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1. Introduction and Research Question

The following master thesis considers a holistic view of cultures, including the differing concepts regarding the importance of individualism within the examined cultures. The idea for this topic originated from the personal backgrounds of the authors and their interest in the present developments in the concept of individualism.

Mrs. Anil Can grew up in a Turkish family in Austria, while Ms. Johanna Katharina Tiefenbach is half German and half Austrian and spent a large portion of her childhood in Turkey. Both are currently employed at Deniz Bank AG, an Austrian subsidiary of the Turkish bank Deniz Bank A.S. Their respective backgrounds have exposed the authors to a broad view of the differences between the Turkish and Austrian cultures and how interactions between these cultures unfold. The other motivation for this thesis is the ongoing development and steadily growing trend towards individualism. The importance of this force is increasingly observable in many different areas of everyday life including the workplace. Within the growing trends of self-realization and an emphasis on individuality, an increased desire for freedom of choice, recognition of personal needs, and personalization can be observed in many areas of life. In investigating these trends, a joint study conducted by the departments of Psychology at the University of Waterloo and Arizona State University not only indicated a steady rise in individualism but also determined social status as one of the main drivers of the increase. According to the study, social status is closely related to education and wealth as promoters and facilitators of individualism. A coherence of these factors leads to the assumption of an impact on professional life (Grossmann & Varnum, 2015, pp. 311-324).

This master thesis explores the domain of individualism as well as how its expression differs between the two distinct cultures of Turkey and Austria. The main question revolves around the differences in the perception of the two cultures possibility to express individualism and feasible reasons for this phenomenon.

In addition to the origins and past experiences of the authors, the selection of these two cultures for comparison and evaluation was also influenced strongly by the migration background of Austria. The Austrian Republic was and still is affected by migration, with a population of diverse nationalities living throughout its federal states including in the metropolis city of Vienna. According to statistics presented by the Viennese government, the Turkish population in the city ranks third in size after the Austrian and Serbian populations. Similar percentages are also reported on a national level (Magistratsabteilung 23, 2017).

Given the distribution of inhabitants and the current transition of social behaviour presented above, this master thesis explores differences in the operating principles of Turkish and Austrian work cultures and carves out new distinctions and boundaries resulting from the extent to which individualism and differentiation are integrated into everyday work. It also addresses how cultural norms inflict restrictions or capabilities onto an employee and how an individual's evolution of self and ability to separate from the rest of society is mediated by a specific occupational culture and conduct. Lastly, the research considers how and if these circumstances are accepted by the respective cultures.

2. Existing Research

Dutch social psychologist Geert Hofstede is considered to be the most relevant researcher on the subject of cultural differences. In 1980, Hofstede developed the 'Culture's Consequences', a culturally focused thinking-system based on nation of origin. This thinking system includes six cultural dimensions: power distance index, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance index, long term orientation versus short term normative orientation, and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, *Cultures and Organizations, Software of the Mind*, 2010, pp. 53-296). These cultural dimensions define "the differences in thinking and social action at the country level" (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 2004, p. 144).

The most relevant and important dimension for the context of this thesis is individualism versus collectivism. The main question of this thesis is concerned with the different modes of business conduct within the two cultures, namely Austrian and Turkish. Hofstede (2001) used existing research to compare several different countries, including Austria and Turkey. As per Hofstede's 2001 research, Turkey is a collectivist country compared to Austria, an individualist country. For collectivists the success and evaluation of a company as a whole has priority, whereas individualists prefer to be perceived as individuals, with their individual performances within the company as their primary concern (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 2004, pp. 145-146); (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, *Cultures and Organizations, Software of the Mind*, 2010, p. xii).

There are other works involving the dimensions created by Geert Hofstede. One example is "The revision of Hofstede's individualism - collectivism dimension", describing "an updated and authoritative measure of individualism vs collectivism as a dimension of national culture" (Minkov, et al., 2017, p. 386). Another work approaches "The Role of Hofstede's Individualism in National Level Creativity", in which the authors investigate the relationship between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and national scores of creativity indexes (Rinne, Steel, & Fairweather, 2013, p. 129).

The theory of Hofstede (1980, 2001, and 2005) evolved over time and was rethought and revised from its original form. (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, *Cultures and Organizations, Software of the Mind*, 2010, p. xii). For instance, Hofstede (2005) was influenced by the work of his son - 'Exploring Culture: Exercises, Stories and Synthetic Cultures', which lays its focus on international networks and other topics. As a result, Hofstede (2005) updated his work in 'Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind' (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, *Cultures and Organizations, Software of the Mind*, 2010, p. xii).

There are authors other than Hofstede who deal with the term and concept of culture based on other characteristics and dimensions. One of these authors is Trompenaars, (1997) who has adapted the work of Parsons & Shils (1951) and Hall (1959) and Rotter (1966). He identified 'universal problems' and the three problems of "social interactions, passage of time and relationship to the environment, that unveil seven dimensions of culture" (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 2004, pp. 150-151). Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) 'Values Project' assembles different cultural variations and determines five 'universal problems': "Relationship of humans to nature, to time, to other humans, belief about basic human nature and perceived natural mode of acting". The difference in the cultural aspects identified by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) to the ones established by Geert Hofstede is the extent of the variations of cultural dimensions. Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski (2000) have adapted the 'Values Project' of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) by identifying respondents' preferences for variations in the cultural dimension (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 2004, pp. 156-157).

There are no works directly related to the specific question of this present research. However, Hirokawa, Dohi, Vannieuwenhuyse and Miyata (2001) have researched work-related factors (and their influence on Individualism and Masculinity) in their work 'Comparison of French and Japanese Individuals with Reference to Hofstede's concepts of Individualism and Masculinity'. The focus of their study includes the work-related aspects of 'culture', 'education' and 'family' (Hirokawa, Dohi, Vannieuwenhuyse, & Miyata, 2001, p. 243). While Hofstede (1980, 1989, 1991, and 1996) laid his focus only on work related topics, Dohi and Miyata (2001) included family and education as objects and

also included unemployed persons. This is important for example in order to include an explanation of gender perspectives (Hirokawa, Dohi, Vannieuwenhuyse, & Miyata, 2001, p. 250).

The Globe model, developed between 1994 and 1997, is similar to Hofstede's model, developed in 1967-1973. Whereas Hofstede created his model single-handedly, the Globe model was developed by 170 researchers. As a result, the Globe model researched 951 organizations instead of the one organization researched by Hofstede (IBM). The Globe model is therefore based on a much larger database (Shi, 2011, p. 98).

3. Theory

3.1. Individualism versus Collectivism

Reflecting on the perception of the authors and on day to day life presents an ever-growing trend of an individual's need to form a unique personality and individual preferences. We are surrounded by advertising and are constantly told that individuality and self-expression are desirable and healthy. Diversity has never been as desired and socially underlined.

Many current opinions on the idea of individualism differ. Merriam-Webster defines individualism as *“a theory maintaining the political and economic independence of the individual and stressing individual initiative, action, and interests; also: conduct or practice guided by such a theory”* (Merriam - Webster Dictionary, 2018).

According to Hofstede and several other studies, Austria has always been a more individualistic country compared to Turkey. One example of a significant difference between Austria and Turkey is the use of school uniforms. In Turkey children must wear a school uniform starting in primary school and until high school, whereas in Austria children can express their individuality by choosing their clothing. There are two main reasons for this type of regulation. One motive for schools which mandate uniforms is marketing, as all private school uniforms display their school's logo. A second motive is standardization as a means for maintaining socioeconomic fairness in schools, although such standardization comes at a cost of restricting individuality. Another example regarding the differences between Austria and Turkey is religion. According to the regulations of Austria, *“From the age of 14, young people have the right to religious affiliation and can therefore decide for themselves which religious community they want to belong to or whether they want to quit their previous religious community. For this, no consent of the parents is needed”* (Help.gv.at, 2018). In Turkey on the other hand, religion is very important to the population. Children cannot choose their religion as they can in Austria. They belong to the religious group in which they are born raised.

3.1.1. Definition and Demarcation

According to Park and Kitayama (2012), Individualism is described as „*A constellation of daily practices, public artifacts, lay assumptions, and folk beliefs that is based on a model of the self as independent*” (Park & Kitayama, 2012, p. 426).

In general, people who identify as individualist act and think according to individual attitudes. The opposite of individualism is collectivism, where persons are acting and thinking in groups. According to a study titled “Global Increases in Individualism”, individualism has increased 12% since 1960. The data for the study was collected from 80 countries and excludes Austria. The study shows a clear trend worldwide of a tendency towards to more individual values and behaviors. Another important point of the study attributes the increase in individualism compared to previous years with the socio-economic development of a country. Observing such an increase depends on the wealth of the country. The richer a country becomes; the more collectivism loses its attraction (Psychological Science, 2017).

Individualism and collectivism are closely related to culture, which will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Individualism and Collectivism as Opposite Poles of Cultural Dimensions

An individualistic society as an aspect of cultural dimensions could be defined as a society in which individual persons do not have strong ties with each other. Countries which have a high degree of individualism score low on an individualism index. A high score on the index would indicate collectivism. Relationships within individualistic societies develop through meetings with strangers. In a collectivistic society people have stronger ties with each other. They develop strong loyalties within their group. Every individual growing up in collectivistic society is highly integrated into one or several groups. Friendships are mostly formed within family structures or with people who are

already part of an already existing social group (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, pp. 92,100).

“If only one ingroup is present, it dominates social life. It provides the only source of norms, identity, and social support. Collectivists may have relatively few ingroups, but they identify very strongly with them. The ingroups of collectivists provide social insurance, protection and a relaxing atmosphere. The presence of many ingroups encourages individualism” (Triandis, 1995, p. 59).

Research into the values of Individualist persons (according to a questionnaire completed by university students) presented the following values (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 100):

- Tolerance of others
- Harmony with others
- Noncompetitiveness
- A close, intimate friend
- Trustworthiness
- Contentedness with one’s position in life
- Solidarity with others
- Being conservative

Collectivistic persons (according to the results of the same questionnaire) were identified to hold the following values (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 100):

- Filial piety (obedience to parents, respect for parents, honoring of ancestors, financial support of parents)
- Chastity in women
- Patriotism

Attributes of Individualism and Collectivism

Triandis (1995) characterizes the differences between individualism and collectivism into 16 attributes: self-perception, attributions, identity and

emotions, cognitions, motivation, attitudes, norms, values, social behavior, attitudes towards piracy, communication, conflict resolution, morality, responsibility, personality, and professional behavior (Triandis, 1995, pp. 68-79). The following section describes how each attribute differs between the two groups.

The first attribute is Self-Perception. While the individualist views the individual as a unit, the collectivist uses groups as the foundations for self-perception. In collectivist societies relationships consist of groups with an individual serving as a kind of leader. In individual societies individuals may have several relationships of varying strengths, but it is unlikely that most or all individuals would choose one particular individual as a leader. Self-esteem in individualistic compared to collectivist societies values different forms of success. Collectivist societies focus more on failure, while individualist societies focus more on success (Triandis, 1995, pp. 68-71).

Triandis next describes the differences in attributions between individualists and collectivists. Each group differentiates in how they perceived events. While individualists attribute the cause of events with internal reasons, collectivists stress external causes more strongly. (Triandis, 1995, p. 71).

