the younger generation with 18,5 percent between the years of 2017 and 2019. This observation is indicative of the inclination of older workers to have a lower propensity for job transitions,

which can be attributed to their higher likelihood of having established a satisfactory alignment with their employer and enjoying greater stability in their personal lives. Additionally, it is possible that this trend may indicate employers' hesitations towards the recruitment of older individuals.

In case of Hungary the percentage of job-to-job transition among mature workers are higher than average with 5,6 percent. On the other hand, in case of young workers the percentage is lower than average with 17,3 percent. In 27 OECD countries in case of mature workers Hungary is the 4th highest percentage there is a high possibility that Hungarian mature workers will transition between jobs. In case of young workers, Hungary has the 9th lowest percentage of job-to-job transitioning. Regarding the biggest difference between the young and mature workers percentages Spain is the first with 22,2 percentage, Hungary is the 11th in percentage difference.

Figure 3: Job tenure in 27 OECD countries by age category (in years)



Sources: OECD (2023)

4.2. JAPANESE YOUTH

From nation to nation, and even from company to firm, there are substantial differences in what is considered job-hopping and it has to be analysed in specifically in Japanese context. To provide a more comprehensive understanding to the data I would like to present the unique features of the Japanese organizational culture and recruitment process.

4.1.1. Lifetime employment

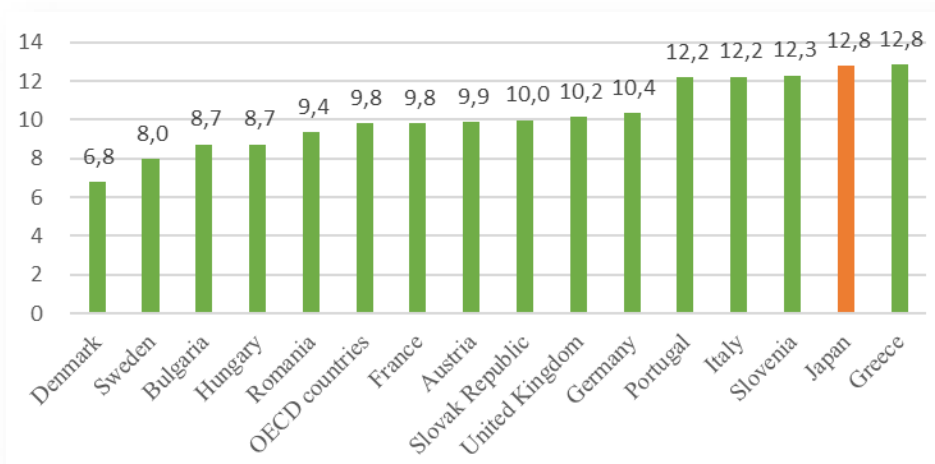
Despite its more common meaning of "lifetime employment," "shushin koyo" literally means "end-of-life employment." Many people have misunderstood the term to mean keeping workers on the payroll from the time they are very young until the day they die. This phrase is often used in a condescending context, where the employer and employee are expected to have a strong commitment to one another. It has been suggested that the employment relationship evolved from the samurai's traditional sense of loyalty in serving his master's obligation to his retainers (Mouer, 2007).

During World War II the Japanese government attempted to influence the wartime international labour market. As of April 1939, it made it illegal for companies to seize other companies' employees. A company needed government approval to hire a new employee, and permission from the employee's former employer to hire a skilled worker. The government effectively tried to freeze all workers in their 1941 positions by requiring company approval of all hiring, firing, and voluntary termination. "Skilled workers... remained ready to shift jobs, even illegally throughout World War II," despite the fact that turnover did decrease as a result of government directives. Consequently, from the beginning of World War I until the end of World War II, labour stability was eroded by both worker mobility in external labour markets when labour was tight and employers' willingness to fire even senior workers when labour was not tight. During periods of labour shortage, employers attempted but ultimately failed to create pay and seniority structures to entice workers to stay. Turnover was slowed but not stopped by government action. Even when it was against the law, both workers and employers were free to move around (Gilson et al, 1999).

According to David Flath (2014) it was not until after the war that this system really took off. It would appear that the lifetime employment system arose to shield the investments that businesses make in their employees' education and development in order for them to stay at a particular company. Rapid technological change in postwar Japan have been accompanied by shifts in the hiring practices of Japanese businesses. Permanent employment was made possible by the booming economy of the time (Moriguchi, et al, 2006 as cited in Shimada, 1994). Employment stability has become a common practice among large companies. These companies could more confidently plan for the future during times of sustained economic growth because the economy was easier to predict. Employers' confidence in human capital investments—the idea that employees are valuable resources—was bolstered by the security of long-term employment relationships (OECD, 2022).

Compared to OECD countries, lifetime employment is still a present-day phenomenon in Japanese context. As it can be seen in Figure 1, Japan's average length of service is significantly longer than the OECD average of 9,8 years in 2022. In 2022, Greece and Japan have the longest average length of service in the OECD, at 12.8 years. When compared to the rest of the OECD countries, Hungary's average age of 8.7 years is closer to the norm. Considering that Denmark has the shortest length of service at 6.8 years on average, we can see that Japan's is incredibly excessive, almost doubling the corresponding figure for Denmark.

Figure 4: Average length of service in OECD countries and Japan (in years)



Source: OECD (2023)

Lifetime employment is said to be at the heart of Japanese corporate governance and labour relations because it encourages companies to invest in their employees' human capital and it was backed by other Japanese governance institutions like cross-shareholdings, internal boards of directors, and the central bank system (Gilson et al, 1999).

This particular lifestyle may not be universally suitable, yet it does possess several advantages as well. Certain Japanese employees' express acceptance towards this phenomenon due to the stability it affords, as the termination of employment is quite challenging in Japan, hence ensuring a high level of job security for individuals. In Japan, certain individuals may choose stability to a greater extent than factors such as working hours or circumstances. Many individuals also desire a sense of belonging and perceive their colleagues as akin to members of their own family. This notion of belonging operates reciprocally, naturally. Individuals commit their existence and professional endeavours to an organization, so establishing a sense of belonging and receiving provisions for their well-being in reciprocation. The concept in question is deeply ingrained within the cultural fabric of Japan, to the extent that the term used

to describe the process of seeking employment, "Shusha (就社)," directly derives from the notion of "belonging." (Japandev, 2023)

Certain traditional Japanese corporations have the belief that an individual's professional value is limited until they have accumulated several years of work experience. It is widely held that the process of training an individual is time-consuming. Consequently, providing employees with long-term employment opportunities enables organizations to impart specialized training tailored to the specific job requirements, thereby maximizing employee performance and productivity. As a result, changing employment was relatively rare in Japan. Within this particular structure, the sole career option available is limited to positions within the confines of the same organization. Employees that consistently fulfil their work responsibilities and maintain satisfactory performance levels have the potential to advance within the organizational structure of the company. Although it is not entirely impossible to be terminated from employment, such a circumstance typically arises only in cases of persistent absenteeism or contractual breaches. However, for the majority of "seishain" (full-time employees), the likelihood of facing dismissal is rather low (Japandev, 2023).

4.1.2. Japanese recruitment among fresh graduates

The Japanese employment systems unique characteristic is hiring third year university students, who will start work in big organizations or businesses right after graduation. This creates a niche in the job market specifically for recent college graduates (Brinton, 2011). When a corporation hires you directly out of college, which is and has been the default in Japan for a long time (the shinotsu system), they have an obligation for you as well. Similar to the commitment you will make by devoting your life and relinquishing any potential for a versatile profession, the organization will assume the responsibility of providing employee training and ensuring your well-being until your retirement (Japandev, 2023).

This system allows businesses to streamline the hiring, screening, and training of new employees, but it also distorts the labour market by allowing recent graduates to find work immediately after graduation, regardless of whether they have the necessary skills. Those young people who are not a part of the system, have a harder time finding reliable employment. Therefore, favourable results for a senior student upon completion of their academic program are when they get accepted to a company for full-time employment. The discourse surrounding the transition of young individuals into "shakaijin" which means adult members of society, often implies that their integration mainly involves accepting the role of "kaishain" that is employees working for a company (Brinton, 2011)

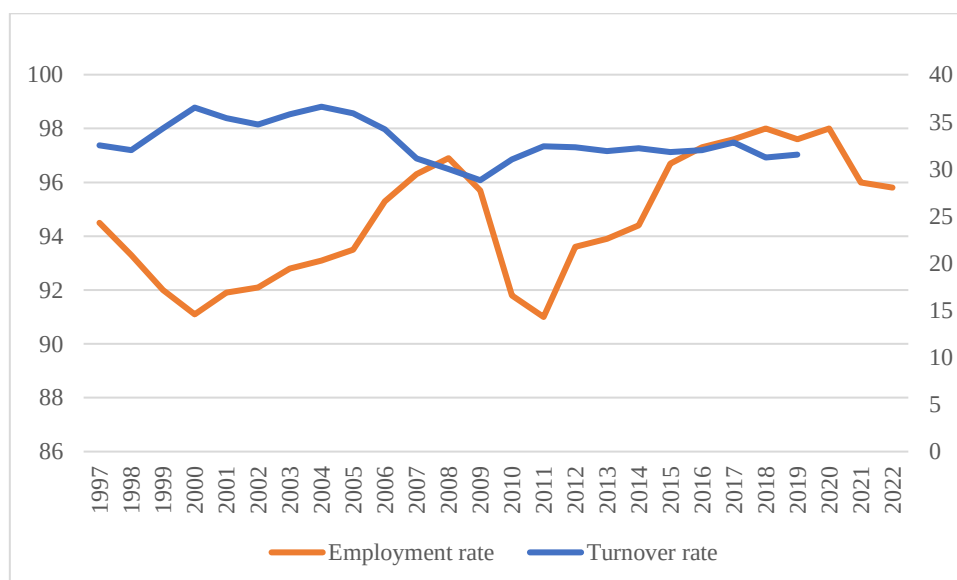
4.1.3. Japanese youth labour market in modern days

Now, in this explained context a comprehensive understanding can be facilitated on the situation of the youth labour market based on a survey conducted by the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare Japan. Analysing the results of this survey provides specific insights on the phenomenon of job-hopping.

As it can be seen in Figure 4, the job turnover rate among recently employed graduates within three years of graduating in March 2019 exhibited a year-on-year increase. The percentage of university graduates who left their jobs increased by 0,2 percentage points to reach 31,5 percentages. The job turnover rate has decreased from 1999 to 2019 from 32.5 percent to 31,5 percent. There has been a significant decrease in 2009 the turnover rate has decreased to as low as 28,8 percent and employment rate has decreased to 91,0 percent 7which can be attributed to the 2009 recession. Furthermore, among the deteriorating business conditions caused by the pandemic, the employment rate has been declining since 2020 until 2022 reaching 95,8 percentages.

The turnover rate can also be associated with the size of the organization where the Japanese fresh graduates are employed.

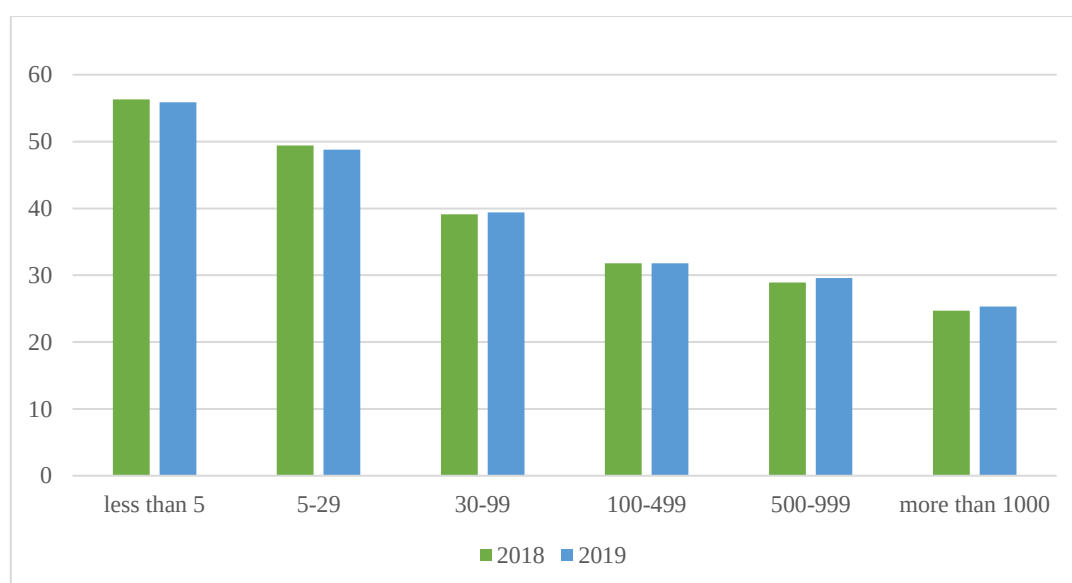
Figure 5: Employment rate of new graduates and the departure rate within 3 years of employment (in percentages) (Employment rate indicated on left, Turnover rate indicated on right axis)



Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Japan (2022), slightly modified

As it can be seen in Figure 5, the fresh university graduates are more likely to quit their job when the size of the organization is smaller, there's a 56,3-percentage turnover rate in case of organizations with 5 or less employees and 24,7 percentage turnover rates in case of organizations that have more than 1000 employees in 2018. If the year-on-year changes are analysed the turnover rate has seen a decrease in the organizations with maximum 29 employees and the turnover rate has increased in organizations with above 30 employees from 2018 to 2019.