The third attribute is “Identity and Emotions.” Collectivists establish their identity and emotions based on their group membership, while individualists establish their identity and emotions based on their own experiences and accomplishments. Emotions are more short-lived for collectivists and individualists are more ego-focused (Triandis, 1995, pp. 71-72).

Triandis also distinguishes individualists and collectivists through the attribute cognitions as well as through the attribute Motivation. Regarding cognitions, Triandis identifies individualists as care about their personal needs and problems. Collectivists care more about their place within the group (Triandis, 1995, p. 72). Concerning the attribute motivation, individualists are motivated by their own goals and capacities while limited by the ability to ‘withstand social pressure. Collectivists are more motivated by other people’s needs and goals and focus on achievements and goals of the group as a whole. Individualists

think that their personal achievements are also desired by society (Triandis, 1995, pp. 72-73).

The attribute attitudes relates to how individualists believe more strongly in competition than in group spirit. They may have opinions which are not shared by the rest of a group but can still be happy. Collectivists rather depend on other people and value family integrity. Individualists do not want to rely on others (Triandis, 1995, p. 73).

Norms as an attribute expresses itself in how collectivists have certain rules for women's roles in society. The family and the group play a large role in which often a patriarch or a group of so called 'elders' are responsible for group decision-making regarding the future (Triandis, 1995, p. 73).

Values refers to the collectivists favoring harmony in personal relationships, while individualists favor 'intellectual autonomy and affective autonomy'. Collectivists favor tradition, family, elders, social order and structure (Triandis, 1995, p. 74).

Regarding social behavior, individualists do not change their behavior because of social pressure. Collectivists however do change their behavior given group social pressure. Some groups exert stronger pressure than others. Collectivists treat each friend and colleague differently but have a unique way of meeting strangers. They try not to cause conflict but rather try to maintain harmony. Collectivists also enjoy group activities, while individualists like to do activities either on their own or with one other person, but not in larger groups (Triandis, 1995, pp. 74-76).

Triandis also distinguishes between collectivists and individualists on attitudes toward privacy. In collectivist societies businesses are often owned by families and commonly employ family members. This influences decisions on whether children are allowed to study or work somewhere else. Position within the company are often decided by the whole family, the patriarch of the family, or a designated group of community or family elders. Individualists on the other hand make their decisions independently (Triandis, 1995, p. 76).

In their communication, collectivists use words like "we" more often when expressing a collectivist perception, while individualists use "I" more often.

(Triandis, 1995, pp. 76-77). When resolving conflicts, another one of the attributes identified by Triandis, collectivist societies are often driven by the wish to preserve current relationships, but only with those considered to be insiders and not with enemies. In that case, the relationship could be much more hostile (Triandis, 1995, p. 77).

In collectivist societies the attribute morality is driven by the context of the society. While that might be true in any kind of society, the difference is that collectivist societies have many rules and traditions based on morals. Individuals do not want to live according to these rules and traditions, rather they want to hold their own opinions (Triandis, 1995, pp. 77-78).

Responsibility is another attribute that differs between collectivists and individualists. In collectivist cultures the collective is responsible for the wrongdoing of one of its members. In individualist cultures it is the individual who is solely responsible (Triandis, 1995, p. 78).

Personality refers to how collectivists, in contrast to individualists, have a high fear of rejection by others. They also do not like people who do not fit in to the group and who try to be unique, as opposed to the attitudes of individualists (Triandis, 1995, p. 79).

The final attribute in the research presented by Triandis is professional behavior. For collectivists loyalty is an important concept. They give professional positions to people who they trust rather than to the most skilled person. Promotions often happen as a result of seniority, i.e. how long someone has worked for the company (Triandis, 1995, p. 79).

The Dimensions of Individualism and Collectivism: The discussion of One or Two Dimensions

Whether individualism and collectivism can be considered as one or as two dimensions depends on “whether we compare entire societies [...] or individuals within societies” (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 102).

Individualism can be measured one dimensionally on one scale with collectivism which assigns individualism a low score and collectivism a high

score. Alternatively, individualism can also be measured on a scale which only measures the degree of individuality, and in the same way collectivism can be measured by asking only collectivistic-centric questions to measure only the degree of collectivism. In the second case, the result would be two separate dimensions (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 102).

According to Triandis (1995), collectivism and individualism can also be measured using vertical and horizontal dimensions. An example of a question following this method is shown below:

“If you had to describe yourself to another person, which of the following descriptions would you choose?”

- ➔ *achievement oriented (vertical individualism) [independent/different]*
- ➔ *cooperative (horizontal collectivism) [interdependent/same]*
- ➔ *dutiful (vertical collectivism) [interdependent/different]*
- ➔ *unique (horizontal individualism) [independent/same”*

(Triandis, 1995, pp. 44,47)

3.1.2. Measuring of Individualism and Collectivism

Different indexes for measuring in general

Hofstede had four dimensions in his basic model while nine cultural dimensions were recognized in the Globe model. The dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism versus collectivism are included in both the Hofstede and Globe models, however they differ in their representations of several other dimensions. The Globe model distinguishes institutional collectivism (as reflected by social values) from group-collectivism (meaning the level of social values in families and organizations). Hofstede's dimension of femininity versus masculinity is split into four sub-categories in the Globe model. In addition, the Globe model gives managers a broader focus, while the Hofstede model focuses not only on management. The Globe model also ties a future orientation to a stronger materialist base, while Hofstede focuses more on the value of education. Furthermore, social skills and other

skills are included in the Globe model but not in the Hofstede model. The Hofstede model focuses comparatively on cultural dimensions that reveal certain ideologies and attitudes, while the Globe Model is more detailed (even when choosing scale levels) and focuses more on concrete actions than on attitudes. With the Globe Model it is also easier to create subcategories examining a dimension (Shi, 2011, pp. 98-99).

Lastly, the Globe model assumes more strongly that states or societies are more interdependent and intertwined. The Globe model can however examine organizations (corporate cultures) at the micro level and not just represent a comparison between different nation states. Hofstede (2006) himself examined differences between the two models and found 7 major differences: "*new data versus existing data; team versus single researchers; manager versus employees; theory-driven versus action-driven; US inspired against decentered; organizational culture as similar or different in nature to/from societal culture; national wealth as a part or as an antecedent of culture*" (Hofstede³, 2006, pp. 883-885). Hofstede does not see the concept of culture reduced to an organization or to another micro level but sees it in the national context. The Globe model may in a way be considered as an extension of the Hofstede model (Shi, 2011, pp. 95-96).

According to Hofstede (2006), the two sets of dimensions, Hofstede and Globe, each lead to different conclusions. Applying the categories power-distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and long-term orientation, there is no significant correlation when using the same data sets in both models. Hofstede sees the difference the Globe model naming factors that were hidden and unplanned by the Globe team, i.e. those which were the result of errors in the system (Hofstede³, 2006, p. 893).

While Hofstede's research is based only on a multi-national company system (IBM in more than 70 countries), Globe takes a broader focus. Hofstede criticizes the Globe model by claiming the 18 dimensions (between scales) used in the questionnaires over-exaggerate. Hofstede uses a rather simple structured but can give clear answers to essential research questions. Hofstede is better suited for working in comparative models, for example, when comparing US and Austria or any other two nations (Venaik & Brewer, 2008, pp. 4-7).

Both models measure uncertainty avoidance in different ways. Hofstede asks specific questions, such as whether someone is nervous at work, how long can someone can imagine staying at the current job, or whether the rules of the company should be broken in cases where it makes sense but represents a risk for the employee. Globe redefines uncertainty by using sub-factors to show risk taking, such as an orderly and structured work routine, formal procedures, and rules of everyday life. Uncertainty prevention is in this way more directly determined. The question that arises is whether Hofstede identifies the category according relevant and practical criteria that directly relate to behavior of the persons interviewed. Globe criticizes Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance approach in this regard, implying that Hofstede's answers are less valid. Globe also attempts to measure the categories using a seven-fold scale. Hofstede's approach in this regard is more suitable for a qualitative analysis in which even unknown backgrounds can be uncovered (Venaik & Brewer, 2008, pp. 9-10).

Hofstede's model is also more suitable when comparing countries using indexes. Globe focuses more on comparing similar systems, while the Hofstede model better allows for the comparison of different systems. For the use of international marketing, however, the Globe model is more adequate, as the various categories allow for better comparisons within this context (Mooij, 2017, p. 444).

3.1.3 Individualism and Collectivism in Correlation with Occupation, Family, the Workplace and Other Dimensions

Family

In collectivistic societies more family members are connected and included in the family structure, causing larger immediate families. Children who grow up in families with these large family structures, which can span several generations and included more distantly related members, have a stronger sense of belonging in a group than children who grow up in a family consisting only of two parents and their children. Children who are members of an extended family structure grow up surrounded by people and rarely experience

moments in which they are alone. Living in a society with collectivist values also means direct confrontations are often avoided. An example of a direct confrontation is when members of a group must say 'no' to the requests or opinions of other members. In collectivist societies, even agreeing with other members can be less direct than in individualist societies. Individualist societies value direct confrontation and discussions more. Confrontations in this regard also mean more direct and truthful communication and more constructive feedback. In collectivist societies, children are also believed not to have their own opinions and instead to hold opinions predetermined by the family or group. In comparison individualistic societies encourage children to form their own opinions. The higher the degree of loyalty in collectivist societies, the higher the connection to a specific group. This can mean, for example, money earned by an individual is not automatically owned by the individual but is instead shared within the family. A jobless family member in a collectivist society will receive financial support from their family. It also means that the family decides who within the family will be allowed to pursue a higher education. In individualistic societies, children who begin at an early age to work part time jobs, such as handing out flyers or delivering newspapers, are more often allowed to keep the pocket money they earn. Children in collectivist societies will remain longer in their parents' house than children in individualist societies. For collectivistic societies family celebrations like marriages and other important celebrations are important events where attendance is required for all family members. People who grow up with a collectivistic background can also more easily integrate themselves into other groups of people with a shared background (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, pp. 106-111).

Occupation

The dimensions of power distance and individualism versus collectivism can be measured on the country level or the occupational level. This is explained by the different intrinsic and extrinsic values according to the model of Frederick Herzberg, as well as different types of occupations. This model presents two different types of motivation: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation is

valued more by those who are motivated by materialistic rewards, while intrinsic motivation is valued by people who feel motivated by fulfilling work. According to Herzberg, the extrinsic factors are 'psychological hygiene' factors and only the intrinsic factors serve as real motivators for a job. Intrinsic motivations play a stronger role for highly educated people, while those with less education favor more extrinsic motivators (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, pp. 105-106).

Workplace

Collectivist societies are shaped by family connections in which the son usually inherits the business of his father. This can also be true in individualistic societies; however, job mobility is likelier in collectivistic settings. Companies in collectivist societies prefer employees who share a similar group structural background and often hire from within family structures as a means of minimizing risk. On the contrary, the hiring of family members can be as nepotism in individualistic societies. Collectivist societies also have a tendency to hire family members in order to ensure that their company is represented by a high moral standard. Families are trusted more and are required to remain loyal to their family's company. Meanwhile, the performance of family members is not as important, creating difficulties in finding performance-based grounds for termination. However, poor performance in individualistic societies is more likely the reason an employee, and an employee is more likely motivated by salary to look for work outside of their current company. Employees in individualistic societies are also more likely to receive bonuses and other incentives because of individual performance and behavior, while employees in group-based collectivistic society tend to feel rewarded by group success. While a collectivistic manager tends to only employ people with the same ethnic background, individualistic managers seek to diversify the ethnic background of their workforce (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, pp. 119-122).