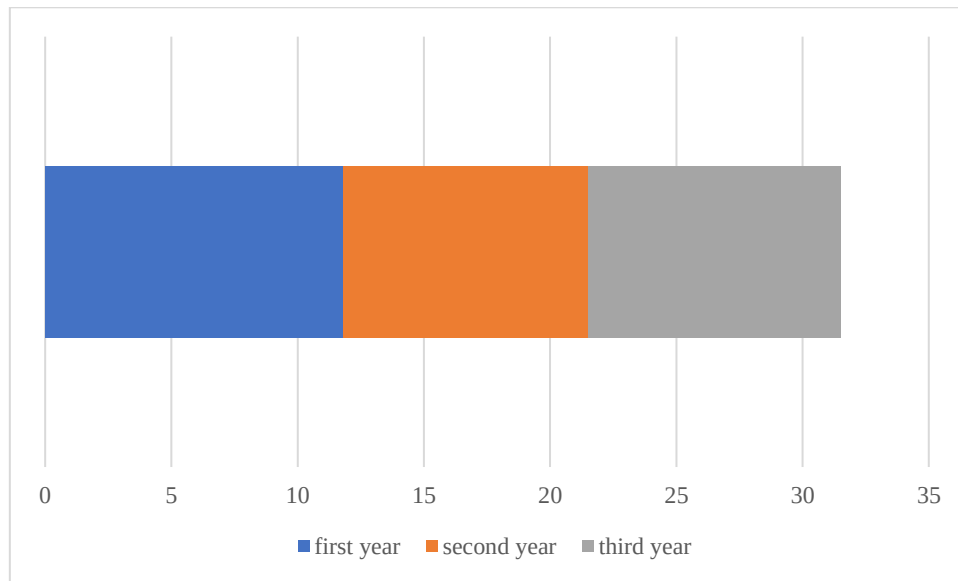
Figure 6: Job turnover rate within 3 years of employment by establishment size for new college graduates (in percentages)



Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Japan (2022), slightly modified

As it was stated before, the university students' turnover rate was 31,5 percent in 2019. Figure 6 shows, that this consist of 11,8 percent of this were first year, 9,7 percent were second year and 10,0 percent were third year after graduation. This shows that the university students who are employed in their first year after graduation are the most motivated to switch organizations followed by students who are employed in their third year after graduation, however we have to keep in mind that these include organizations of all sizes.

Figure 7: Job turnover rate for university graduates entering the workforce in March, 2019



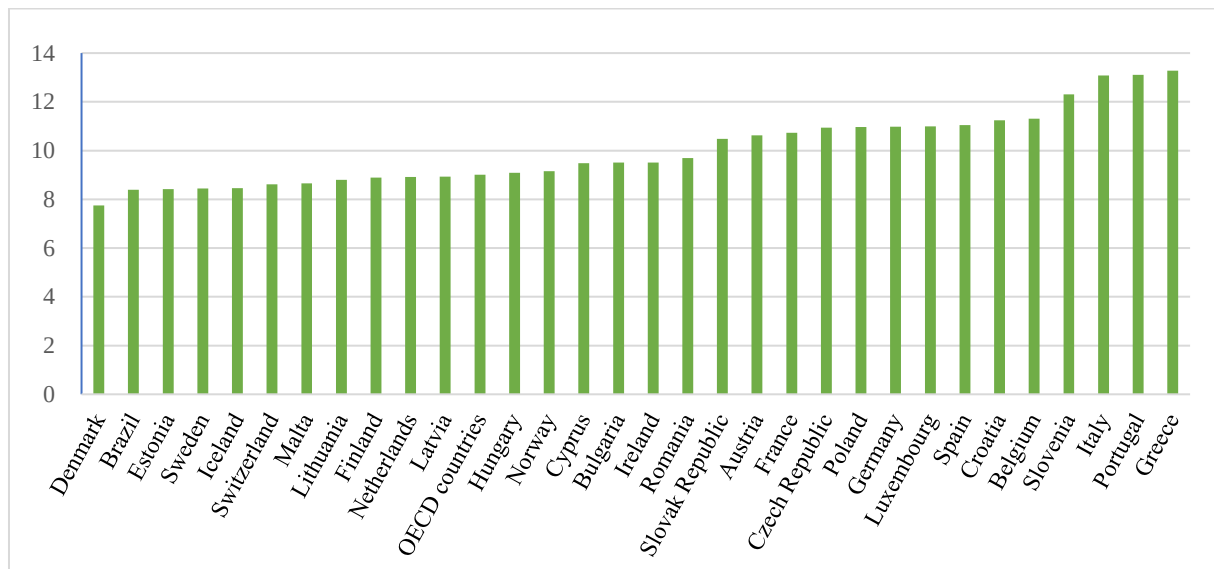
Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Japan (2022), slightly modified

4.3. Hungarian youth

The notion of lifelong employment has become obsolete in Hungarian context, and contemporary young individuals are inclined to anticipate career transitions occurring at regular intervals of approximately 3, 5, or 10 years. According to Figure 7, which shows the employment by job tenure in 27 OECD countries in 2021. It can be seen that the average duration of employment for individuals were 9 years. The average duration of education in Hungary was only slightly bigger with 9,1 years.

Greece ranks first in terms of job devotion, boasting an average tenure of 13,3 years. However, it is worth noting that employees in Portugal, Slovenia, and Italy also exhibit considerable commitment to their jobs, with a minimum tenure of 11 years. The level of loyalty exhibited by Latvians and Hollands and Finnish are comparatively lower than that of Hungarians. Furthermore, workers in Denmark, Brazil and Lithuania demonstrate the shortest average tenure in their respective jobs, with durations of 7.8 years and the later with 8,4 years each, respectively.

Figure 8: Employment by job tenure in 27 OECD countries in 2021 (in years)



Source: OECD (2023)

The findings of a research conducted by Deloitte (2023) demonstrate a resemblance to global patterns of job-hopping in Hungary as well. According to the survey results, 57% of the participants expressed their contemplation of pursuing a job change in Hungary. Out of this group, almost one-fifth indicated their intention to switch employment within the upcoming three months, while nearly half of them expressed their plans to do so within a year. The propensity to resign is notably higher among individuals who have held their current position for less than two years, as evidenced by two-thirds of them contemplating departure. However, the degree of intention to quit is not insignificant among employees with 3-5, 5-10, and 11-20 years of tenure, as more than half of them also express a desire to leave. However, it has to be acknowledged that the inclination to resign is not limited to young, inexperienced professionals, but rather individuals in their middle-aged years are also significantly impacted similarly as it was seen in Figure 1. One notable finding from the survey pertains to the concerns around employee retention among individuals in managerial roles. Specifically, it is noteworthy that 47% of individuals in management positions, including both their subordinates and them, express apprehension regarding the potentiality of resigning (Deloitte, 2023).

4.4. Secondary data comparison

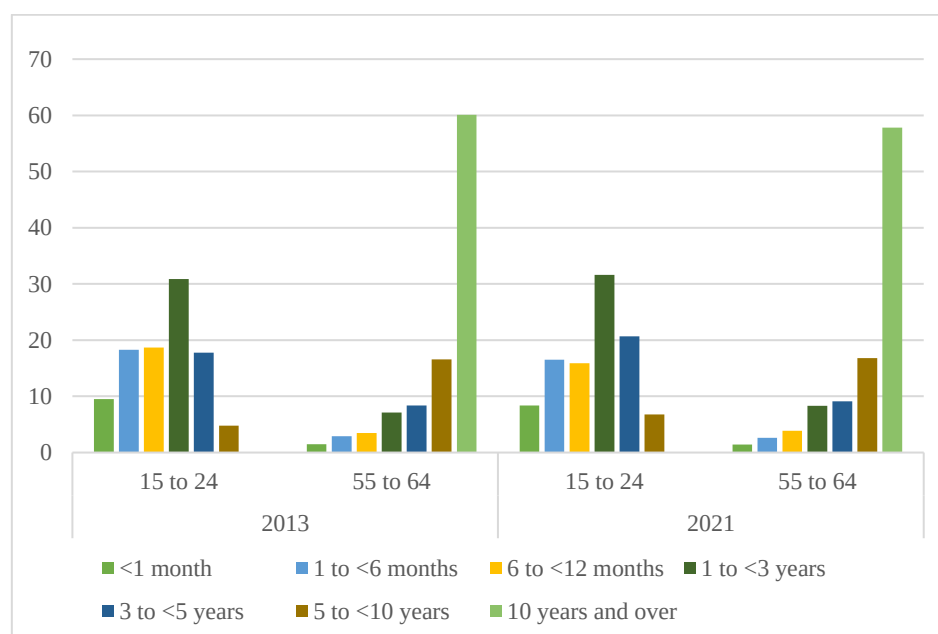
To be able to make a specific comparison of Japan and Hungary I gathered relevant data on this subject from the OECD database.

As it can be seen in Figure 8 and 9, I made a comparison of these countries based available data on the employment by job tenure in the years 2013 and 2021 distributed by age categories of 15 to 24 and 55 to 64 in percentages. Only in the data shown in these graphs did countries produced satisfactory information.

This comparison is very important because we can gain information on the amount of time an individual has consistently worked at a specific company.

In the context of Hungary, as it is shown in Figure 8, the highest percentages of all job tenure exhibited between the ages of 15 to 24 was 1-3 years with 30,9 percentages in 2013. Whilst those aged 55 to 64 demonstrate a comparatively higher percentage in case of 10 years and over with 60,1 percentage. Over the years from 2013 to 2021 there has been a slight change regarding the percentages. In case of the younger generation, the highest percentage received for the duration of the employment hasn't changed in fact the percentage of all job tenures have increased with 0,7 percentages. Regarding the older generation the same can be said as previously however the percentage of all job tenures has in fact decreased with 2,3 percentages.

Figure 9: Employment by job tenure in Hungary in 2013 and 2021 (percentage of all job tenures)

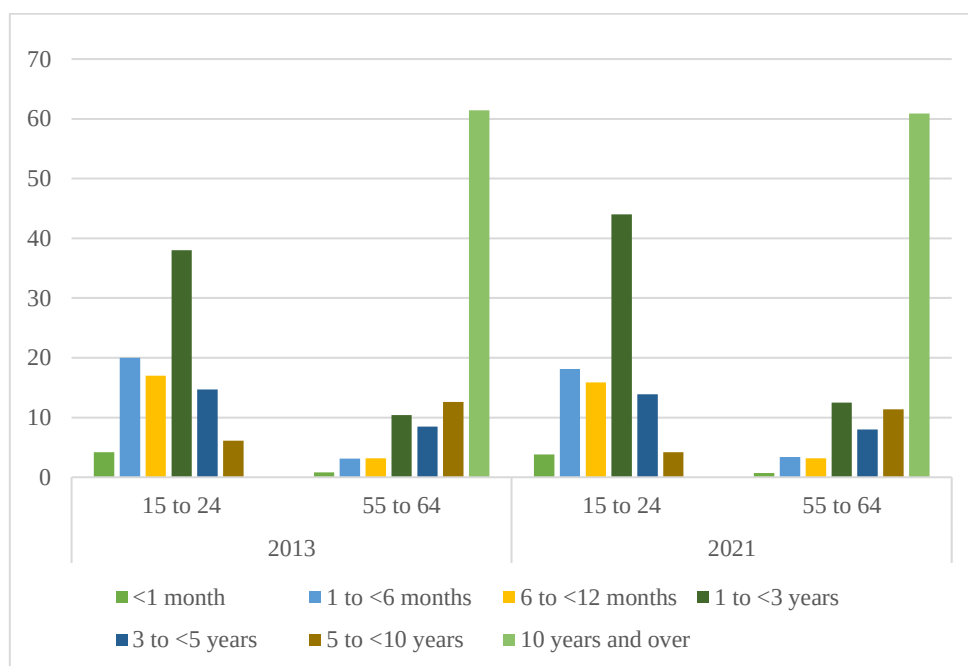


Source: OECD (2023)

In the context of Japan (Figure 9), the highest percentages of the duration of employment are the same of both generation as it was explained before, in case of the younger generation 1

to 3 years meanwhile for the older generation the percentage for 10 years and over was the highest (38 percent and 60,9 percent respectively). A more significant increase can be seen over the years among the younger employees compared to Hungary with 6 percent from 2013 to 2021. Meanwhile regarding the older employees, the change was barely insignificant with 0,5 percent decrease.

Figure 10: Employment by job tenure in Japan in 2013 and 2021 (percentage of all job tenures)



Source: OECD (2023)

In comparison of both countries a very interesting aspect can be noticed among the 55 to 64 years old age category. In case of Hungary with the increase of the duration of employment it received higher percentages thorough. Whilst this can't be said of Japan where the values show greater dispersion, and the second highest percentage was recorded for the 1-3 years of duration with 12,5 percent in 2021.

Nevertheless, we can say that of both countries the younger generation posits that they have challenges in maintaining long-term employment and exhibit a perpetual inclination towards seeking change in their career. On the contrary, the older generation recorded an exceptionally high value for long-term employment over the years which suggests an exceptional commitment to their employer.

5. RESEARCH

5.1. Research methodology

Now it has become clear that the job-hopping phenomenon does exist in the Hungarian and Japanese youth labour market. In the following, in my primary research I will be finding answers on what can be the motives of Japanese and Hungarian youths' navigation on the labour market. Since previously this phenomenon was explained in two different cultural perspectives, I believe that there is cultural difference between the preferences of the two nations university students.

I conducted a survey at Kanda University of International Studies (KUIS) in Japan and Budapest Business University (BBU) in Hungary. During the course of this investigation, responses were obtained solely from individuals of Japanese and Hungarian nationality. A total of 112 responses were obtained from BBU, whereas KUIS provided 181 responses. I effectively acquired a least of 100 responses from each university, so guaranteeing a varied pool of respondents encompassing various demographic backgrounds. By performing this survey and analysing previously analysed data on the topic, it will be adequate to make conclusions on my research question.

In my research, I approached the situation in a unique way. Instead of setting myself three hypotheses in the begging, I made as many hypotheses as possible to test, based on my data collected. With maximizing the possibilities, I believe I can make the best out of my research.

For my hypothesis tests, I conducted statistical calculations from the available quantitative data. For this purpose, I used the statistical software called SPSS and Jamovi. I made these calculations regarding demographical information on the multitude for example gender, age and their year group at university. At all cases I calculated with 5 percent significance.

Several hypothesis tests were conducted in search for any associations. By all means, not every result will be utilized to make my conclusions on this topic, but every hypothesis test results can be found in the appendices.

5.2. Respondent profiles

As it can be seen in Table 1, the two universities respondents are categorized by gender, year group and faculty of studies, given in percentages. All genders of the universities turned out to be approximately equal. Considering the year group of the students, it can be seen that the biggest group of respondents were second year students from KUIS and 3rd year students from BBU. The faculty of the students widely differ, because KUIS is a linguistic University

meanwhile BBU is specialized in Business Studies. KUIS students are specialized in either Foreign Studies or Global Liberal Arts. On the other hand, the three faculties of BBU are Faculty of Commerce, Hospitality and Tourism, Faculty of International Management and Business and last but not least Faculty of Finance and Accountancy.

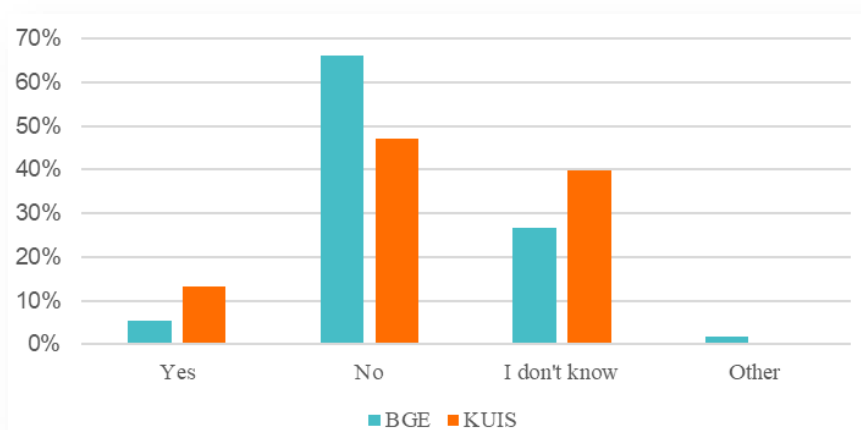
Table 1: Respondents' profiles (in percentages, rounded to one decimal)

Sex	Male	Female	No response	
<i>Japanese</i>	28,2%	71,3%	0,6%	
<i>Hungarian</i>	29,5%	69,6%	0,9%	
Year Group	1st	2nd	3rd	4th or higher
<i>Japanese</i>	29,5%	32,1%	22,3%	16,1%
<i>Hungarian</i>	26,5%	24,3%	34,8%	14,4%

Source: own survey data

5.3. Quantitative response data

Figure 11: After you graduate do you want to work in the same organization until you retire? (in percentages)



Sources: Csiszár (2023)

I asked the undergraduate students of both nationalities if they want to work in the same organization until they retire as my main question. As it is evident from the data presented in Figure 4, the vast majority of those polled do not intend to remain employed by the same company until they reach retirement age. In BBU, 66,1 percentage of students responded to the affirmative, whereas at KUIS, only 47 percent of students did so. There is still a relatively small percentage of respondents who have indicated that they would, with 5,4 percent from BBU and 13,3 percent from KUIS respectively. The response that they simply do not know yet accounted for the second highest percentage of responses at both BBU and KUIS (26,8 percent and 39,8 percent, respectively). There were two "other" answers given by BBU students, which are as follows: "If the circumstances of the company are good then yes, but I don't know yet." and "As long as it's not my own company, no."

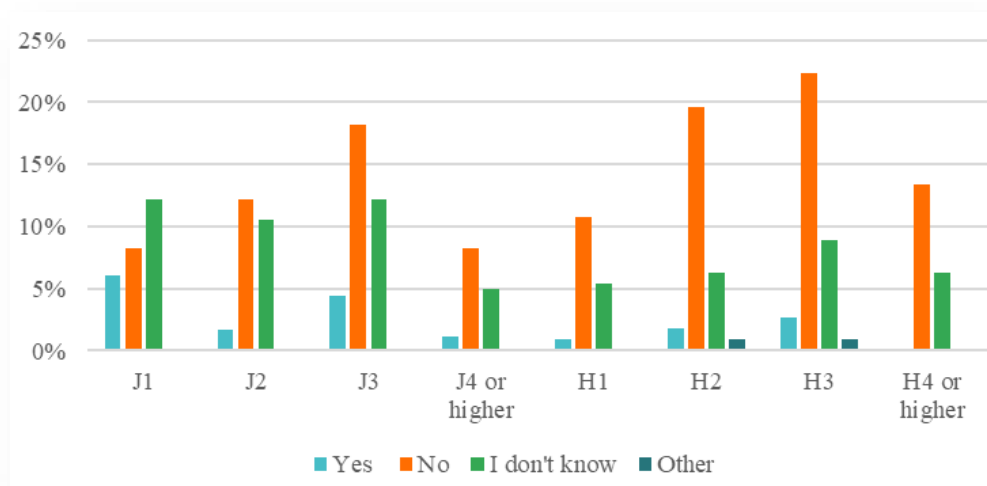
It is clear from looking at this graph that the majority of students in Hungary have made up their minds that they do not want to remain employed at the same place "for the rest of their lives." On the other hand, although the majority of Japanese respondents provided me with a "no" response, it is abundantly clear that there is a great deal of uncertainty regarding the future of students in Japan due to the fact that 39,8 percent of them provided "I don't know" responses.

In order to get a clearer picture of the logic that lies behind these responses, Figure 5 presents the distribution of their responses broken down according to year groups and nationality. J represents Japanese students answers meanwhile H represents Hungarian students answers. The numbers besides them represents their university year group respectively to Table 1.

As can be seen, senior KUIS students, in comparison to first-year students, have arrived at the conclusion that they do not want to remain employed by the same company until they reach retirement age. This was the case throughout the students' four years of undergraduate study. Even though only 16,1 percent of the respondents were in their fourth year or higher, with 5 percent, the majority of the senior students do not want to work for the same organization for their entire lifetime either. The responses given by first-year students make it abundantly clear that they do not yet have a clear idea of what they want to do with their lives; in fact, "I don't know" made up the majority of these students' responses (12,2 percentages). In point of fact, it is possible to observe a considerable number of responses of "I don't know" in each and every year group of students. The majority of responses given by Hungarian students over the course of each year have been "no," and only a small percentage of students have provided "I don't know" answers. In general, the number of years spent in university does have an effect on

the perspectives of KUIS students. On the other hand, it appears that BBU students did not intend to continue working for the same company until they retired, and the number of years spent in university has not altered their viewpoints.n

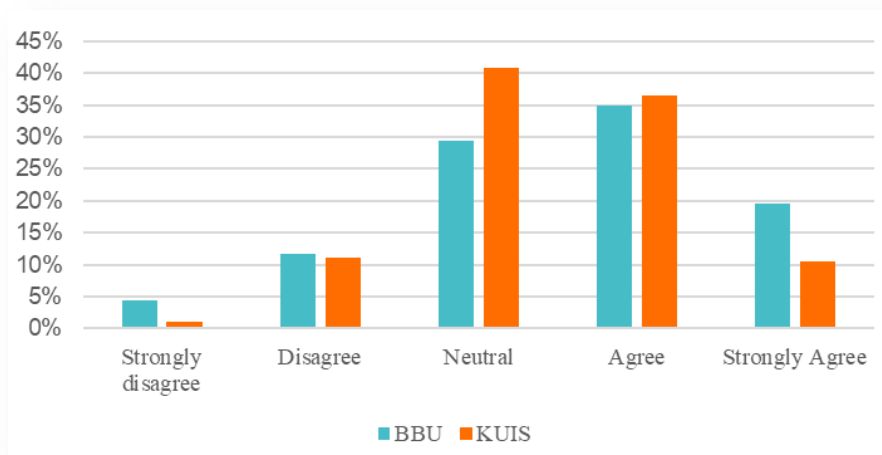
Figure 12: After you graduate, do you want to work in the same organization until you retire? Distributed by year in university (in percentages)



Sources: Csiszár (2023)

In order to gather more data on the reasoning behind the multitude, in relation to my hypotheses and the information that was presented earlier regarding the subject, I made the decision to include five additional questions in my survey that were more specific. The first question (Figure 6) that was asked of them was whether or not they felt limited in their job search due to the internal labour markets. It was obvious that the system of lifetime employment keeps employees in order with the help of seniority waging, and the existence of the internal labour force also reduces the possibility of changing occupations between companies. However, does the younger generation still feel the pressure to conform to this system?

Figure 13: I feel restricted when job hunting because of the internal labour markets (in percentages)



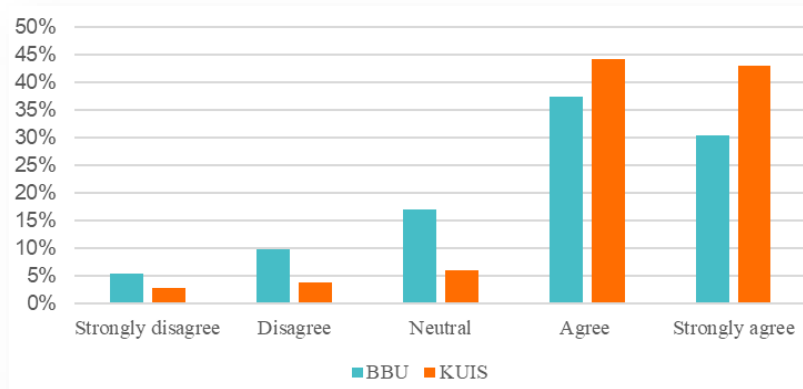
Sources: Csiszár (2023)

I provided an explanation of the phrase "internal labour market" in this question so that they would have a better understanding of what I was getting at and so that I could collect data that was more accurate. As can be seen in Figure 6, the responses that fell into the "neutral" and "agree" categories made up the largest percentage of those that I received. The fact that the majority of students at KUIS (40,9 percentages) selected "neutral" as their response may be attributable to the fact that there is a high level of uncertainty among Japanese students or to the fact that the question asked was either irrelevant or difficult to understand. In the other scenario, 34,8 percent of the Hungarian students chose the response "Agree" when asked their opinion on the matter. The vast majority of the students' responses, taken as a whole, suggested that they in fact do feel constrained by the internal labour markets.