Individualism and Collectivism can also be ideologies. Especially in the US, individualism is a value and connected to freedom. *"The more individualist a country, the stronger its citizens preference for freedom over equality."*

Freedom is an individualist ideal, equality a collectivist ideal" (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 128). Individualist ideologies also form such theories as Abraham Maslow's 'Hierarchy of needs' (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, pp. 128-129).

Relationship between High Collectivism and High-Power Distance

There is a high correlation between the dimensions of collectivism and power distance. Countries with a high value on the power distance index often exhibit a high value on the collectivism versus individualism index. On one hand, Austria has a medium individualism score but a very low power distance score. Turkey, on the other hand, has a large value on the power distance score and a high value on the individualism versus collectivism score. These scores can be seen in Figure 1 below. People interacting more in groups accept power figures more easily. As previously mentioned, families in collectivistic societies often follow a patriarchal structure, with a natural family leader. Families in individualistic cultures do not have these kinds of strong leaders. This concept follows in both Austria and Turkey but does not in all societies. France and Belgium for example have a high power distance scores and yet still strong scores in individualism. Studies researching inequality show that inequality is more strongly correlated with the dimension of power distance than with the dimension of individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, pp. 103-104).

Differences between Individualism and Collectivism versus Masculinity and Femininity

Research shows a problem in differentiating between the dimensions of Individualism and Collectivism and Masculinity and Femininity. Many US-American authors are often unable to differentiate between these dimensions so that Individualism is separate from Masculinity and Collectivism is separate from Femininity, as Masculinity is considered to be an attribute of individualism; conversely, Korean sociologists consider Masculinity to be a

collectivist attribute. Both viewpoints are unsupported by the Hofstede model, which asserts the dimensions as completely independent of each other. *“Masculinity and Femininity is about a stress on ego versus a stress on relationship with others, regardless of group ties. Relationships in collectivist cultures are basically predetermined by group ties: “groupiness” is collectivist, not feminine”* (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, Cultures and Organizations, Software of the Mind, 2010, p. 146).

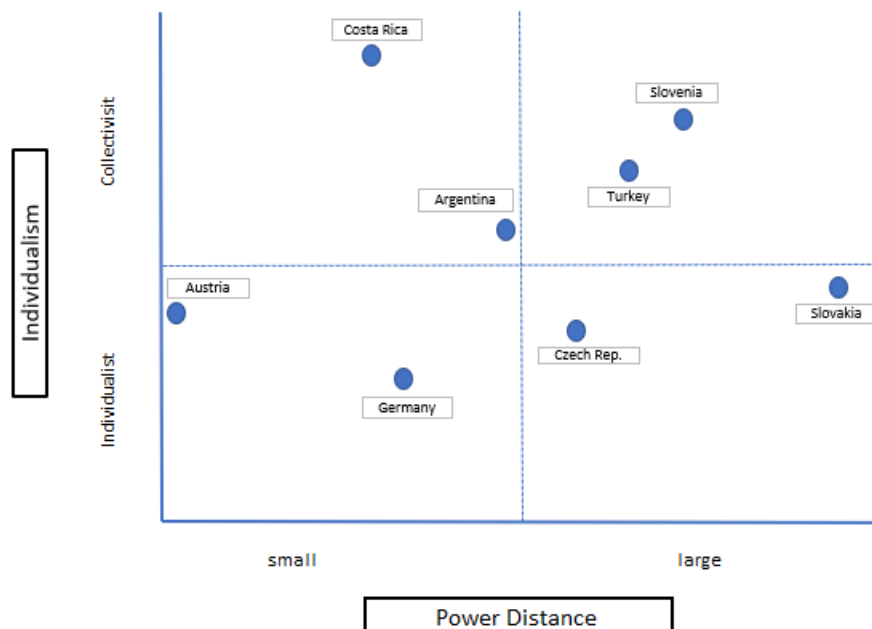


Figure 1: Relationship between High Collectivism and High-Power Distance (Hofstede², Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 103)

3.2. The Austrian Population

Austria has a very unique migration history including immigrants with Turkish roots. In need of workers, Austria hosted a great number of itinerant workers from Yugoslavia and Turkey starting in the 1960's. In 1972 Austria the population of these guest workers was 227.000, with other ethnic groups migrating later in 1989, including Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Magyars, Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. In their publication of Austria's international position after the cold war, Bischof and Karlhofer imply certain difficulties concerning the attempts to integrate Turkish workers with Turkish backgrounds due to cultural, traditional and religious differences, which may still be experienced today. These implications are partly the subject of the investigation presented in thesis, as the authors believe the cultural differences between these two countries stem from their differences in collectivism and individualism dimension (Bischof & Karlhofer, 2013, pp. 157-158).

Austria has been and still is affected by migration, with a large number of varying nationalities living throughout its federal states as well as in the metropolis city of Vienna. Figures from 2017 estimate a total of 8.773.868 inhabitants in Austria, whereof 1,898 million have a migrant background. This accounts for 21.6% of the Austrian population. Out of the nine federal states of Austria, Vienna is the most populated in both total and immigrant populations (Bundesministerium für Arbeit Soziales Gesundheit und Konsumentenschutz, 2017).

Statistic 1 below shows the population distribution throughout the individual federal states. Statistic 2 shows the proportion of individuals with migratory background living in each federal state.

According to the statistics provided by the Austrian government, the capital city of Vienna exhibits the largest population amongst all federal states, closely followed by Lower Austria, Upper Austria, and Styria. The remaining states each have a population of less than one million.

Bundesland	EinwohnerInnen
Burgenland	291.974
Kärnten	561.098
Niederösterreich	1.665.815
Oberösterreich	1.465.205
Salzburg	549.372
Steiermark	1.237.372
Tirol	746.179
Vorarlberg	388.711
Wien	1.867.960

Statistic 1: The Federal States and their Population Figures (migration.gv.at, 2018)

Bevölkerung mit Migrationshintergrund nach Bundesländern (Jahresdurchschnitt 2016)

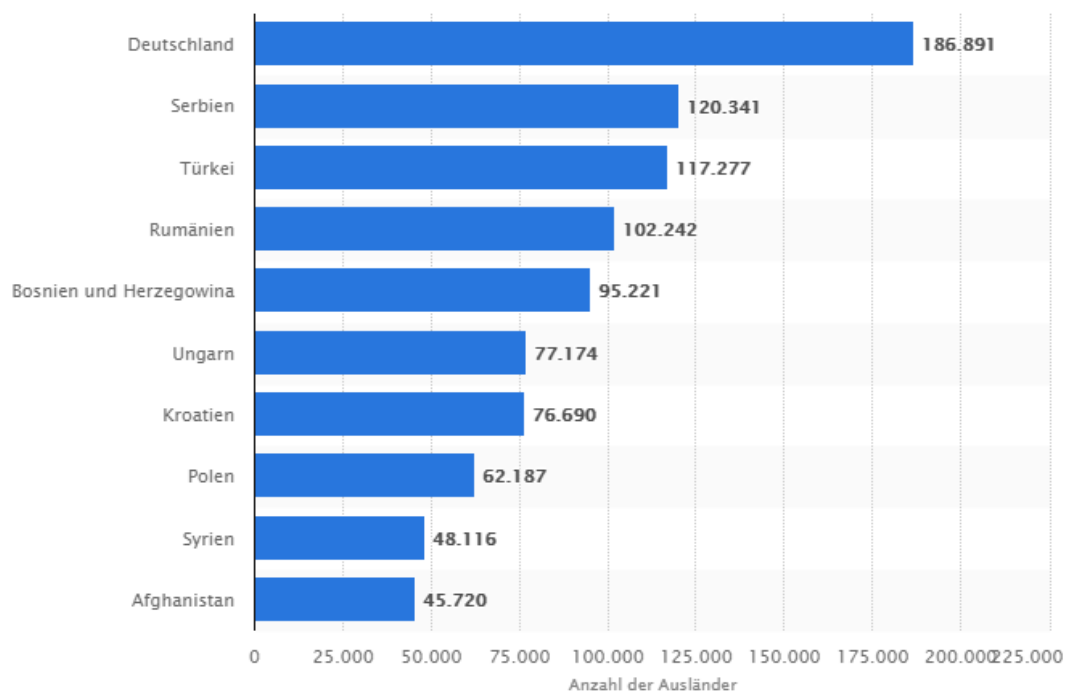
Bundesland	Bevölkerung in Privathaushalten	Migrationshintergrund			
		zusammen	Zuwanderer der 1. Generation	Zuwanderer der 2. Generation	zusammen in %
Österreich	8.599,2	1.898,0	1.414,9	483,1	22,1
Burgenland	287,7	33,3	26,2	7,0	11,6
Kärnten	552,8	68,4	54,9	13,5	12,4
Niederösterreich	1.639,1	245,0	172,1	72,8	14,9
Oberösterreich	1.436,9	255,6	182,8	72,8	17,8
Salzburg	538,2	114,6	85,0	29,6	21,3
Steiermark	1.215,9	162,5	121,4	41,0	13,4
Tirol	730,3	148,3	115,3	32,9	20,3
Vorarlberg	381,6	93,6	66,3	27,3	24,5
Wien	1.816,7	776,8	590,7	186,0	42,8

Statistic 2: The Federal States and their Population Figures (Statistik Austria - Die Informationsmanager, 2018)

Vienna represents the largest population and largest proportion of immigrants of 42.8. The immigration population proportion is relative to total population, with Lower Austria, Upper Austria and Styria exhibiting the highest proportions of immigrant populations following Vienna.

Government statistics show Austria's immigrants as having many different countries of origin, as shown in the following three statistics. However, this topic is only concerned with examining immigrants of Turkish origins and therefore discusses only those figures in relation to the other populations.

Statistics 3 and 5 show Turkey as the second largest immigrant country of origin population after Serbia. The Turkish immigrant population is also the second largest immigrant population in the city of Vienna, again following the Serbian immigrant population, as shown in statistic 4 (Magistratsabteilung 23, 2017). In addition to the personal backgrounds of the authors, these figures support the importance of studying the cultural differences between these two cultures.



Statistic 3: Number of foreigners in Austria after the ten most important nationalities per January 2018 (Statista GmbH, 2018)

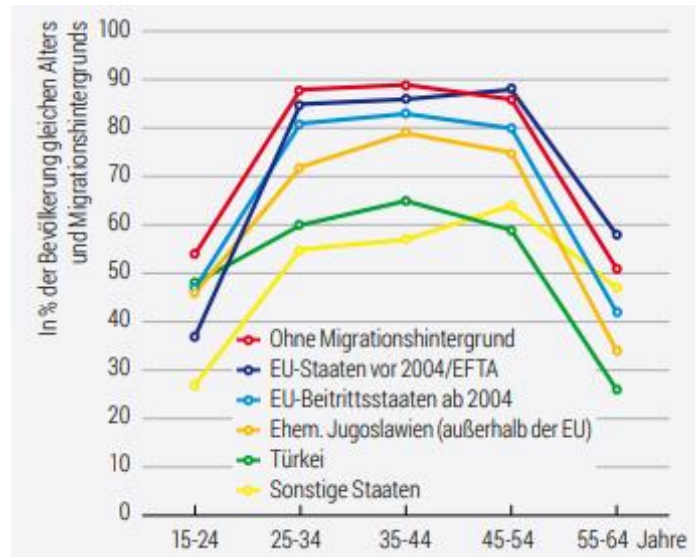
According to the Statistical Yearbook for Integration and Immigration of 2017, immigrants in Austria have a higher unemployment rate than the native Austrian population. In distinguishing further between EU and ESTA- States and inhabitants of particular third countries, Turkey stands out as having an especially low rate of employment, particularly among women and mothers. The percentage of the population which is active in the economy is show below in statistics 6 and 7, with Turkey depicted in green (Statistik Austria, 2017, pp. 54-55).

	Herkunft ge- samt	Herkunft in Prozent	Frauen ge- samt	Frauen in Prozent	Staatsangehörig- keit gesamt	Staatsangehörig- keit in Prozent
Österreich	1.132.873	60,7	586.539	51,8	1.333.050	71,4
Ausland	734.709	39,3	371.919	50,6	534.532	28,6
davon EU/EFTA	296.975	15,9	157.912	53,2	230.605	12,3
davon Drittstaaten	437.734	23,4	214.007	48,9	303.927	16,3
1. Serbien	100.402	5,4	52.352	52,1	75.964	4,1
2. Türkei	76.523	4,1	36.291	47,4	45.838	2,5
3. Deutschland	56.807	3	29.236	51,5	43.837	2,3
4. Polen	52.997	2,8	27.158	51,2	41.260	2,2
5. Bosnien und Herzegowina	40.645	2,2	21.300	52,4	22.054	1,2

Statistic 4: The Viennese Population of 2017 by Origin (Magistratsabteilung 23, 2017)

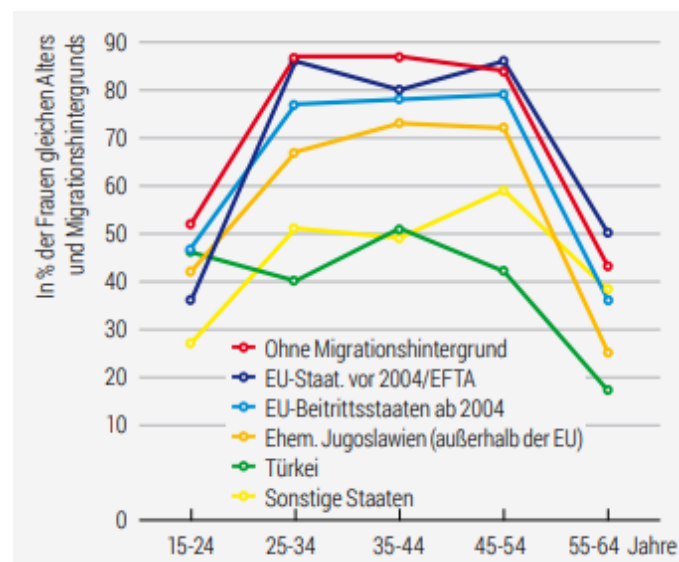
Staatsangehörigkeit	Bevölkerung zum Stichtag 1.1.					
	2016			2017		
	Insgesamt	Männer	Frauen	Insgesamt	Männer	Frauen
Insgesamt	1.840.226	893.085	947.141	1.867.582	909.124	958.458
AUT Österreich	1.336.029	635.524	700.505	1.333.050	635.174	697.876
Fremde insgesamt	504.197	257.561	246.636	534.532	273.950	260.582
Europa insgesamt	399.054	198.783	200.271	415.494	206.788	208.706
EU-Mitgliedsstaaten	215.591	106.088	109.503	228.228	112.437	115.791
Andere europäische Staaten	183.463	92.695	90.768	187.266	94.351	92.915
ALB Albanien	975	463	512	1.098	527	571
BIH Bosnien und Herzegowina	21.786	11.950	9.836	22.054	12.037	10.017
CHE Schweiz	1.867	885	982	1.913	921	992
MKD Mazedonien	9.892	5.185	4.707	10.177	5.309	4.868
RUS Russische Föderation	14.681	6.197	8.484	15.253	6.446	8.807
SCG Serbien und Montenegro	74.538	38.351	36.187	75.964	39.052	36.912
TUR Türkei	45.539	23.239	22.300	45.838	23.339	22.499
UKR Ukraine	5.293	1.867	3.426	5.675	2.009	3.666
XKS Kosovo	6.445	3.557	2.888	6.762	3.680	3.082
Sonstiges Europa	2.447	1.001	1.446	2.532	1.031	1.501

Statistic 5: Population following citizenship and gender 2015 and 2016 (Magistratsabteilung 23, 2017)



Statistic 6: Economically Active Population 2016

(Statistik Austria, 2017, p. 55)



Statistic 7: Economically Active Female Population 2016

(Statistik Austria, 2017, p. 55)

Low representation of the Turkish population within the Austrian labour market may affect the premise of the underlying study. However, the presumption is that the large representation of inhabitants with Turkish roots within the overall population of the country will provide a sufficiently large sample of working population so that expressive results may be obtained and compared.

3.3. The Aspect of Culture

While attempting to distinguish cultural differences between two different nationalities, one should first clarify and define the overall concept of culture. Merriam-Webster defines the term culture as “*the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a racial, religious, or social group; also: the characteristic features of everyday existence*” (Merriam - Webster Dictionary, 2018)¹.

According to the Dutch expert in cultural studies Geert Hofstede, culture describes:

“The collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others” (Hofstede, Culture’s Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values, 1980, p. 13)

Another definition from the American anthropologist Clifford Geertz denotes culture as:

“A system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life” (Geertz, 1973, p. 89)

These definitions lead to the understanding that cultural differences result from the evolutionary processes of nations and are subject to many different influencing factors.

As mentioned, one of the most relevant influencers of this study is the work of the social psychologist Geert Hofstede. Throughout his studies and in collaboration with Michael Minkov and Geert Jan Hofstede, Hofstede

¹ Further definitions from Merriam-Webster include „*the set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterizes an institution or organization*“, „*the set of values, conventions, or social practices associated with a particular field, activity, or societal characteristic*“ or „*the integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behavior that depends upon the capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations*“.

developed a number of *cultural dimensions* said to influence values in the workplace. As previously discussed, these include:

- *Power Distance Index*,
- *Individualism versus Collectivism*,
- *Masculinity versus Femininity*,
- *Uncertainty Avoidance Index and*
- *Long Term Orientation versus Short Term Normative Orientation* (Hofstede, Geert, 2018).

The *Power Distance Index* refers to the level of acceptance a nation exhibits concerning inequalities and distribution of power among society. The higher the index for power distance, the more likely a nation is to accept hierarchical orders. The differentiation between *individualism and collectivism* denotes the condition of approach to the social framework. *Individualist* countries support the importance of the individual and their immediate surrounding, whereas *collectivist* countries value a highly intertwined society, drawing a much bigger circle around the individual and leading to a much larger group dissemination. The aspect of *Masculinity versus Femininity* distinguishes and refers to the occurrence of certain attributes of the two. Masculinity consists of such attributes as “*achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material rewards for success*”. In contrast femininity includes qualities like “*cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life*”. The dimension of *Uncertainty Avoidance* explicates the level of comfort accredited to a nation in relation to uncertainty, obscurity, and the desire to control the future. The mindset of a country in this context goes hand in hand with the acceptance of unconventional behavior and tolerance for alterations. Finally, the aspect of *Long Term Orientation versus Short Term Normative Orientation*, also known as *Monumentalism versus Flexhumility*, distinguishes between a prioritization of long-ranging traditions and norms and a focus on adaptive change and modernity (Hofstede, Geert, 2018).

3.3.1. The Cultural Dimensions of Hofstede in evaluation for Austria and Turkey

An online tool on the Hofstede Insights website allows for the comparison of each of the cultural dimensions between any two countries. The graphic below illustrates a comparison of Austrian and Turkish cultures using this comparison tool:

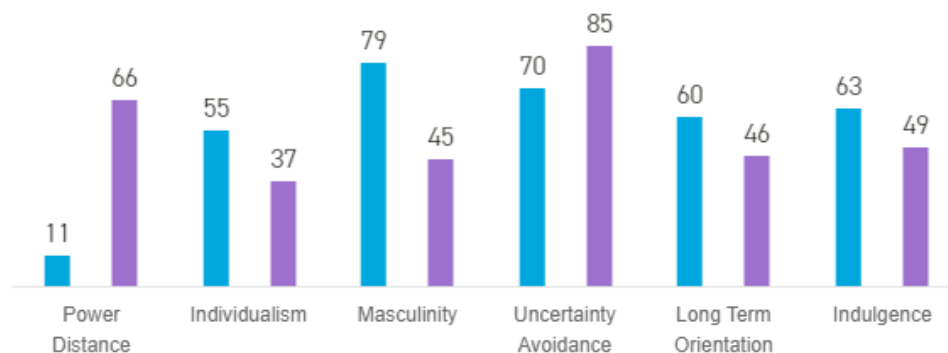


Figure 2: Country Comparison Austria versus Turkey (Hofstede, Geert, 2018).

Variances can be seen between the two countries in all cultural dimensions. These differences are more broadly discussed below.

The results for Austria show a very low result on the power distance index. The index of 11 implies a very independent society that is concerned with equality. A hierarchy in Austria serves only when convenient, and society is guided by the consensus of the group rather than by one superior figure. Regarding the dimension of individuality in Austria, a score of 55 indicates the desire for a “*loosely-knit social framework*” in society, which, according to Hofstede, often leads to guilt and a loss of self-esteem. This score also indicates that an individual mainly takes care of his or herself and acts for his or her own advantage. Within the scope of the dimension masculine versus feminine, Austria scores rather high in masculine attributes, with a result of 79. This means success, competition, and performance are valued highly among the members of society. A rather high score is also obtained in the area of

uncertainty avoidance. The result of 70 implies the prevalence of rigid codes and assumed importance of beliefs and traditions, extending to the professional world. Finally, the evaluation of the dimension of long term orientation yields a score of 60 for Austria. This implies a pragmatic orientation with the ability to adapt to changes in order to succeed. The results of the country comparison exhibit another aspect of differentiation, namely *indulgence*, not included in the dimensions listed before. This dimension focuses on “*the extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses based on the way they were raised*”. Austrians, with a score of 63, are willing to realize impulses and desires. This also implies a higher valuation of leisure and personal time (Hofstede, Geert, 2018).