Secondly, I inquired as to whether or not they were interested in pursuing a career in the same field as what they were currently studying and will be graduating with a bachelor's degree in Figure 7. Because company specific training is a prevalently used management tool in Japan, and because the company entrance examination is the same for students of every major, I am curious as to whether or not the students at both universities intend to put the knowledge, they gained during their undergraduate studies to use in their future careers. Figure 4 illustrates that the majority of students agree that they will pursue careers related to the subjects that they have studied. As it can be seen in Figure 4, 37,5 percent of BBU and 44,2 percent of KUIS students agree to do so. Moreover, 30,4 percent of BBU and 43,1 percent of KUIS students strongly agree to work in the field they studied in. It can be seen that overall, there were more Hungarian students who does not want to work in the same field. Nevertheless, undergraduate students, on

the whole, are appreciative of the knowledge gained during their time at the university, and they intend to implement it in their professional lives as well.

Figure 14: I want to find a job according to my bachelor's degree (in percentages)

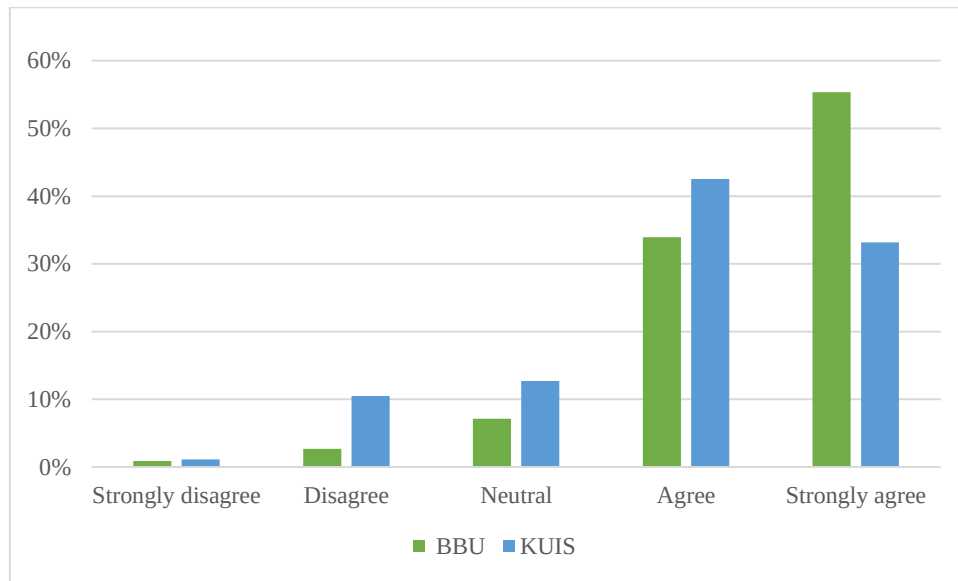


Sources: Csiszár (2023)

Firstly, I inquired from the students as to whether or not they would still search for a better job opportunity when they are employed (Figure 10).

The majority of those who responded to the KUIS survey "agree" to do so, which accounts for 42,5% of the total, whereas the majority of those who responded to the BBU survey "strongly agree" to do so, which accounts for 55,4% of the total.

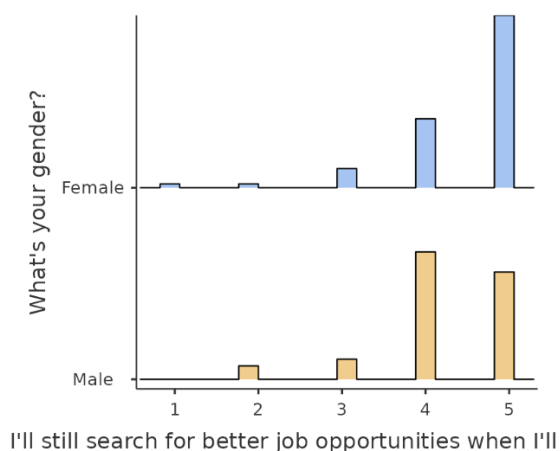
Figure 15: I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed (in percentages) (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree)



Source: Csiszár (2023)

As it can be seen in (Figure 11) the gender distribution of this question in case of BBU students shows interesting results (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree). The majority of the women (64,29 percent of all female BBU respondents) strongly agree that they will still search for a better opportunity meanwhile the majority of men (47,50 percent of all male BBU respondents) agree that they will do so.

Figure 16: Age distribution of BBU respondents whether they will search for a better opportunity when they will be employed (in percentages) (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree)



Source: Csiszár (2023)

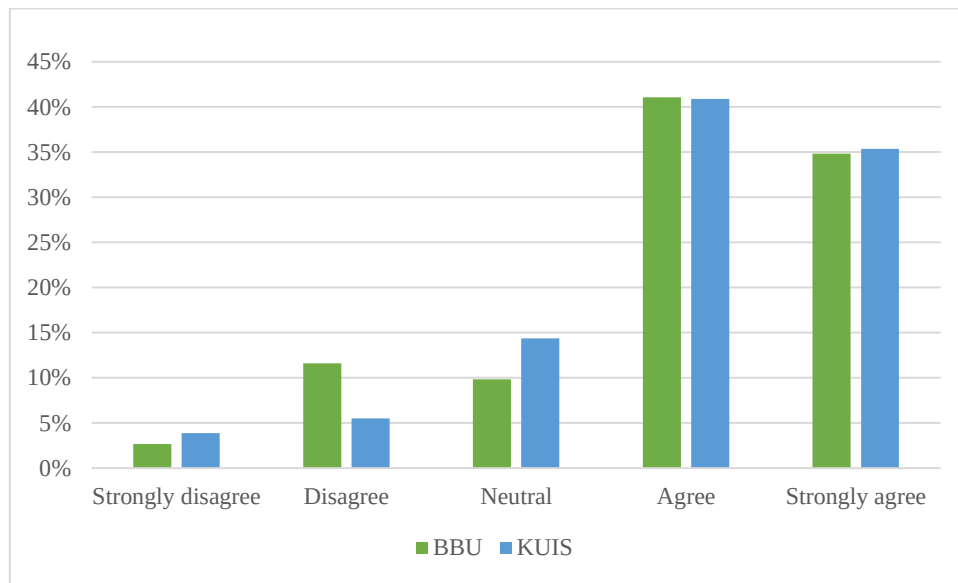
I utilized the Mann-Whitney u test to see if to determine whether this is typical of the Hungarian population in general. I have to state that there were two respondents among BBU students who didn't respond regarding gender. In this calculation I disregarded these answers to be able to conduct the Mann-Whitney u test (Vargha, 2008). Therefore, this calculation will consist of 63,6 percent of female and 36,4 percent of male respondents. According to this test the p-value equals 0,026. Calculating with 5 percent significance ($\alpha=0.05$) the zero hypothesis (H0) can be rejected which says that the two groups are equal. In this calculation the alternative hypothesis (H1) can be accepted, that there is statistically significant evidence that the females are strongly agree to the statement and males are agreeing to the statement and this conclusion is not based on coincidence.

On the other hand, the same calculations conducted among the Japanese multitude showed that the null hypothesis couldn't be rejected in their case, there is no sufficient evidence that the gender is influencing the Japanese student's behaviour.

Secondly, I asked them about the order in which they consider different job offers for my fourth question. When they are looking for work, do they give higher priority to job offers that come with employee benefits, such as a flexible work schedule or an emphasis on maintaining a healthy workforce? I would like to know how the younger generation of workers navigate the labour market and what their preferences are when it comes to finding a job, so I have decided to ask this question. I hope to get some insight into these topics.

The majority of students agree, as shown in Figure 12, that it is important to prioritize job offers based on the employee benefits. 41,1 percent of students at BBU and 40,9 percent of students at KUIS agree with this statement, while 34,8 percent of students at BBU and 35,4 percent of students at KUIS "strongly agree" with this statement. It is easy to see that these two categories of responses are remarkably close to being identical between the Japanese and Hungarian students.

Figure 17: I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours) (in percentages) (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree)

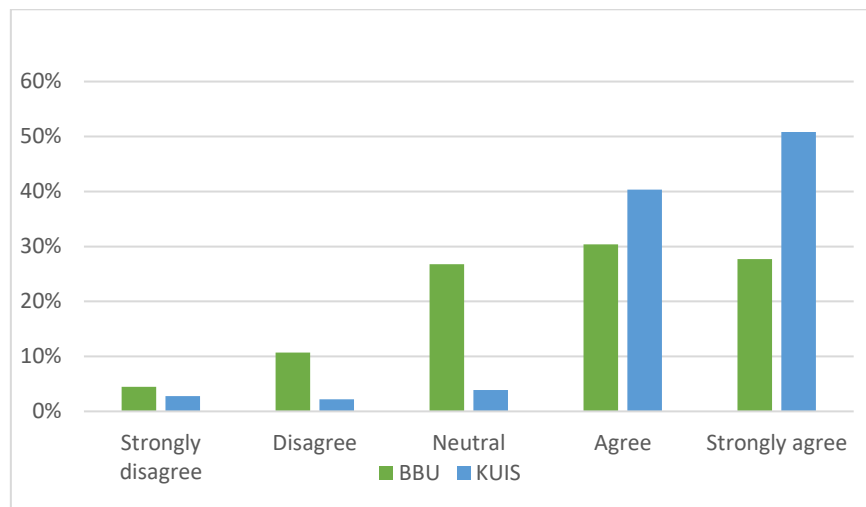


Source: Csiszár (2023)

And last but not least, I inquired as to whether or not they would be willing sacrifice a good salary in exchange for employee benefits (Figure 13). As was mentioned earlier, deciding to look for new employment will almost certainly result in a reduction in the amount of money earned. I am curious as to whether or not young people are willing to take a pay cut and switch jobs solely for the purpose of obtaining better employee benefits, such as a better work-life balance.

When compared to the answer to the prior question, the responses to this one is more diverse. It is clear from the responses that the Hungarian students, with 50,83 percent of the total, are strongly agreeing to forego salary cut in favour of employee benefits. On the other hand, the responses from Japanese people were more balanced, with 30,4 percent of respondents agreeing, 27,7 percent strongly agreeing and 26,8 percent being neutral.

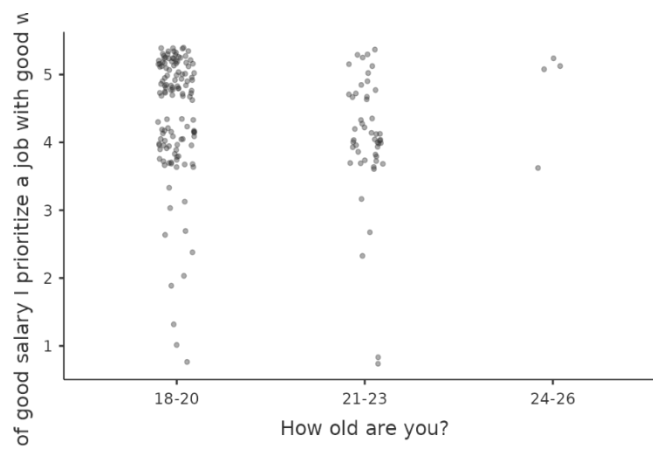
Figure 18: Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance (in percentages) (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree)



Source: Csiszár (2023)

In Figure 14 the Japanese students' responses can be seen distributed by their age (1-5, Strongly disagree- Strongly Agree). It's noticeable that the most concentrated answer received was “strongly agree” among 18–20-year-olds. However, since I received 70,2 percent of answers from this age category and only 22,3 percent of the other two age categories altogether, I cannot make any specific conclusion.