Contrary to the results for Austria, Turkey exhibits a very high result for the dimension of power distance. The score of 66 in this area clearly indicates the country’s culture to have a higher dependency towards hierarchy, centralized power, and strict rules and controls. This is valid for both familial and professional aspects of culture. Turkey, with a score of 37 in collectivism versus individualism, can be considered a collectivist society in contrast with Austria. This indicates a disposition towards indirect communication and a stressed importance of group harmony. Relationships are often prioritized over task fulfillment. Turkey scores 45 within the dimension of masculinity and femininity. The country has a stronger representation of feminine characteristics. Open conflicts are avoided, while sympathy and consensus are valued. In terms of uncertainty avoidance, the Turkish are evaluated with an outcome of 85, representing a high commitment to traditions and rituals. Concerning long term orientation versus short term normative orientation and indulgence, a conclusive orientation cannot be determined, as the scores are close to 50 in both dimensions (Hofstede, Geert, 2018).

In comparing the countries results directly, no significant differences are found within the dimensions of uncertainty avoidance, long term orientation, or indulgence. However, important distinctions regarding the areas of masculinity versus femininity, individualism versus collectivism, and the power distance index can be observed (Hofstede, Geert, 2018).

3.3.2. Contemplation of Differences in Business Conduct

According to Hofstede, internal patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential actions of individuals may be traced back to something called *mental programming*. Mental Programming stems from the society in which a person grows up (family, neighborhood, school, workplace relationships etc.). The phenomenon is caused by the distinct manifestations of culture (Hofstede, *Interkulturelle Zusammenarbeit*, 1991, p. 18).

As illustrated in the previous section, cultures vary between multiple dimensions. Apart from the deliberations of Hofstede's dimensions, Adler defines the basic dimensions as encompassing *people's qualities as individuals, their relationships to nature and the world, their relationship to other people, their primary type of activity and their orientation in space and time*. All these dimensions of differentiation reflect behavioral and attitudinal implications. (Adler, 2002, p. 20)

The questions of interest are in what ways the behavior and attitudes of people vary in organizations and management situations, and how beliefs and values influence behavior at the workplace do. According to Adler a manager's values, beliefs, and attributes affecting his behavior will subsequently influence the behavior and preferences of his subordinates. This assumption leads to the conjecture that company culture is closely linked to management and management's classification within culturally defined dimensions. How organizational culture can conversely affect national culture, as well as the effects on the behaviors and perceptions of employees are two topics also raised by Adler which are not covered by the authors in the scope of this thesis (Adler, 2002, pp. 45-46).

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The interaction of the three concepts described above, including individualism, aspect of culture, and the migrant population in Austria, builds on the origin of this master thesis and on the authors' interests in studying a representative cultural attitude towards a specific, current trend. It also explores the potential to overcome any differences in cultural norms and values within a work environment.

Within their work „*Social structure, infectious diseases, disasters, secularism, and cultural change in America*”, Grossmann and Varnum point out observed changes in the cultural aspect of individualism over time. They link the characteristics of individualism to concepts such as cultural products, cultural practices, and the structure of relationships. Their work follows the work of other scientists such as Morling & Lamoreaux, Vandelloh & Cohen or Kitayama, investigating the adaptability of the cultural dimensions individualism and collectivism to different environmental impacts. One impact they investigate is the general modernization of society, arguing that modernization has promoted individualism. Another is the effect of socioeconomic factors, embedding a person's occupational background within their conception for individualism. (Grossmann & Varnum, 2015, pp. 311-324). This thesis investigates how occupation and culture influence one's mindset towards individualism as one aspect of the research questions. Formulated as research questions, this thesis asks the following: To what extent do western European Austrian and meridional Turkish integrate individualism and differentiation in everyday work? In a professional context, how strong is the desire to act individually and express one's own personality represented among the two cultures? What are the drivers facilitating or obstructing an employee from the realization of self-fulfillment in each culture? What, if any, observed variances concerning individualism in the workplace are caused by cultural differences in operation?

The first hypothesis formulated within this context constitutes the main proposition of this work. The authors expect to find that, compared to the Austrian labor market, the governance by Turkish establishments will always

leave less room for individual expression. Thus, the first hypothesis examined by this thesis is the following:

Hypothesis 1: *“Business establishments led by management of Turkish origin generally exhibit a lower rate of opportunity for individual self-unfolding on the job than Austrian places of employment”*

While the first hypothesis is concerned with a possible divergence in business conduct between the two nationalities, the second hypothesis proposes the possibility of a similarity between the two. The authors expect the degree of self-expression in the Austrian work place to be mediated by cultural aspects of business conduct, however, another mediating factor may be the size of a corporation. The second hypothesis therefor reads as follows:

Hypothesis 2: *“Equally valid for both cultures, the degree of possibility for individualism at the workplace is negatively correlated to the size of the corporation”*

The primary motivation for this study in general is the observation of cultural drivers of diverging perceptions within the topic of individualism in the workplace. The third and last hypothesis therefor examines the fundamental reason for differences in this area, which the authors expect to be explained by another cultural dimension defined by the cultural scientist Geert Hofstede, the *Power Distance Index*.

Hypothesis 3: *“The cause of the divergence of attitude towards individualism within the work environment lies in the cultures’ perceptions of power distance”*

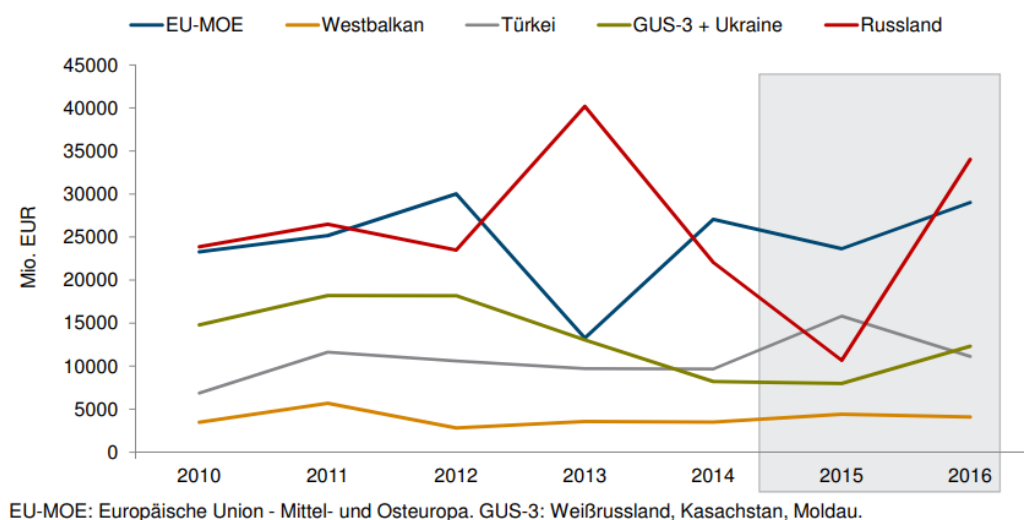
An examination of the Austrian labor market and the number of existing Turkish establishments will lead to certain limitations regarding this area of research. According to the Statistical Yearbook for Integration and Immigration published by the Austrian federal institutions in 2017, the proportion of the migrant population with Turkish backgrounds is lower than that of those with EU or former Yugoslavian backgrounds (Statistik Austria, 2017, pp. 54-55).

However, there is a strong enough representation of Turkish migrants within the overall of immigration numbers, as presented throughout chapter 3.2, leading to the expectation that the population is large enough as to not negatively interfere with the results of the study. A distortion may nevertheless be caused by the low rate of working women from the Turkish migrant population (Statistik Austria, 2017, pp. 54-55). There is reason to believe that results of the Turkish respondents to the study will be predominated by male participants.

Another possible limitation to the study is the low number of Turkish-managed establishments in the different sectors examined in this research. The numbers presented by the Austrian Federal Economic Chamber and the Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies show a rather low rate of overall passive foreign direct investment into Austrian businesses by Turkish investors (Wirtschaftskammer Österreich, 2018). Statistics for the number of foreign companies operated in Austria provide similar results. (Statistik Austria, 2015). Number of ventures with Turkish management, along with numbers of employees and instances of Turkish direct investment in Austria are exhibited in Statistics 8 through 10 below. A lack of representation of establishments with Turkish management may complicate the acquisition of sufficient data.

FDI-Zuflüsse 2016 gegenüber 2015:

EU-MOE +23%, Westbalkan -7%, Türkei -30%, GUS-3 und Ukraine +54%, Russland +219%



Statistic 8: Foreign Direct Investments 2016 (Hunya, 2017, p. 3)

Auslandsunternehmenseinheiten 2015: Hauptergebnisse ¹⁾ nach Partnerländern			
Länder (gereiht nach Beschäftigtenzahlen)	Auslandsunternehmens- einheiten	Beschäftigte im Jahresdurchschnitt	Umsatzerlöse in Mio. EUR
Auslandstochtergesellschaften von in Österreich ansässigen Unternehmen ²⁾			
Insgesamt (Welt ohne Österreich)	5.863	1.075.201	354.798
EU-28	3.940	719.072	182.933
Nicht-EU	1.923	356.129	171.865
darunter:			
Russische Föderation	165	49.410	6.818
Vereinigte Staaten	212	49.336	32.987
Ukraine	84	38.798	1.218
China	187	33.467	17.876
Serbien	136	21.566	3.200
Schweiz	191	17.495	62.636
Türkei	95	16.896	3.922
Brasilien	68	12.378	1.990
Australien	28	12.302	5.214
Indien	51	10.208	873
Bosnien und Herzegowina	61	8.453	964
Mexiko	38	8.408	798
Mazedonien	39	7.571	973
Belarus	15	5.792	1.494
Malaysia	21	5.789	546
Kanada	45	5.365	5.860

Statistic 9: Foreign Entities 2015 (Statistik Austria, 2015)