Figure 19: Age distribution of KUIS responses for the statement in Figure 13) (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree)



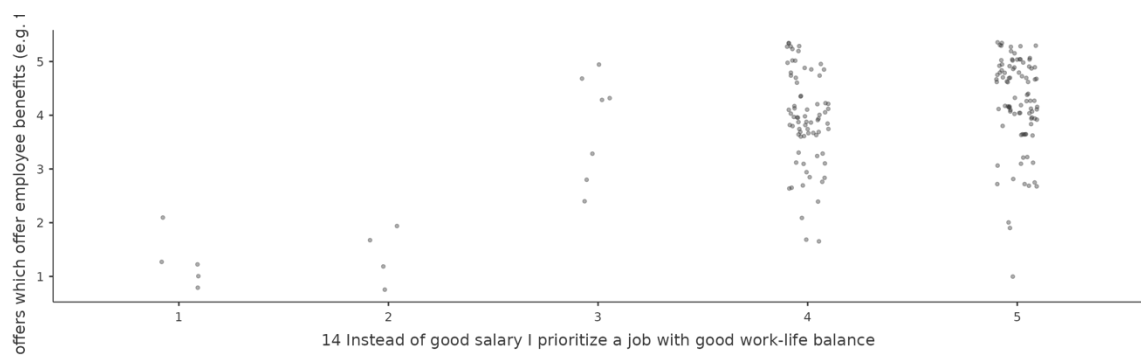
Source: Csiszár (2023)

The correlations in my sample are clear but I have made statistical calculations to see if this really is a characteristic of the multitude. In this case I utilized the Somer's D test find out the strength and direction of association between this question and the respondent's age (Vargha, 2008). According to the calculations the p-value equals 0,012 ($\alpha=0.05$) therefore the null hypothesis can be rejected which says that the two variables does not have any connection between them. Calculating the Somers' d value for the question variable the result is $-0,203$. Accepting the alternative hypothesis (H1) indicates that there's statistically significant negative association between the two variables. It can be stated that with the increase of age the students tend to give answers below "strongly agree".

In case of the Hungarian students, the same calculations indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected in their situation it's not statistically significant that the age is influencing the job prioritization behaviour of Hungarian university students.

Lastly, I was interested to know if the questions showed in Figure 12 (further referred as question 1) and Figure 13 (further referred as question 2). As it can be seen in (Figure 15) that most KUIS students agree with prioritizing a good work life balance, but the responses for giving up their salary for employee benefits is more distributed on a 1-5 scale (1-5, Strongly disagree – Strongly agree). My sample seemingly shows a correlation that the students would give up salary for receiving employee benefits and that is the reason for prioritizing companies during job hunting.

Figure 20: KUIS student response distribution of Figure 12 and Figure 13 (1-5 Strongly disagree – Strongly agree)



Source: Csiszár (2023)

To be able to make conclusions if there's any association between question 1 and question 2, I made further statistical calculations. If there's any association between the two questions, the Somers' d test also indicates the direction of it (Vargha, 2008). According to the calculations

the p-value equals 0,00001 ($\alpha=0.05$) therefore the null hypothesis can be rejected which states that the two variables does not have any connections between them. Calculating the Somers' d value for question 1 equals 0,345. Accepting the alternative hypothesis (H1) suggests a positive association between the two questions. According to the resulted value, a mediocre correlation can be suggested.

In the case of the Hungarian students, the null hypothesis couldn't be rejected suggesting that there's no statistical evidence that there is any correlation between the two questions.

5.4. QUALITATIVE RESPONSE DATA

Previously I assessed the quantitative data of the undergraduate students. It is clear that based on the previously assessed data, the majority of under-grad students at both universities would like to switch jobs in their lifetime. In the analysis of the qualitative data, I categorized the answers according to noticeable trends in the answers as well as presenting a few extremely specific and exhaustive responses.

Table 2: Students' reasons on why they want to change jobs over their career

HUNGARIAN	Answers in percentages (%)
The students mention “boring” or “monotonous” or they need a change in their lives.	43,1
Change jobs for personal growth and experience.	27,8
They would leave the company if they found better opportunities.	16,7
They want to start their own company because they do not want to be employees	6,9
Other reasons	4,2

JAPANESE	Answers in percentages (%)
Change a variety of different occupations and gather experience	51,8%
The students mention “boring” or “monotonous” or they need a change in their lives.	18,8
Change jobs until they are satisfied and fulfilled their career	16,5
If the work environment does not fit	5,9
They want to move away	4,7
Other reasons	2,4

Source: Csiszár (2023)

Hungarian answers:

- “I do not want to be stuck in one place, I want to try my hand in different areas, because that is the only way I can find the job that suits me best. Besides, people's needs and expectations change throughout their lives, and a job cannot adapt to this.”
- “There would probably be no further opportunity for progression for some time, or if personal life dictates, into something easier and less stressful, and in many cases, it may take longer to wait for a position in that company than it would to apply for one in another.”

Japanese answers:

- “Because in today's Japan, rather than lifetime employment, changing jobs is more common due to restructuring and second careers.”
- “Because I am not sure if the first organization, I joined is the best fit for me. Also, when I want to have a variety of experiences, if I continue to belong to one organization, I will be limited in what I can do.”

Out of all respondents, 66,1 percent of Hungarian students want to change jobs over their career. 43,1 percent answered with the workplace becoming monotonous. They prefer changing workplaces because they want change in their lives. They are convinced that change is necessary, and it contributes to a healthy lifestyle. 27,8 percent of students believe that they are not able to grow as a person and expand their experience if they stay at one organization for life. Experiencing multiple workplaces or even switching between different occupations comes with the growth of the self and the expansion of professional knowledge. 16,7 percent of students said that they are confident that they will change workplaces when found better on the market. They do not rule out the possibility that they find a workplace which they find suitable for their preferences; however, they find more chance in changing because they will not settle for something good if found better. The BBU offers courses and knowledge which helps young people to become entrepreneurs after their graduation. 6,9 percent of students prefer starting their own company because by this they do not have to fit into any kind of hierarchy system. 4,2 percent of students had other reasons for switching workplaces. For example, they would change to another organization if they do not feel comfortable working there.

Among Japanese students, 47 percent of respondents agree to change jobs over their career. 51,8 percent of students would like to try a variety of occupations in their lifetime which naturally comes with changing companies too. They believe that advancing their career and

broadening their professional experience can only be achieved by switching jobs. They prefer trying out various things than mastering only one occupation. 18,8 percent of students, similarly to Hungarian students, they prefer change in their lives. Working for the same organization for 30+ years can become boring, and they would not have any new challenges in their lives. 16,5 percent of students would definitely like to switch jobs until they are satisfied with their career. If they find something new, they want to do, if they want to discover new work environments, they will definitely change workplaces. 5,9 percent of students would change jobs if they do not find their workplace suitable. Of course, the respondents are undergraduate students, they have not properly started their professional careers yet even if they already got accepted for a job at a certain company. Without having started their work, they are not aware of the company culture and work environment. They maintain the possibility that they will not find their workplace suitable after they start working there which gives them a reason to switch organizations. 4,7 percent of students will switch jobs if they want to move to a different place geographically in the future. Many students would like to start their career in a Japanese organization; however, this is only to that extent that they gather enough money to move away abroad. 2,4 percent of students have other reasons to change workplaces. Likewise, to the Hungarians there are also examples of students want to start their own business. Furthermore, referring to the sample answers, there is a student who reflected on the issue by explaining that in their perception they do not think that lifetime employment is a still a common phenomenon because of restructuring and second careers. This can indicate the changes of the labour market.

Table 3: Students answers on why they don't want to change jobs over their careers

HUNGARIAN	Answers in percentages (%)
If the work environment is good	66,7
Thinking long term is calming	33,3

JAPANESE	Answers in percentages (%)
Stable job	37,5
Adapting to new environment	29,2
Re-employment issues	16,7
Seniority waging	8,3
Changing jobs is a hassle	8,3

Source: Csiszár (2023)

Hungarian answer:

- “I would like to stay within a company that values its employees. And if I want to change, it would be nice to be able to move easily within the company to, say, another department.”

Japanese answer:

- “Because although job change has been progressing recently, I still have a strong image that working at the same place is a good idea”

Out of all respondent's 5,4 percent of students want to settle at one organization throughout their careers. 66,7 percent of Hungarian students find it a possibility that they will not switch jobs if they are satisfied with their workplace. If they find their workplace and work environment suitable and comfortable, they do not see a reason to change, however this is strongly influenced by the student being valued in the workplace. They also believe that they will have the opportunity to change their career, however, compared to previous “no” respondents, they believe that they will be able to change positions inter-organization. 33,3

percent of students answered that planning long term provides them a piece of mind as well as they do not want to bother with job-hopping.

13,3 percent of Japanese students prefer working for the same organization until retirement out of all respondents. Among Japanese students, 37,5 percent respondents argue with the stability of long-term employment. They do not explain in detail what they mean by being stable. One student explained that they need to have a stable occupation because they feel responsible for their family and switching jobs will disadvantage the financial safety of their family. 29,2 percent of respondents do not want to change organization once they get used to their work environment. They believe that establishing a relationship with a company and coworkers within requires a lot of effort and they also relate this with loyalty. 29,2 percent of students were arguing about re-employment issues when job-hopping. These respondents have the perception that changing jobs will put the student in a disadvantageous position on the market. Even though some students agree that nowadays job-hopping became more common in Japan, they still fear of re-employment issues. 8,3 percent of were arguing about seniority waging. There are two perspectives to this argument. Some students think this is an advantage, on the other hand other students feel that they have to work at the same organization because they do not want to experience wage cut. Lastly, 8,3 percent of students simply do not like change or do not want to bother with the struggles of changing occupation.

Table 4: Students answers that are yet uncertain whether they want to change jobs over their career

HUNGARIAN	Answers in percentages (%)
Work environment	46,7
Future is uncertain	40,0
Other reasons	13,3

JAPANESE	Answers in percentages (%)
Work environment	33,3
Possibility of change	30,6
Future is uncertain	25,0
Other reasons	9,7

Source: Csiszár (2023)

Hungarian answers:

- “It depends on many things. Mobility, relocation, economic situation, material, and human esteem. Burnout, etc.”
- “It depends how happy I am with my employer, but I probably wouldn't want to work there until I retire.”
- “If possible, I would like to work in the same company until retirement or change jobs up to 1-2 times, depending on whether the place I work in ensures my career progression and salary increase.”

Japanese answers:

- “Until retirement, I would have to work roughly 40 years from the time I graduated from college, but I don't think I want to work in the same organization until retirement now because I think I would get bored working in the same organization for such a long time. However, considering the stability of income and workplace relationships, I think it would be good to continue working until retirement. I answered that I do not know because I have both ideas.”

- “Because more and more people are changing jobs and there is a possibility that I will change my job too”
- “Because I want to continue working in a job that suits me. I do not think there are any organizations that offer lifetime employment in this day and age.”

Among all Hungarian respondents, there were 26,8 percent of students who are still uncertain whether they want to changing jobs over their career or not. 46,7 percent of students say that it mainly depends on the work environment. They maintain this as a condition for their career, however most of the students are very pessimistic about this happening and they believe that there is more possibility for change at least 1-2 times. 40 percent of respondents do not know what they want to pursue as a career in their future. 13,3 percent of students argued with other reasons. There are many factors to what they want to pursue in their career, both internal and external factors. Internal factors can be personal motivation, relocation or human esteem, external factors can be, for example, the current economic situation.

In the case of Japanese students, 39,8 percent of all respondents said that they do not know if they want to work at the same organization for a life. 33,3 percent of Japanese respondents have the same reasoning as the Hungarian students about the work environment. However, in contrary to the Hungarian students, the Japanese students are optimistic for staying for a life if they are satisfied with the workplace. 30,6 students expressed their concern of change over the year in terms of interest or motivation. 25,0 percent of students do not know what they want to do in the future yet. Lastly, 9,7 percent of students do not have other reasons, for example, if it comes to experiencing emotional or financial problems or based on marital status change, they will switch jobs. Another student compares themselves with the labour force trends thus having an idea that he will change occupation accordingly as well. There are noticeably very mixed opinions among the respondents, and they seem to address many factors which could influence their opportunity of employment. As can be seen in the sample answers one of the students expressed that they do not believe that there's organizations which offer lifetime employment which can reflect how the workforce and interorganizational structures have been evolving.

Students' preferences

The Japanese youth, when employed in the future, prefers job-hopping in hopes of gaining professional experience. The Japanese students which prefer working for an organization on a long-term argued that they have to take care of family or that they have to keep in mind the already established relationships with the company which is a characteristic of collectivism

(Hofstede, 2023). Clearly the Japanese youth has more individualistic features, even though collectivism has a key importance in Japanese context. However, a discernible trend indicates that Japanese students have increasingly embraced individualism, prioritizing their own needs and preferences, akin to the approach observed among Hungarian youth.

The Hungarian and Japanese youth altogether prioritize their own needs which are, first of all, employee benefits. As it was clear from the survey, most respondents prioritise job offers which provide them employee benefits. It can be concluded by the calculations that it is statistically significant for the Japanese multitude as whole, that salary is not playing a major role in job seeking in case of Japanese students. However, in the Japanese population examined, it is seen that as students' progress in age, they tend to prioritize employment opportunities that offer larger salaries. as it was explained before, generally third year students are getting employed to large corporations during their studies. At this point, these students still don't have any experience working for large organizations yet even though they might have accepted a contract based on high salary. Therefore, when actually started working after graduation, and they realize that they don't feel comfortable in the organization there is a high chance that they will leave the company, supported by the very high turnover rate in their first year of work of fresh graduates (Figure 6).