Ausländische Direktinvestitionen in Österreich

Herkunftsländer	Investitionen des Auslands in Österreich, Mio. EURO ¹															
	(passive Direktinvestitionen)															
	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014 ¹	2015 ¹	2016 ¹	2017 ¹	
Belgien	- 17	36	- 149	15	1.260	- 198	319	238	63	- 281	- 311	24	- 28	- 21	- 4	
Dänemark	55	- 26	45	- 584	- 194	24	98	- 46	- 4	9	- 72	30	1	- 6	7	
Deutschland	236	7.610	3.815	3.066	- 8.410	4.307	- 1.168	- 255	2.490	2.466	1.309	- 1.421	3.252	319	1.496	
Finnland	29	- 1	72	13	116	- 829	312	256	- 137	- 25	- 402	- 144	46	17	61	
Frankreich	- 28	91	191	- 51	444	42	171	197	123	110	- 678	196	- 63	84	501	
Großbritannien	35	399	134	- 182	2.540	- 36	- 74	538	433	- 325	430	- 1.221	572	- 193	- 283	
Italien	48	128	2.189	1.705	10.424	668	237	2.418	273	- 689	- 1.724	- 1.019	1.261	- 6.839	164	
Luxemburg	- 4	483	720	- 129	2.478	72	276	134	74	147	1.081	926	838	448	802	
Niederlande	299	- 1.355	- 205	404	3.086	- 87	176	1.340	- 235	485	1.127	1.183	192	- 4.146	2.307	
Österreich	0	0	0	121	337	- 25	- 43	- 679	366	177	74	593	- 62	172	48	
Polen	- 1	5	4	- 168	35	7	7	- 3	21	- 16	- 8	42	- 41	17		
Schweden	44	46	- 14	24	128	1.027	292	- 36	158	248	- 1.377	- 82	- 125	3	- 160	
Slowakei	- 1	- 15	2	- 22	1	59	- 9	14	6	51	- 20	- 22	- 20	0	- 1	
Slowenien	- 2	2	3	- 21	6	27	- 50	6	39	- 8	- 30	50	45	- 58	- 15	
Spanien	0	- 5	72	683	- 320	682	1.398	289	64	320	- 66	- 444	- 206	242	- 4	
Ungarn	9	- 16	24	- 18	0	5	16	31	18	- 42	2	- 16	42	20	- 32	
Zypern	2	- 6	- 5	97	415	- 355	969	- 998	- 53	154	- 48	522	423	- 812	- 12	
Euroraum (19)	598	6.956	6.796	5.978	11.353	4.231	2.549	3.318	3.116	3.038	108	521	5.732	- 10.468	5.652	
EU (28)	735	7.364	7.083	4.973	13.682	5.018	2.899	3.795	3.846	2.962	- 939	- 778	6.338	- 10.673	5.210	
Liechtenstein	26	22	21	15	- 79	15	- 61	39	58	10	45	230	237	44	- 152	
Norwegen	20	24	26	- 22	- 207	6	- 119	69	1	6	77	- 32	- 8	18	55	
Russland	3	- 3	74	- 42	1.358	- 222	- 46	254	591	624	3.663	559	29	853	6.743	
Schweiz	172	1.138	647	- 342	- 66	419	482	556	701	- 355	311	- 349	- 1	202	937	
Türkei	1	9	2	36	23	21	126	- 55	6	2	- 15	10	- 10	8	- 8	
Amerika	252	526	362	- 1.359	3.579	- 1.802	3.054	- 404	895	31	983	- 134	- 4.487	642	- 4.484	
Brasilien	1	2	3	- 9	24	- 7	340	507	749	677	1.393	- 121	- 580	19	919	
Kanada	28	30	29	10	- 45	- 1.087	580	367	251	- 58	- 180	- 112	- 320	173	176	
USA	214	482	347	- 1.483	3.313	- 979	2.784	- 1.441	- 559	- 609	- 565	155	- 3.413	568	- 5.621	
Asien	62	133	90	544	- 221	774	468	- 1.637	900	- 217	506	898	- 506	658	- 442	
Afrika	- 12	0	317	56	8	521	- 153	106	- 158	130	- 172	3.018	- 233	118	566	
Global	1.304	9.227	8.672	3.790	18.620	4.933	6.672	1.945	7.636	3.105	4.308	3.450	1.145	- 8.137	8.545	
BESTAND AN DIREKTINVESTITIONEN	15.661	32.860	71.012	82.802	108.384	104.760	117.399	120.203	118.069	124.840	129.668	144.762	145.786	140.634	155.039	

Statistic 10: Foreign Direct Investments in Austria - Austrian Federal Economic Chamber (Wirtschaftskammer Österreich, 2018)

5. Methodology

In order to address the hypothesis and elaborate on the presented research, an empirical study is conducted. For this purpose, a questionnaire was distributed to a represented sample of employees in several industries throughout Austria. Based on the distribution of migrants within Austria, a greater concentration of migrants located in the metropolitan area of Vienna is sampled, as the influence of migrant communities is not as strongly present in the remaining federal states. However, the sample still includes a representation of all regions within Austria.

The sample surveyed includes employees of all sectors of either Austrian or Turkish employers. In order to achieve a significant result, the authors aimed for a minimum of at least 100 respondents from each group. Questionnaires were sent electronically to facilitate data acquisition. Businesses were surveyed regardless of number of employees, annual income, or other measures of size of business. All businesses analyzed have either Austrian or Turkish management.

The questionnaire contained three parts, the first of which covered demographics including age, nationality, as well as highest level of education. Respondents reported their age as either from 16 to 25, 26 to 35, 36 to 45 and 46 and older. They were given the option to select either Austrian or Turkish nationality, other European Citzenships, and all other nationalities. The highest level of education is broken down into no graduation to high school graduate, graduate from a higher educational facility as universities or colleges, or none.

The second part of the questionnaire covers the respondents' employment information. The possible responses for areas of work include diverse office activities, activities within the service industry, and gastronomy. This section also asks whether the company has Turkish or Austrian management, as well as how large the company is. The survey follows the definitions for sizing of companies used by the European Union. A microenterprise is a business with 1 to 9 employees, a small enterprise is a business with 10 to 49 employees, a

medium enterprise has 50 to 249 employees, and a company with 250 or more employees is considered a large enterprise (Eurostat, 2016). Furthermore, respondents were asked to provide information regarding their current position of employment, for example whether he or she is a regular employee or an employee with management duties.

The third and final part of the questionnaire concerns the attitudinal information on individualism and the hierarchical perspective of respondents. In this section, participants answered the question of how they perceive their opportunity to express individualism at their current place of work. Their perception was measured on a scale from 1-5, with 1 representing no possibility for individual expression and 5 representing the highest possibility for individuality. Two additional questions cover certain aspects regarding individualism and hierarchy. The sample was asked to rate the aspects of individualism based on the level of personal importance in their professional life. It also asked respondents how much they agree with the aspects of hierarchy. The items for the classification of attitudes towards these two concepts within the work environment were derived from the works of Geert Hofstede. The aspects of individualism encompass the *social framework, personally oriented motivation, close family, personal freedom and autonomy*. The aspects to be rated within the context of hierarchy are the *existence of a hierarchical system without justification, equality of power and demand distribution and asymmetries between interaction partners*. (Hofstede, Geert, 2018)

The complete questionnaire may be found in Appendix 1 of this thesis.

6. Findings and Evaluation

The survey was created using an online survey provider called Umfrage Online. A link was distributed containing the questionnaire described in Section 5 and provided in Appendix 1. The questionnaire was distributed using various social media channels and through the authors' individual contacts. The questionnaire was available from 08.06.2018 to 02.07.2018. 233 participants began the survey; however 20 participants left the survey before completing all questions. The final sample used for the purposes of this study included 213 respondents. The complete specification of answers obtained may be found in Appendix 2.

6.1. Key Results

6.1.1. Demographic Information

Part one of the online survey covered a number of demographic aspects, facilitating the clustering of sample. These included gender, age, nationality, and level of education.

The cumulative results obtained from this section display a larger representation of female participants. Overall, 69.95% of participants in this study were female, 30.05% were male. The largest age group is 26 to 35, with 61.03% of the total of 213 participants falling in this age range. Participants ages 16 to 25 represent 22.54% of the sample, while participants ages 36 to 45 are 12.68% of those surveyed. The age group of 46 plus represents only 3.76% of overall respondents. Within the distribution of nationalities, participants with Turkish origins is the largest segment of those surveyed. The number of respondents reporting a Turkish nationality represents 53.99% of the sample. 33.33% of all respondents are of Austrian descent. The remainder consist of 6.57% European Citizens and 6.10% of other nationalities. Lastly, 50.23% of respondents reported graduating from higher educational facilities, 36.15% of participants indicated having graduated high school, and 13.62% reported

having neither a high school education nor a higher degree. Figures 3 through 6 show a graphical representation of the demographic data.

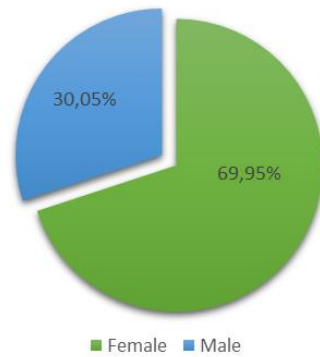


Figure 3: Distribution of Gender

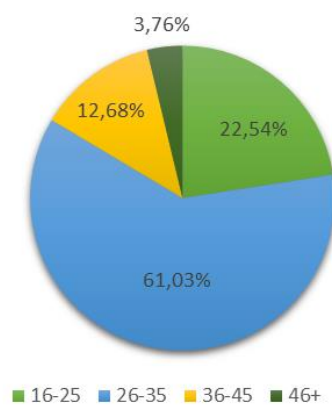


Figure 4: Distribution of Age

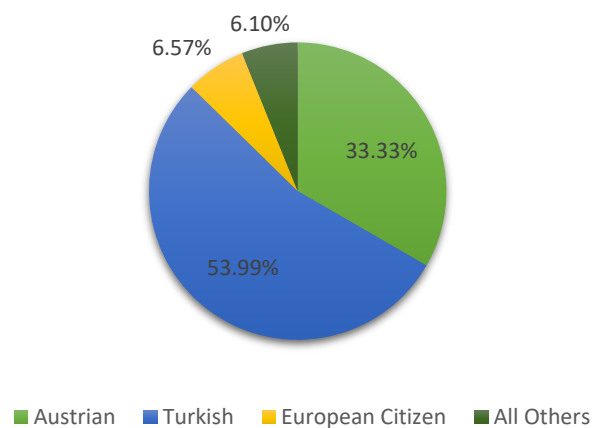


Figure 5: Distribution of Nationality

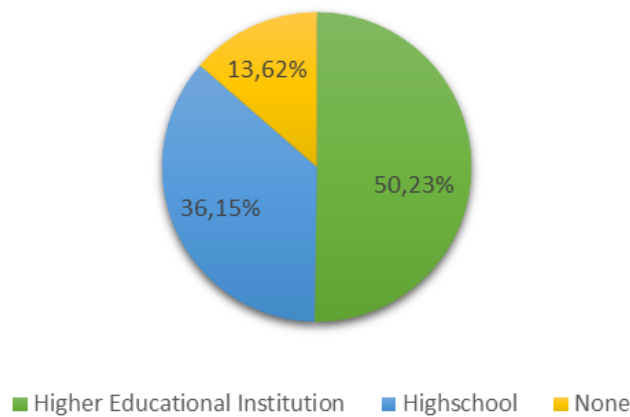


Figure 6: Distribution of Education Level

6.1.2. Employment Information

Part two of the questionnaire was dedicated to gathering information regarding the participant's work environment. The section inquired as to the area of work as either office activities, service industry, or gastronomy. It also investigated the cultural origin of the employer as well as the size of the company and the participant's current position within said company.

Results obtained in this part of the survey show a greater response from those working in the area of office activities. 65.73% of respondents reported working in office activities. Employees of the service industry represent 24.88% and employees active in the gastronomy sector represent 9.39% of the sampled population. 50.70% of the collected sample work for an Austrian employer, while 49.30% work for a Turkish employer, resulting in a balanced division between management cultures. As to the distribution of company size, the majority of respondents of the survey indicate working for a large company with more than 250 employees. The remaining respondents are rather distributed, with 20.19% working for medium enterprises, 18.78% for small enterprises, and 19.25% for microenterprises. 80.75% of all respondents to the survey report currently occupying a position as a regular employee. 11.27% are in leading positions and 7.98% in management.

Figures 7 through 10 show a graphical representation of the employment data.

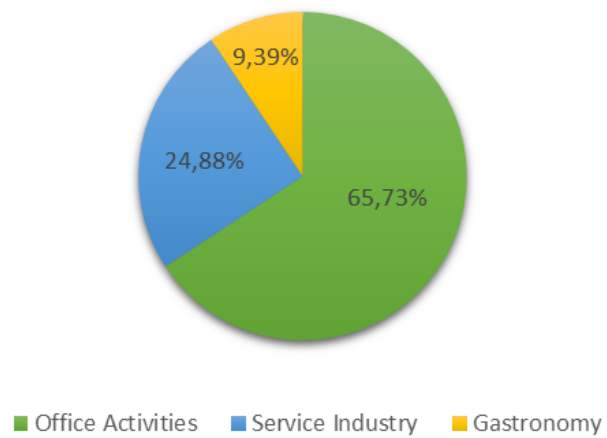


Figure 7: Distribution of Areas of Work

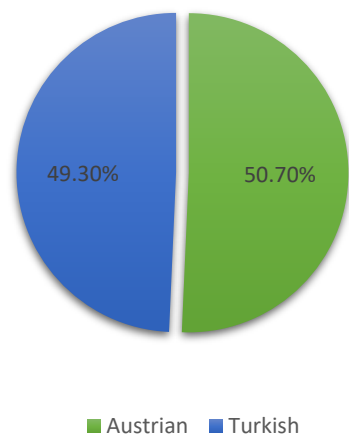


Figure 8: Distribution of Employer Nationality

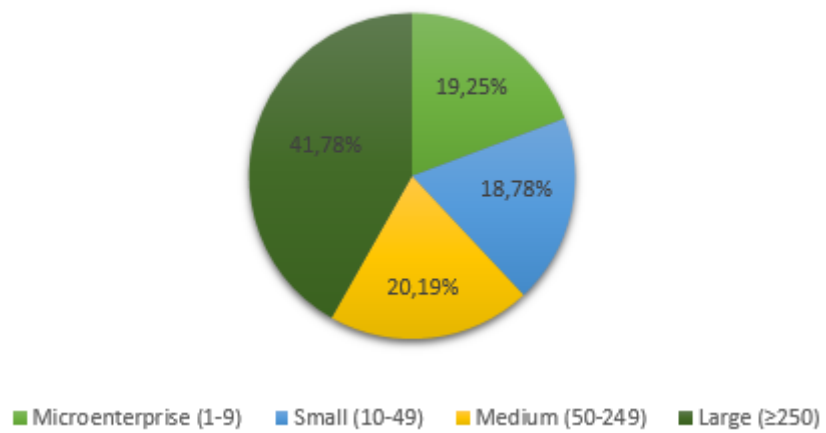


Figure 9: Distribution of Company Size

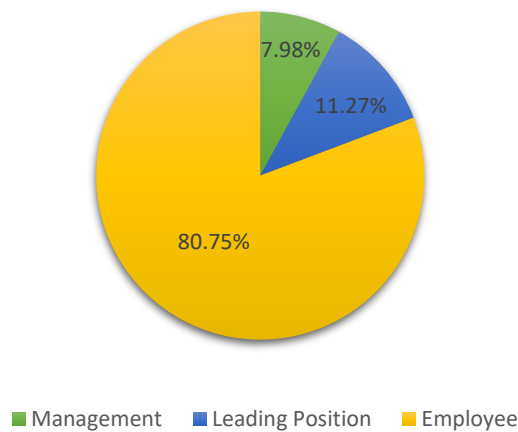


Figure 10: Distribution of Current Position

6.2. Analysis of Results

In order to support the hypotheses, quantitative analysis was performed using the statistics program SPSS. The following section outlines the results obtained for each hypothesis, as well as the steps taken to perform the analysis.

Hypothesis One

“Business establishments led by management of Turkish origin generally exhibit a lower rate of opportunity for individual self-unfolding on the job than Austrian places of employment”.

Examining the mean values of the responses to the attitudinal question on the perception of individualism in the workplace shows that Austrian managed companies feel a stronger possibility to express their individualism (\bar{x} = 3.44, s =1.146) compared to those working at Turkish managed companies (\bar{x} = 2.92, s =1.182). The resulting descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 1 and are graphically displayed in Figure 11

Group Statistics					
	Employer	N	Mean Value	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of the Mean
individualism	A	108	3.44	1.146	0.110
	TR	105	2.92	1.182	0.115

Table 1: Group Statistic for the Perception of Individualism in Companies of Austrian and Turkish Management

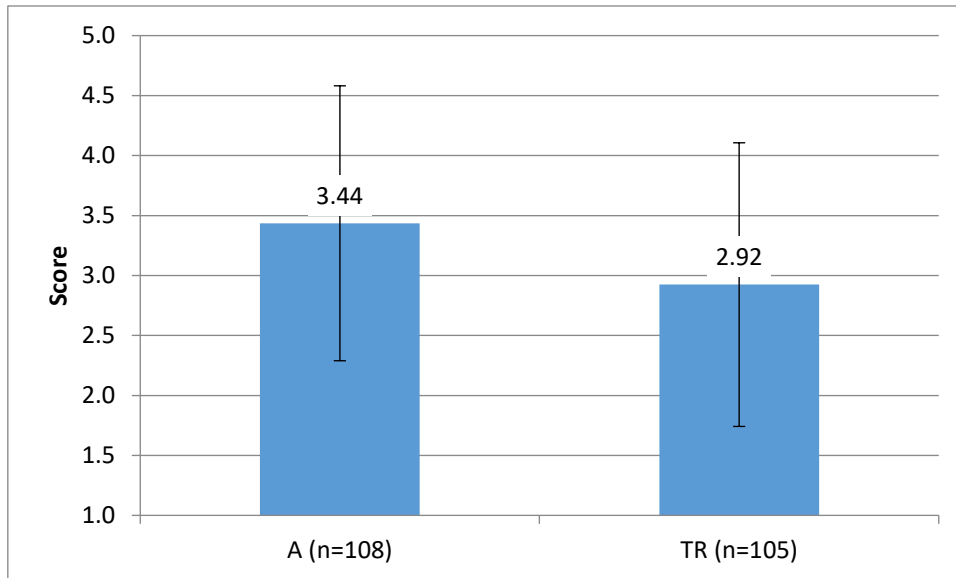


Figure 11: Mean Values for the Perception of Individualism in Companies of Austrian and Turkish Management

Further analysis for the first hypothesis has been conducted using the Students-Test to check the means for significant differences. Comparability of the dispersion of the two groups was tested using the Levene-Test for homoscedasticity. The obtained value $p = .429$ indicates homogeneity of variances and permits comparability.

Test of Independent Sample

		Levene's Test		T-Test for the	
		Variance Equality		Mean Equality	
		F	Significance	T	df
Individualism	Variances are equal	0.629	0.429	3.205	211
	Variances are not equal			3.204	210.257

Table 2: Levene-Test for homoscedasticity of Variances

The conducted Students-Test for significance differences in the results for the two groups with $t(211) = 3.205$ yields a value of $\rho = .002$, indicating a statistically significant difference in the means, allowing for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Test of Independent Sample

		Students-Test for the 2-Mean Equality		
		Sig. (2-sided)	Average Difference	Standard Error of the differences
individualism	Variances are equal	0.002	0.511	0.160
	Variances are not equal	0.002	0.511	0.160

Table 3: Students-Test for the Significance of Answers on the Perception of Individualism in Companies of Austrian and Turkish Management

These results lead to the conclusion that there is indeed a stronger perception of permitted individualism within business establishments led by Austrian management compared to perceived possibility for individualism at workplaces of Turkish origin.

Hypothesis Two

“Equally valid for both cultures, the degree of possibility for individualism at the workplace is negatively correlated to the size of the corporation”.

The values obtained in association with the perception for the possibility of individualism do not exhibit considerable variations between different company sizes. Individual outcomes for the sizes reported in the questionnaire are exhibited in Table 4 and Figure 13.

Report

Individualism						
comp_size	N	Mean Value	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Median
Micro	41	3.17	1.160	1	5	3.00
Small	40	3.22	1.441	1	5	3.00
medium	43	3.21	1.146	1	5	3.00
Large	89	3.16	1.117	1	5	3.00
Total	213	3.18	1.189	1	5	3.00

Table 4: Group Statistic for the Perception of Individualism for differing Company Sizes

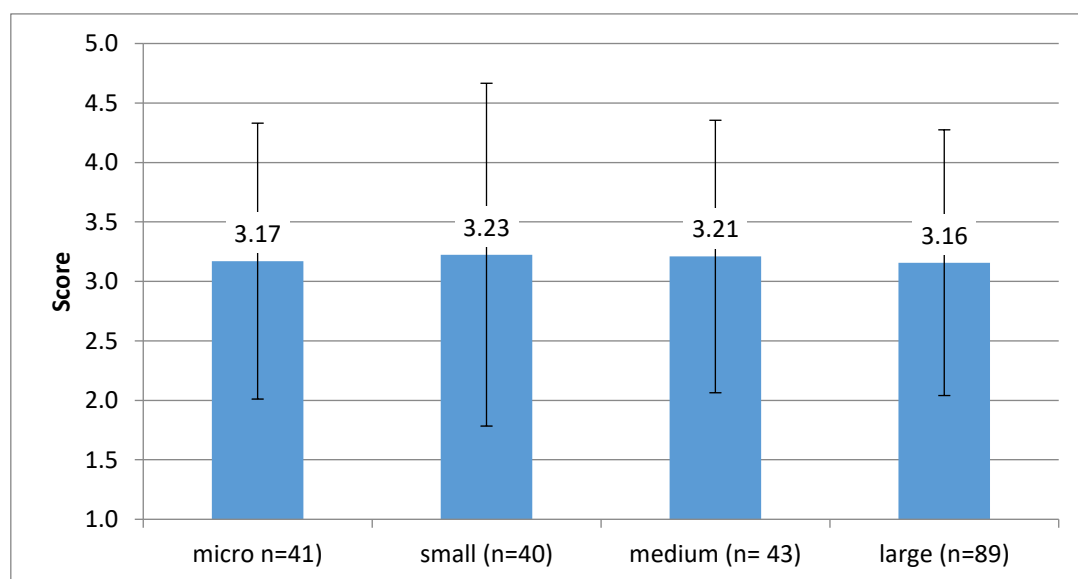


Figure 12: Mean Values for the Perception of Individualism for differing Company Sizes

In perceived individualism, participants who indicated working for a microenterprise, an enterprise consisting of one to nine employees, exhibit a mean value of 3.17, with a standard deviation of 1.160. Employees of small enterprises, an enterprise with between 10 and 49 employees, exhibit a mean value of 3.23, with standard deviation of 1.441. Employees of medium enterprises, those employing between 50 and 249 employees, showed a mean of 3.21, with standard deviation of 1.146. Lastly, participants who indicated working for large enterprises of over 249 employees exhibit a mean and standard variation of 3.16 and 1.189 respectively. Contrary to the authors' anticipations, these results do not point toward results that vary between company sizes.

The analysis of variances of the two groups, with the answers for the perceived degree of individualism as the dependent variable and company size as the independent variable, exhibits values of $F(3, 209) = 0.038$ and $p = .990$. This significance level means the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, leading to no further conclusions made regarding the relationship between size of the company and perceived ability to express individualism.