The youth altogether have to have new challenges in a position or switch occupations completely in order to fulfil themselves, their career or simply avoid burnout. However, the companies cannot transform rapidly answering these needs and students might find themselves new opportunities in another organization. As many individuals within this generation are simply subject to external circumstances beyond their control, for example if they experience changes in their personal lives, for example moving abroad they will switch jobs closer to their new homes. The Japanese students explicitly expressed that they appreciate a decent work environment.

They want to be appreciated and valued in a team. Their first job after graduating can leave a lot to be desired, experiencing regret and hatred against the place of their employment. Because of this, it's common for recent graduates to switch occupations once, usually during the first three years of employment (Japandev, 2023).

It can be seen from the questionnaire that most students will change jobs if found a better opportunity. Hungarian students most probably will meanwhile Japanese students probably will do too. According to the statistical calculations it can be said that gender has a statistical significance on Hungarian undergraduate student's job seeking prospects. The Hungarian men only agree, unlikely to women who strongly agree in continuing job seeking when employed.

Even though both agree with the statement the reason for this difference in motivation can be traced back to the gender inequality. According to OECD (2023?) women's employment patterns in Hungary exhibit distinct differences from those of males in various other aspects as well. For instance, women who are engaged in paid labour tend to work fewer hours compared to men, despite the fact that the disparity in working hours between genders is rather minimal when compared on an international scale. Women frequently encounter less prospects for professional advancement which can overall be the main reason why Hungarian women are surer of seeking of employment than Hungarian man.

Moreover, reflecting to the responses from the qualitative data, that Japanese students think that job switching has actually got really common in modern day society due to restructuring, second careers and number of companies who purely integrate lifetime employment has significantly reduced.

Overall, there is not a single company which has a “perfect” employee benefit system, and every individual has different expectations from a company. The student's prospect is to try different workplaces or occupations and experience new environments in search of what fits them best to their present-day motivation, interest, and circumstances.

6. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

As it could be seen in the secondary research in the beginning of this paper, both Japan and Hungary similarly experience an increase of Job turnover over the years. According to the study that I conducted it was evident that the youth, both Hungarian and Japanese, have similar attributes and characteristics when it comes to requirements when seeking for employment regardless of cultural differences. But what can be the reasons that Hungarian and Japanese undergraduate students' preferences are so similar? My statistical calculations didn't support any demographical differences between the two multitudes either. But if job-hopping is not culturally significant, what can be the reasons for this globally experienced phenomenon?

7. UNDERLYING REASONS TO THE PHENOMENON

Overall, the secondary and primary research didn't show any significant cultural differences between the two countries youth. Then what can be the reasons that both countries experience Job-hopping so similarly?

7.1. Generational differences

Empirical evidence shows that in fact there is a generational difference in work values in the labour force. For example, the people born between 1946 and 1964 also known as "Boomers" value work ethic the most when employed. On the other hand, younger generations for example people born between 1982 and 1999, the "Millenials" value job satisfaction and their trait are that they have an intention to leave (Twenge, 2010). Japanese and Hungarian students who doesn't experience job satisfaction will have an intention in switching jobs. Based on this and supporting it with my research it can be concluded that job-hopping is not a culturally distinct phenomenon, but it can be the reason of generational differences.

7.2. Technology advancement

Rapid technological advancements are shaping the global labour market, threatening knowledge-based work like research and coding (Goel, S. and Orsolya Kovács-Ondrejko, 2023). The rapid progression of technology is exerting a significant influence on employees, necessitating the adaptation of switching jobs in order to acquire new skills or even change career path, which is only expected to increase in prevalence in the forthcoming years. (Adecco Group, 2020)

Organizations that are promoting learning and development opportunities enable their workforce to be resilient to the rapidly changing technological advancements (PwC, 2023?). If

an organization can't adapt to the new innovations and can't provide these opportunities the changes will be higher that their employees will seek new employment.

7.3. Institutional policies

The availability of youth employment policies in countries is a significant factor that exerts a strong influence on developments in the youth labour market. Consequently, prioritizing investment in the youth population is a strategic need for the OECD. By possessing sufficient skills, securing employment, and benefiting from appropriate social and broader policy frameworks, young individuals are afforded the chance to realize their full potential and sustain a positive outlook on their future possibilities (OECD, 2014). Not only organizational but the institutional level for supporting the youth can help overcome substantial difficulties that is experienced on the labour market. Without the adaptation of such policies nations won't be able to overcome youth unemployment and high turnover rates.

7.4. SKILL MISMATCH

The presence of a skills mismatch not only hinders the realization of young individuals' full potential, but also poses many issues for enterprises. Organizations that encounter difficulties in recruiting a proficient workforce for a certain role face the potential consequences of diminished productivity, limited creativity, and less corporate agility, hence increasing their vulnerability to competitive disadvantage. At a macroeconomic level, the presence of skills gap can result in diminished competitiveness for a nation and perhaps contribute to a notable rise in the unemployment rate (Ius Laboris, 2022). The youth actively searching for better opportunities where they will be able to maximize their potential and skills can be a result of the skills gap.

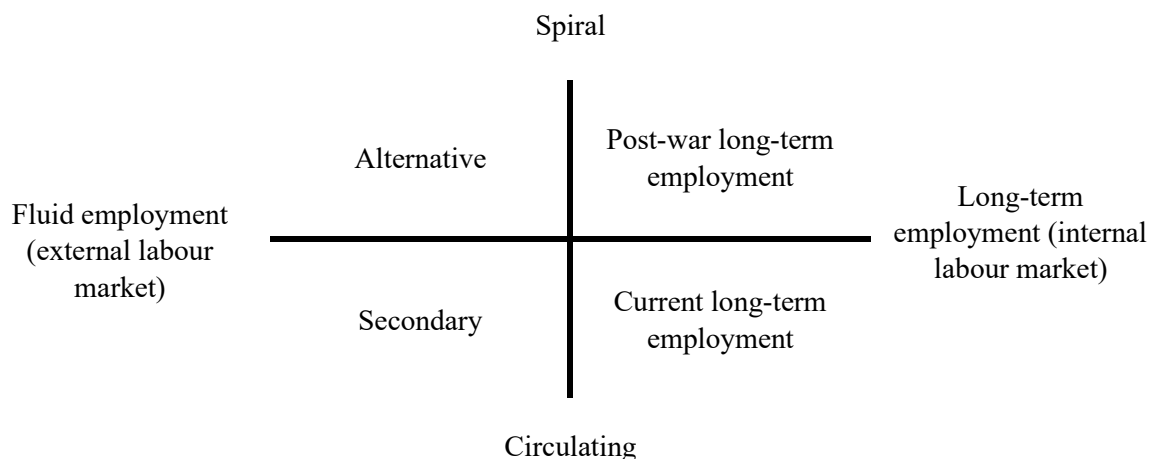
8. YOUTH LABOUR MARKET TRENDS

In this section I would like to explain how the youths' motivations can restructure the labour market.

According to the Classifications of labour movement types inside/outside companies' model (Ikeda et al, 2022) Japan started out from Post-war long-term employment in the matrix. This type of labour movement is referred to as "spiral" because human resources move hierarchically upward in the internal labour market. Based on my survey I can state that the change of the labour movement can take two different forms in the future. It can either go Alternative or Secondary. 27,8 percent of Hungarian students and 51,8 percent of Japanese students stated that they would change jobs for experience and growth. Furthermore, 43,1 percent of Hungarian students and 18,8 percent of Japanese students want to change companies if it gets monotonous or they need change. They would change without promotion or increase of salary therefore the labour would circulate between companies, becoming "Secondary"

movement. Meanwhile, in the Hungarian labour force, only 16.7 percent of students stated that they would leave their company if they found better opportunities. There is also a possibility that the Hungarian labour force might undergo an 'Alternative' labour movement, as these students seek promotion or an increase in salary. It can be concluded that Hungarian and Japanese students are collectively reshaping the labour force.

Figure 21: Classifications of labor movement types inside/outside companies



Source: Ikeda et al (2022)

9. ORGANIZATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Employee turnover is an essential component of a dynamic labour market; nevertheless, when turnover rates exceed a certain threshold, it becomes unprofitable for people, organizations, and society as well. Excessive job turnover poses challenges for companies, as it leads to increased recruitment costs and impedes the ability to expand and achieve productivity increases, particularly in the context of labour shortages. (OECD, 2023).

Given the significance of employees as a valuable resource for organizations (Török-Kimoskó et al, 2023 as cited in Singh, 2019; Mabaso & Dlamini, 2021), it becomes crucial for organizations to acknowledge the reasons for the job-hopping phenomenon to be able to develop strategies and minimizing turnover (Török-Kimoskó et al, 2023 as cited in Hassan et al., 2020).

9.1. TALENT RETENTION

As it was explained the Hungarian and Japanese youth are motivated to seek employment even if they are employed. They feel more confidence in their potential to get job elsewhere because of the abilities and the worth of the skills that they possess. Without acknowledging talent in the organization's workforce, it restricts organizations' abilities to retain their talented employees. In awareness of the information on why the youth would like to depart the

organization Human resources department can establish their specific talent retention strategy. For example, Hungarians and Japanese would leave if they don't experience personal growth opportunities, in this case the company has to specialize in providing career advancement opportunities for their employees incorporated in their talent retention strategy (Ott, 2018 as cited in Wei, 2015).

9.2. JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction can be defined as a multifaceted construct encompassing psychological, physiological, and environmental elements that collectively contribute to an individual's genuine sense of satisfaction with their occupation. From this particular standpoint, it is argued that although several external factors have an impact on job satisfaction, it mostly relates to the internal emotional condition of the individual. Job satisfaction is a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing various attributes that contribute to the subjective sensation of contentment and fulfilment within the context of one's employment. Therefore, the students' perception of an organization significantly matter for it substantially contributes to their motives of staying or leaving. For example, Japanese expressed their feelings that if they don't like the workplace. (Aziri, 2011 as cited in Hoppock, 1935). Many students of both nations have expressed that they are more likely to stay at their organization if they experience valued in the team. One way to enhance job satisfaction increase engagement and retention is establishing an appreciation, reward and recognition plan for employees (Rane 2011).

9.3. WORKPLACE CULTURE

According to a Workplace culture expert, Nicole L. Turner (2023) organizational culture refers to as quoted "the shared values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours that characterize an organization and guide its members' actions". A company which has a culture that provides learning, growth, and progress opportunities has the potential to positively impact employee retention. The main reason for Japanese students for changing organizations were in order to fulfil their career. Therefore, if a company's culture supports an employee's professional journey inside the organization the employees will perceive a well-defined trajectory for their professional advancement inside the organizational structure, they are inclined to remain with the company and allocate resources towards their ongoing personal growth. It is imperative to acknowledge that diverse individuals may be driven by distinct facets of organizational culture, and the effectiveness of these features may vary from person to person. Nevertheless, with the cultivation of a favourable culture that effectively attends to the different requirements and

ambitions of its workforce, firms have the potential to augment employee retention rates and establish a staff that is more steadfast and dedicated.

Overall, if the organizations do acknowledge the reasons of job-to-job transitioning of employees they can make specific changes which not only keep employees but will be able to transform to the overall needs of the youth labour market. This will make the company structure and recruitment strategies adaptable to the changes of the labour market and provide competitive advantage on labour recruitment contrary to other organizations.

10. EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Based on the previously discussed, organizations have a great influence in minimizing job turnover rate. In this section of the research, I would like to suggest three models that can be utilized in this context to be implemented in the organizations specifically fit for the Japanese and Hungarian youths' preferences.

10.1. Aon Hewitts' employee engagement model

According to the Aon Hewitt's employee engagement model (Figure 12) it can be seen that organizations have many opportunities to increase engagement. The students want to receive not only quality of life but total rewards in forms of benefit and recognition, career opportunities, collaboration opportunities and empowerment. Aon Hewitt defines employee engagement in three ways, including the extent to which employees: Speak positively about the company to coworkers, potential employees, and customers; stay if you have a strong sense of belonging and a strong desire to be a part of the organization; strive — are driven and put effort for employment and company success. Employees must be completely involved in all three of these areas to achieve maximum engagement.

Figure 22: Aon Hewitt's employee engagement model



Source: Aon Hewitt (2013)

10.2. Maslow's hierarchy in employee engagement

The qualitative answers of my research can be categorized in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, when it is specifically applied to employee engagement (Moloney, 2016). The arguments for or against job hopping can be identified in this pyramid.

As it was discussed before, the salary has become a basic aspect of employee engagement and students expect so much more in an organization. As it can be seen in Figure 13, if a company only promises a good salary, it means that the employee will be disengaged with the company, a relationship will not be established between the employee and employer. Many students said that they would change jobs if they felt it has become monotonous, they need change or they are not satisfied with their current job. These are basic de-motivators which would leave the students actively search for other job opportunities.

If the students are not comfortable with the working conditions, the work environment, or other employees on their team, they would not get the security that they need at their workplace and would leave them searching for other jobs. If the employee does not receive these requirements no engagement will happen them.

When the students feel the belonging to the organization, they feel satisfied working in their team it will start their engagement to their employer and from now on these can be

considered motivators for engagement. However, only providing a belonging still does not assure the company that their employees would not leave because at this level the employee still does not receive career development opportunities or development prospects.

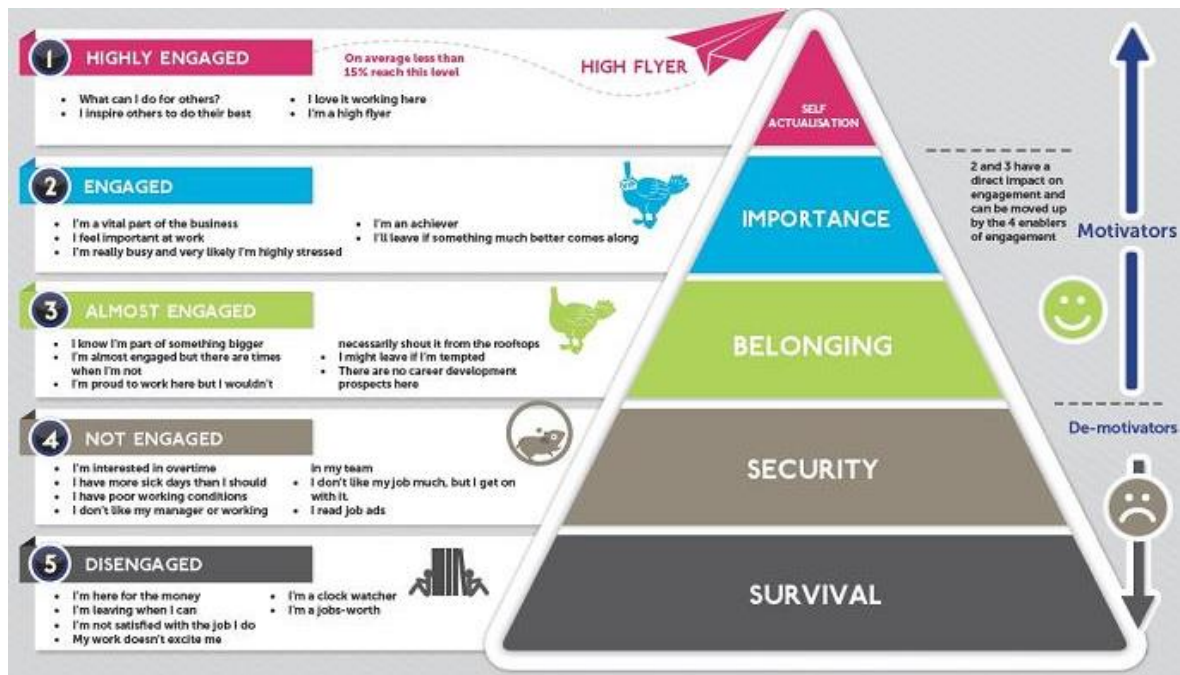
The employees will be successfully engaged if they receive the previous and on top of that the feeling of importance. The most valuable tool to make the employee feel important is employee recognition programs. This too can be material or non-material recognition for example bonus or simply verbal praise. This level often makes the employee feel stressed and still not guarantees that they will stay with the company and will be still looking for better opportunities which the Hungarian students expressed.

When all of the previously described factors are combined with employee self-actualization, the highest level of engagement is achieved. Japanese students especially expressed this, that they will search for other jobs until they fulfil their career and goals. Only at this stage the students would not look for other job opportunities disregarding personal reasons like re-location. These employees can be called high-flyers in the organization.

It can be seen that at every level there is still a reason for students to change their workplace and only a small percentage of companies are able to fulfil all of the levels of the Maslow's pyramid. Students seem to be pessimistic that their first workplace can fulfil all of their needs thus in the future of the youth, fulfilling their career in lifetime employment is not a realistic possibility.

If the organizations, both Hungarian and Japanese would implement these models, they would increase the chances that their employees would stay within the organization. However, this does not mean a 100 percent chance that they will stay. As it was stated before sometimes the reason to job change can be due to personal reasons like re-location or the current economic situation which the company does not have control of. On the other hand, the company does have control of implementing these models which would increase employee engagement. If this is successfully implemented, it can mean that students would stay longer at a certain organization which would meet their needs.

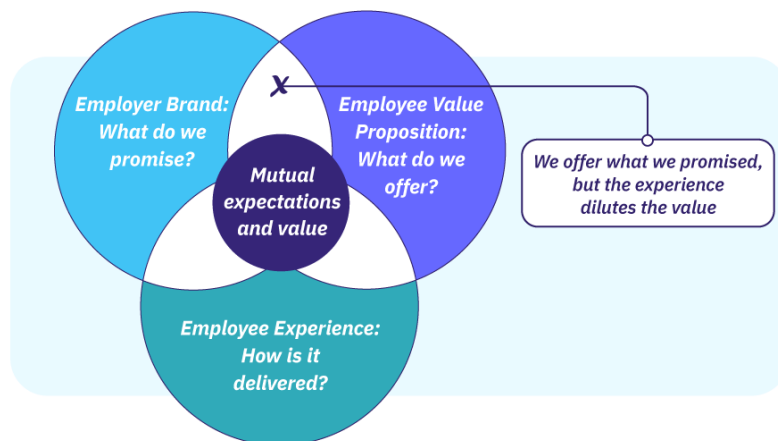
Figure 23: Maslow's hierarchy of needs applied to employee engagement



Sources: Moloney (2016)

10.3. Employer-Employee relationship model

Figure 24: Employee-Employer Relationship



Source: Veldsman et al (2022)

Implementing the framework which is called the “Three E’s of Employee Employer relationship” integrates employer branding, employee value proposition, and employee experience (Veldsman et al, 2022) (Figure 14)

The prevalent story of how the employer promotes itself in the external market to potential and current workers is referred to as the employer branding or what the corporation promises to the future employees. However, the issue with this is that the external promise that enticed candidates to join is frequently not fulfilled as part of the employee-employer relationship. As a result, following the "honeymoon period" of new talent joining a business, employee engagement tends to diminish. As a result, HR is fighting a lost battle to win employees' trust. Employees feel duped and misled to join the business as a result of the disparity between the employer brand and the employee value proposition and experience (Veldsman et al, 2022).

The employee value proposition is related to the value that the employee feels they get from working for the company. This includes additional behavioural factors like culture fit, relationships with leaders, and the organization's social mission in addition to transactional elements like rewards, benefits, and workplaces. Unfortunately, we sometimes discover that even when employees are aware of the obligations they are taking on, the way in which those obligations are conducted could be far better. Employees, for instance, acknowledge that this position will need them to travel frequently and spend a lot of time away from home. However, the administrative assistance offered to the employee regarding their travel plans, lodging, and other benefits results in a stressful and uninteresting experience (Veldsman et al, 2022).

Employee experience describes how an employee feels, thinks, and acts over the course of their employment. Moments that are important to the individual and moments that are valuable to the organization are frequently used to explain it. Unfortunately, despite the fact that the employee value proposition and employer brand are well matched, the employee experience tends to lessen the benefit's overall worth. Organizations, for instance, promise and provide possibilities for learning and development. However, the quantity of red tape required to access these gives workers an unfavourable impression. Another example is when an employer offers limitless paid time off, but there is a sense within the company that taking time off is not permitted or encouraged. This has a special significance in the culturally restrained Japanese business culture where even though the employees get holidays, they are restrained taking them because it might seem like they are not committed to their occupation (Veldsman et al, 2022).

I believe that this model has a great significance because many students raised their concerns that they are still unsure whether they will like or feel comfortable in their future workplace or not. With the implementation of the "Three E's of Employee-Employer Relationship" model, I believe corporations will position themselves based on the type of

employees they want in the first place, as well as employees receiving a comprehensive picture of the company and deciding if it is suitable for them. This ensures that undergraduate students seeking for jobs are satisfied with their first job and increases the years spent at the organization.

CONCLUSION

I elaborated on the term "lifetime employment" and its historical context in Japan

Job-hopping is a widely noticeable phenomenon in OECD countries,

Job-to-job transitions have been increasing in the recent decades in OECD countries,

In Hungary as well as Japan the turnover rate for the younger generation is specifically more than older generations,

Even though Japan had life-time employment historically, the turnover rate for fresh graduates is still exceptionally high,

Nonetheless the turnover rate differs in different generations in Hungary, employees of all generations have an intention of leaving their job,

Primary research

Based on the information collected and the conducted survey, I can conclude that students from both nationalities prefer working for multiple companies throughout their careers. There are various reasons for this choice. Upon analysing the responses, I observed numerous shared reasons among Hungarian and Japanese students. They consider changing companies if work becomes monotonous, aiming to gain more experience and professional knowledge. Hungarian students expressed their willingness to change jobs if better opportunities arise elsewhere, whereas Japanese students expressed their desire to change until they are content with their positions and feel they have achieved their career goals. Factors such as relocation and economic situations can also influence their decisions. Hungarians are more certain about change occurring in their future, whereas Japanese students view this as a high possibility.

Job-hopping is experienced the same way in Hungary and Japan regardless of cultural differences,

The majority of Hungarian and Japanese students want to change workplaces thorough their career

Frequent job changes can be attributed to generational differences, technological advancements, institutional policies and skill mismatch,

Answering the research question, yes, Hungarian and Japanese labour market experience the phenomenon of job-hopping and there are a variety of factors that drive Japanese and Hungarian university students to transition from one organization to another.

The main motives of switching jobs in case of the Hungarian multitude were if the job became monotonous, change jobs for personal growth, if found better opportunity or they want

to start their own business. There were similar reasonings in the Japanese multitudes as they would change job for primarily for trying different occupations and gather experience, the job became monotonous, or they want to keep jobs until they feel that they fulfilled their career. These motives are highly influenced on the organization's strategies, but their job-hopping behaviour are also influenced by external factors like economic or technological changes.

The hypothesis tests provided me information on the characteristics on the multitude. Hungarian women are more likely search for better job opportunity than Hungarian men which can be attributed to inequality. In the analysed multitude, the older the Japanese students are, they are more likely to seek higher salary instead of prioritizing employee benefits which can be the reason to increasing inflation rates in the recent decade. Lastly, reflecting on the Japanese multitude as whole, it can be said that university students doesn't consider salary as a factor when prioritizing job offers.

Organizations are advised to acknowledge the reasons for job-hopping to be able to minimize their job turnover and recruitment costs, organizations should establish a company specific organizational culture, talent retention and job satisfaction strategy which will develop the organizations competitive advantage on the labour market,

The reasons for students switching workplaces are primarily within the control of the corporations themselves. The students have expanded their needs, with financial and job stability from lifetime employment constituting only a fraction of what undergraduate students now expect from their future employers. From my survey, I proposed three models for organizations to implement, clearly reflecting the needs of undergraduate students.

In conclusion, the younger generation collectively shapes the labour market, compelling companies to recognize the evolving expectations of their employees and fulfil them. Failure to do so could lead to losing the competition to other corporations. I firmly believe that in the future, owing to increased employee engagement and enhanced employer-employee relationships, students will change jobs once or twice during their careers in the external labour market.

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ATTACHMENTS

DECLARATION

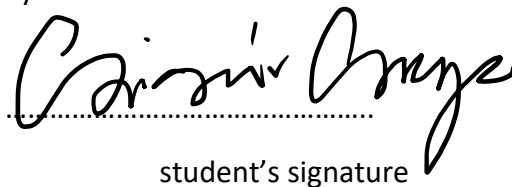
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APPENDIX A: Data indicated in Figures

Figure A-1: Data regarding Figure 1. (in percentages %)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
<i>15-24</i>	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,6
<i>55-64</i>	18,2	18,3	18,4	18,7	18,8	18,7	18,6	18,7	18,7	18,6	18,8
<i>Total</i>	9,4	9,5	9,5	9,7	9,7	9,7	9,6	9,7	9,7	9,8	10,0

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
<i>15-24</i>	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,3	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,3	1,3	0,8
<i>55-64</i>	18,8	18,8	18,8	18,7	16,5	16,4	16,3	16,2	16,4	16,1	15,5
<i>Total</i>	10,2	10,3	10,4	10,4	9,1	9,0	9,0	9,0	9,1	9,0	8,5

Source: OECD (2023)

Figure A-2: Data regarding Figure 2. (in percentages %)

<i>Korea</i>	-1,9	<i>Slovak Republic</i>	1,5	<i>Latvia</i>	2,1
<i>Australia</i>	-0,5	<i>Greece</i>	1,6	<i>Hungary</i>	2,5
<i>Norway</i>	0,1	<i>United Kingdom</i>	1,6	<i>Netherlands</i>	2,6
<i>Denmark</i>	0,3	<i>Average</i>	1,6	<i>Estonia</i>	2,7
<i>Italy</i>	0,6	<i>France</i>	1,7	<i>Spain</i>	3,3
<i>Luxembourg</i>	0,7	<i>Czech Republic</i>	1,7	<i>Lithuania</i>	3,7
<i>Iceland</i>	0,8	<i>Finland</i>	1,8	<i>Portugal</i>	3,9
<i>Sweden</i>	1,0	<i>Germany</i>	1,9	<i>United States</i>	4,5
<i>Austria</i>	1,2	<i>Slovenia</i>	1,9		
<i>Poland</i>	1,3	<i>Belgium</i>	1,9		

Source: OECD (2023)

Figure A-3: Data regarding Figure 3. (in years)

Countries	Young workers (15-29)	Prime-age workers (30-54)	Mature workers (55-64)	Countries	Young workers (15-29)	Prime-age workers (30-54)	Mature workers (55-64)
<i>Belgium</i>	19,3	7,2	2,1	<i>Sweden</i>	13,8	6,9	3,4
<i>Italy</i>	13,7	5,0	2,1	<i>Czech Republic</i>	13,7	6,1	3,5
<i>Luxembourg</i>	16,2	7,0	2,1	<i>Germany</i>	19,6	9,1	3,5
<i>United States</i>	8,8	4,1	2,1	<i>Average</i>	18,5	8,3	3,8
<i>France</i>	21,3	7,8	2,4	<i>Finland</i>	20,2	9,2	4,3
<i>Norway</i>	18,4	8,0	2,4	<i>Iceland</i>	24,8	11,9	4,6
<i>Slovenia</i>	24,7	7,1	2,6	<i>Latvia</i>	13,8	7,2	4,6
<i>Slovak Republic</i>	10,5	5,0	2,7	<i>Korea</i>	15,1	6,5	5,0
<i>Greece</i>	13,4	5,5	2,9	<i>Australia</i>	23,0	11,1	5,5
<i>Austria</i>	19,5	9,4	3,0	<i>United Kingdom</i>	23,3	10,7	5,5
<i>Poland</i>	16,7	6,6	3,1	<i>Hungary</i>	17,3	8,7	5,6
<i>Portugal</i>	23,5	8,4	3,1	<i>Estonia</i>	23,5	10,7	6,2
<i>Netherlands</i>	16,2	8,9	3,4	<i>Denmark</i>	21,5	13,0	6,9
<i>Spain</i>	25,6	9,3	3,4	<i>Lithuania</i>	20,4	12,3	8,0

Sources: OECD (2023)

Figure A-4: Data regarding Figure 4. (in percentages)

	Turnover rate	Employment rate	Turnover rate	Turnover rate	Employment rate
1997	32,5	94,5	2010	31	91,8
1998	32	93,3	2011	32,4	91,0
1999	34,3	92,0	2012	32,3	93,6
2000	36,5	91,1	2013	31,9	93,9
2001	35,4	91,9	2014	32,2	94,4
2002	34,7	92,1	2015	31,8	96,7
2003	35,8	92,8	2016	32	97,3
2004	36,6	93,1	2017	32,8	97,6
2005	35,9	93,5	2018	31,2	98,0
2006	34,2	95,3	2019	31,5	97,6
2007	31,1	96,3	2020	-	98,0
2008	30	96,9	2021	-	96,0
2009	28,8	95,7	2022	-	95,8

Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Japan (2022), slightly modified

Figure A-5: Data regarding Figure 5. (in percentages)

	2018	2019
<i>less than 5</i>	56,3	55,9
<i>5-29</i>	49,4	48,8
<i>30-99</i>	39,1	39,4
<i>100-499</i>	31,8	31,8
<i>500-999</i>	28,9	29,6
<i>more than 1000</i>	24,7	25,3

Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Japan (2022), slightly modified

Figure A-6: Data regarding Figure 6. (in percentages)

<i>first year</i>	11,8
<i>second year</i>	9,7
<i>third year</i>	10
<i>total</i>	31,5

Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Japan (2022), slightly modified

Figure A-7: Data regarding Figure 7. (in years)

Country	2021	Country	2021	Country	2021
<i>Denmark</i>	7,8	<i>OECD countries</i>	9,0	<i>Poland</i>	11,0
<i>Brazil</i>	8,4	<i>Hungary</i>	9,1	<i>Germany</i>	11,0
<i>Estonia</i>	8,4	<i>Norway</i>	9,1	<i>Luxembourg</i>	11,0
<i>Sweden</i>	8,4	<i>Cyprus</i>	9,5	<i>Spain</i>	11,0
<i>Iceland</i>	8,5	<i>Bulgaria</i>	9,5	<i>Croatia</i>	11,2
<i>Switzerland</i>	8,6	<i>Ireland</i>	9,5	<i>Belgium</i>	11,3
<i>Malta</i>	8,7	<i>Romania</i>	9,7	<i>Slovenia</i>	12,3
<i>Lithuania</i>	8,8	<i>Slovak Republic</i>	10,5	<i>Italy</i>	13,1
<i>Finland</i>	8,9	<i>Austria</i>	10,6	<i>Portugal</i>	13,1
<i>Netherlands</i>	8,9	<i>France</i>	10,7	<i>Greece</i>	13,3
<i>Latvia</i>	8,9	<i>Czech Republic</i>	10,9		

Sources: OECD (2023)

Figure A-8: Data regarding Figure 8. (in percentages %)

	2013		2021	
	15 to 24	55 to 64	15 to 24	55 to 64
<i><1 month</i>	9,5	1,5	8,4	1,4
<i>1 to <6 months</i>	18,3	2,9	16,5	2,6
<i>6 to <12 months</i>	18,7	3,5	15,9	3,9
<i>1 to <3 years</i>	30,9	7,1	31,6	8,3
<i>3 to <5 years</i>	17,8	8,4	20,7	9,1
<i>5 to <10 years</i>	4,8	16,6	6,8	16,8
<i>10 years and over</i>	..	60,1	0	57,8

Sources: OECD (2023)

Figure A-9: Data regarding Figure 9. (in percentages %)

	2013		2021	
	15 to 24	55 to 64	15 to 24	55 to 64
<i><1 month</i>	4,2	0,8	3,8	0,7
<i>1 to <6 months</i>	20	3,1	18,1	3,4
<i>6 to <12 months</i>	17	3,2	15,9	3,2
<i>1 to <3 years</i>	38	10,4	44	12,5
<i>3 to <5 years</i>	14,7	8,5	13,9	8
<i>5 to <10 years</i>	6,1	12,6	4,2	11,4
<i>10 years and over</i>	..	61,4	..	60,9

Sources: OECD (2023)

Figure A-10: Data regarding Figure 10. (in percentages %)

	BBU	KUIS
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	0,9%	1,1%
<i>Disagree</i>	2,7%	10,5%
<i>Neutral</i>	7,1%	12,7%
<i>Agree</i>	33,9%	42,5%
<i>Strongly agree</i>	55,4%	33,1%

Source: Own survey data

Figure A-11: Data regarding Figure 11.

I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed	Female	Male
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	1,43%	0,00%
<i>Disagree</i>	1,43%	5,00%
<i>Neutral</i>	7,14%	7,50%
<i>Agree</i>	25,71%	47,50%
<i>Strongly Agree</i>	64,29%	40,00%

Source: Own survey data

Figure A-10: Data regarding Figure 10. (in percentages)

	BBU	KUIS
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	4,5%	2,76%
<i>Disagree</i>	10,7%	2,21%
<i>Neutral</i>	26,8%	3,87%
<i>Agree</i>	30,4%	40,33%
<i>Strongly agree</i>	27,7%	50,83%

Source: Own survey data

APPENDIX B: SPSS and Jamovi results for hypothesis tests

Table B-1: Somer's d calculations from SPSS of BBU students

	<i>Age</i>	Value	Asymptotic Standard Error^a	Approximate T^b	Approximate Significance
<i>I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed</i>	Symmetric	0,076	0,089	0,844	0,399
	agenumber Dependent	0,074	0,088	0,844	0,399
	12number Dependent	0,077	0,091	0,844	0,399
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	Symmetric	0,089	0,093	0,954	0,34
	agenumber Dependent	0,08	0,084	0,954	0,34
	13number Dependent	0,1	0,105	0,954	0,34
<i>Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance</i>	Symmetric	-0,03	0,083	-0,361	0,718
	agenumber Dependent	-0,026	0,072	-0,361	0,718
	14number Dependent	-0,035	0,097	-0,361	0,718
	Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance	Value	Asymptotic Standard Error^a	Approximate T^b	Approximate Significance
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	Symmetric	0,062	0,08	0,779	0,436
	13number Dependent	0,06	0,077	0,779	0,436
	14number Dependent	0,065	0,083	0,779	0,436

	University Year	Value	Asymptotic Standard Error ^a	Approximate T ^b	Approximate Significance
<i>I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed</i>	Symmetric	0,215	0,079	2,653	0,008
	agenumber Dependent	0,245	0,089	2,653	0,008
	12number Dependent	0,192	0,072	2,653	0,008
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	Symmetric	0,144	0,083	1,725	0,084
	agenumber Dependent	0,149	0,086	1,725	0,084
	13number Dependent	0,14	0,08	1,725	0,084
<i>Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance</i>	Symmetric	-0,076	0,089	-0,857	0,392
	agenumber Dependent	-0,075	0,088	-0,857	0,392
	14number Dependent	-0,077	0,09	-0,857	0,392

Table B-2: Somer's d calculations from SPSS of KUIS students

	Age	Value	Asymptotic Standard Error ^a	Approximate T ^b	Approximate Significance
<i>I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed</i>	Symmetric	0,042	0,07	0,603	0,546
	agenumber Dependent	0,034	0,057	0,603	0,546
	12number Dependent	0,055	0,09	0,603	0,546
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	Symmetric	-0,128	0,067	-1,901	0,057
	agenumber Dependent	-0,104	0,054	-1,901	0,057
	13number Dependent	-0,167	0,088	-1,901	0,057
<i>Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance</i>	Symmetric	-0,173	0,069	-2,509	0,012
	agenumber Dependent	-0,15	0,06	-2,509	0,012
	14number Dependent	-0,203	0,081	-2,509	0,012

	Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance	Value	Asymptotic Standard Error^a	Approximate T^b	Approximate Significance
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	Symmetric	0,316	0,068	4,409	0
	13number Dependent	0,345	0,074	4,409	0
	14number Dependent	0,291	0,064	4,409	0

	University year	Value	Asymptotic Standard Error^a	Approximate T^b	Approximate Significance
<i>I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed</i>	Symmetric	0,055	0,065	0,843	0,399
	agenumber Dependent	0,057	0,067	0,843	0,399
	12number Dependent	0,053	0,063	0,843	0,399
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	Symmetric	-0,051	0,063	-0,814	0,416
	agenumber Dependent	-0,053	0,065	-0,814	0,416
	13number Dependent	-0,05	0,061	-0,814	0,416
<i>Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance</i>	Symmetric	-0,014	0,066	-0,207	0,836
	agenumber Dependent	-0,016	0,075	-0,207	0,836
	14number Dependent	-0,012	0,059	-0,207	0,836

Table B-5: Mann-Whitney U test calculations in Jamovi of BBU students' responses (without "no response")

GENDER	Statistic	p	Effect size
<i>I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed</i>	1081	0,026	0,2282
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	1301	0,512	0,0711
<i>Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance</i>	1237	0,294	0,1168
Note. $H_a \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$			

Table B-6: Mann-Whitney U calculations in Jamovi of KUIS students' responses

GENDER	Statistic	p	Effect size
<i>I'll still search for better job opportunities when I'll be employed</i>	3158	0,513	0,0586
<i>I prioritize job offers which offer employee benefits (e.g. flexible working hours)</i>	3158	0,515	0,0584
<i>Instead of good salary I prioritize a job with good work-life balance</i>	3220	0,639	0,0401
Note. $H_a \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$			