Univariate ANOVA

Individualism					
	Square Sum	df	Mean of Squares	F	Significance
Between the Groups	0.165	3	0.055	0.038	0.990
Within the Groups	299.694	209	1.434		
Total	299.859	212			

Table 5: Analysis of Variances for the Perception of Individualism for differing Company Sizes

The results regarding company sizes and the perceived degree of possibility to express individualism in business establishments of Austrian and Turkish management are inconclusive. A significant correlation between the size of the

workplace of participants and the perceived possibility for individualism cannot not be supported by this study.

Hypothesis Three

“The cause of the divergence of attitude towards individualism within the work environment lies in the cultures’ perceptions of power distance.”

The attitude of participants towards existing hierarchies was investigated through a question using a Likert-Scale to measure their perception of three distinct items. As seen in the discussion in section 3.3.1 of the expression Hofstede’s cultural dimensions in Austria and Turkey, Turkish culture holds a higher score than Austria in the Power Distance dimension– implicating greater acceptance of hierarchical structures without justification or predefined inequalities between interacting parties. The evaluation of this section of the questionnaire was intended to address the question of whether a correlation could be established between the attitudes of employees towards hierarchies and the management of the company. The first step of the analysis was to calculate the means of the items presented in the Likert-Scale in order to describe the mindset of the questioned sample. The results of the descriptive analysis are shown in Table 6.

Item Statistic			
	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Hierarchy	2.94	1.198	213
Power_Distr	2.26	0.965	213
Asymmetry	2.66	1.013	213

Table 6: Item Statistic for Hierarchy Items

The second step was to conduct a reliability analysis. The analysis showed an internal consistency for the individual items resulting in *Cronbachs* $\alpha = 0.599$,

while the factors of corrected discriminatory power exhibit values of 0.388, 0.329 and 0.532 respectively. These results indicate that the three items present an underlying correlation and may be pooled.

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha for standardized Items	Number of Items
0.599	0.604	3

Table 7: Reliability Analysis for Hierarchy Items

Item-Scale-Statistics					
	Scale mean when item omitted	Scale variance when item omitted	Corrected Item-Scale Correlation	Squared multiple correlation	Cronbach's Alpha when item omitted
Hierarchy	4.92	2.702	0.383	0.192	0.551
Power_Distr	5.60	3.524	0.329	0.146	0.603
Asymmetry	5.20	2.813	0.532	0.283	0.318

Table 8: Factors for Corrected Discriminatory Power for Hierarchy Items

The evaluation for the combined items of the underlying question is illustrated in table nine.

Evaluation of Item Statistic						
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Area	Max / Min	Variance
Item-Mean	2.621	2.263	2.939	0.676	1.299	0.116
Item-Variance	1.131	0.931	1.435	0.504	1.542	0.072

Table 9: Item Statistic for Combined Hierarchy Items

A possible correlation between answers to the perception on individualism at the workplace and the attitude towards hierarchies was then investigated. Both the Pearson's Correlation and Spearman's Rank Correlation were applied at this point. Both analysis methods deliver very weak correlations and do not exhibit relevant levels of significance in the regarded matter. The correlation coefficient following Pearson is $r = -0.095$, and the one tailed level of significance reaches a value of $p = 0.84$. The correlation coefficient of $r_{Sp} = -0.090$ was obtained with Spearman's Rank Correlation, showing the same value of significance level as for the Pearson's Correlation.

The results of the investigation into the coherences for the attitudinal approach within the concept of hierarchies and the perceived degree to which individualism may be outlived at the workplace do not show adequate correlation or significance, meaning the two factors cannot be assumed to be correlated. Therefore, the null hypothesis of hypothesis 3 cannot be rejected.

Correlation			
		individualism	hierarchy_msc
Spearman-Rho	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-0.090
	individualism Sig. (1-sided)	.	0.094
	N	213	213
	Correlation Coefficient	-0.090	1.000
	hierarchy_msc Sig. (1-sided)	0.094	.
	N	213	213

Table 10: Spearman's Rank Correlation

Correlation			
		individualism	hierarchy_msc
individualism	Correlation to Pearson	1	-0.095
	Significance (1-sided)		0.084
	N	213	213
hierarchy_msc	Correlation to Pearson	-0.095	1
	Significance (1-sided)	0.084	
	N	213	213

Table 11: Pearson's Correlation

6.3. Further Implications of Results

Further research into the expression of individualism between groups was conducted using gender, age, nationality, areas of work and current position at the workplace, as well as the factors of company size and employer. This research is outlined in the following section.

6.3.1. Gender

Differentiating between male and female participants does not result in significant variations in the perception of possibility to express individualism in the workplace; this is true both overall and when analyzing the two nationalities. In their responses for the possibility to express individualism at their workplace (1 representing no possibility for individuality, 5 representing very high possibility for individuality at the workplace), the mean response for males is 3.17 with a standard deviation of 1.22. Female respondents had a mean value of 3.19, with a standard deviation of 1.18. This outcome holds true when

examining Turkish and Austrian nationalities separately. Within a breakdown of male and female participants, no major divergences can be observed. However, a slight difference between males in females in Turkish vs Austrian managed companies can be observed. Males working under Turkish management had a mean perception of the opportunity to express individualism of 3.00, with a standard deviation of 1.13; this is lower than males who reported working under Austrian management, with a reported mean of 3.41 and standard deviation of 1.31 of those respondents. This again holds true for women, with a mean of 2.88 and standard deviation of 1.22 when working under Turkish management, compared to a higher mean of 3.44 and standard deviation of 1.10 for female respondents working under Austrian management.

6.3.2.Age

In considering age, no large variances were found between the different groups when examining perceived ability for self-expression in the workplace. The mean of the responses for the age group of 16 to 25 is 3.15 with a standard deviation of 1.05; the mean of the group 26 to 35 is 3.30 with standard deviation of 1.18; the mean of the age group 36 to 45 is 2.67 with standard deviation of 1.24; the mean of the group of respondents 46 and older is 3.25 with standard deviation of 1.67. Again, differences can only be seen when comparing each age group between Austrian and Turkish businesses. The mean obtained for the age group of 16 to 25 in Turkish businesses is 2.95 with a standard deviation of 1.17. For the same age group in Austrian business the mean is 3.31 with standard deviation of 0.93. The answers for the age group of 26 to 35 show means of 3.06, with standard deviation of 1.11 for respondents in Austrian businesses, compared to a mean of 3.52 and standard deviation of 1.21 for employees under Turkish management. The mean for those in the age group 36 to 45 and working in Austrian companies is 3.17, with a standard deviation of 1.27, compared to a mean of 2.27 and standard deviation of 1.10 for employees in the same age group working under Turkish management. Finally, the mean for respondents over 46 and working for an Austrian employer is 3.67, with a standard deviation

of 1.15, whereas the mean for the same age group working for an employer of Turkish is 3.00 with standard deviation of 2.00.

6.3.3.Nationality

Overall, much like the results of gender and age, nationality does not seem to affect the perceived possibility for individualism at the workplace. The Austrian population of the sample questioned exhibits a mean of 3.23 and a standard deviation of 1.11. The questioned population of Turkish origin exhibits a mean of 3.10 and a standard deviation of 1.17. The results for other European citizens working for an Austrian or Turkish employer in Austria show a mean of 3.36 with a standard deviation of 1.45. The mean value for all other nationalities is 3.54 with standard deviation of 1.51. The mean for the portion of European citizens working for Austrian employers is 3.35 with a standard deviation of 1.19, whereas the mean of answers obtained for employees under Turkish management amounts to 3.09, with a standard deviation of 1.13. Similar results were obtained for respondents of other citizenships from around the world. Employees under Austrian management exhibit a mean of 3.52, with standard deviation of 1.11 and employees working for Turkish employers exhibit a mean of 2.85, with standard deviation of 1.13. This breakdown of results indicates once again that hypothesis one can be confirmed, meaning that establishments led by management of Turkish origin generally exhibit fewer opportunities for individualism on the job than Austrian places of employment.

6.3.4.Areas of Work

The examination of different areas of work shows a deviation in the gastronomy sector. The results for those working in the service and office work sectors exhibited similar results, with the mean results for service workers of 3.13 and standard deviation 1.14 and the mean results for office workers of 3.26 with a standard deviation of 1.20. The respondents of the sector for gastronomy however indicate a lower level of perceived possibility to express individualism at the workplace, with a mean of 2.80 and a standard deviation of 1.24. This

may be attributed to standardized modes of dress in the gastronomy sector, as well as the high level of interaction with customers. However, the perceived degree of individual freedom shows a much greater divergence for Austrian and Turkish establishments in this sector compared to the other two. Among participating individuals, employees of Austrian workplaces of the gastronomy sector indicate a much higher possibility for individualism, with a mean of 4.00 and a standard deviation of 0.89. The mean for employees of Turkish-managed establishments is only 2.29, with standard deviation of 0.99. This constitutes the largest differences in mean values between any two groups discussed in this thesis. The values for the service sector are mean equal to 3.16 and a standard deviation of 1.08 for Austrian companies and a mean of 3.10 with standard deviation of 1.26 for Turkish companies; For office work a mean of 3.51 and standard deviation of 1.18 was observed for Austrian companies, while a mean of 3.00 and a standard deviation of 1.17 was observed for Turkish companies.

6.3.5. Current Position

No large variances were found when evaluating the current job position of the respondent groups, including regular employees, individuals in leading positions, and management. The mean for the segment of regular employees is 3.18, with standard deviation of 1.20 when answering the question regarding individualism at the workplace. The mean for respondents who reported working in a leading position is 3.17, with standard deviation of 1.05, and the mean for participants occupying a position in management is 3.24, with a standard deviation of 1.30. The segments regular employees and leading positions also vary between Austrian and Turkish managed businesses. The means for regular employees under Austrian management is 3.48, with a standard deviation of 1.14, whereas the mean value obtained for employees of Turkish establishments is 2.81, with standard deviation of 1.18. The mean for individuals who indicated working in leading positions in Austrian companies is 3.25, with a standard deviation of 1.26 and is 3.15 for the same group in Turkish Companies, with a standard deviation of 1.04. Interestingly, for those respondents who reported working in management, the mean in the possibility

to express individualism at the workplace is higher for companies with Turkish backgrounds, at a value of 3.50 and a standard deviation of 1.41. For managers working in Austrian firms, the mean is only 3.00, with a standard deviation of 1.22.

6.3.6. Two-Factor Analysis: Company Size and Employer Origin

Descriptive Statistics				
Dependent Variable: individualism				
comp_size	Employer	Mean Value	Standard Deviation	N
micro	AT	3.61	1.037	18
	TR	2.83	1.154	23
	Total	3.17	1.160	41
small	AT	3.45	1.299	22
	TR	2.94	1.589	18
	Total	3.22	1.441	40
medium	AT	3.17	1.239	24
	TR	3.26	1.046	19
	Total	3.21	1.146	43
large	AT	3.50	1.067	44
	TR	2.82	1.072	45
	Total	3.16	1.117	89
Total	AT	3.44	1.146	108
	TR	2.92	1.182	105
	Total	3.18	1.189	213

Table 12: Descriptive Statistic for the Perception of Individualism in Companies of Austrian and Turkish Management and differing Company Sizes

Analyzing more than one factor at a time allows for the comparison of company size and the origins of management together. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 12.

The analysis shows that the earlier findings in regard to hypothesis one do apply when considering different company sizes, with the exception of medium enterprises.

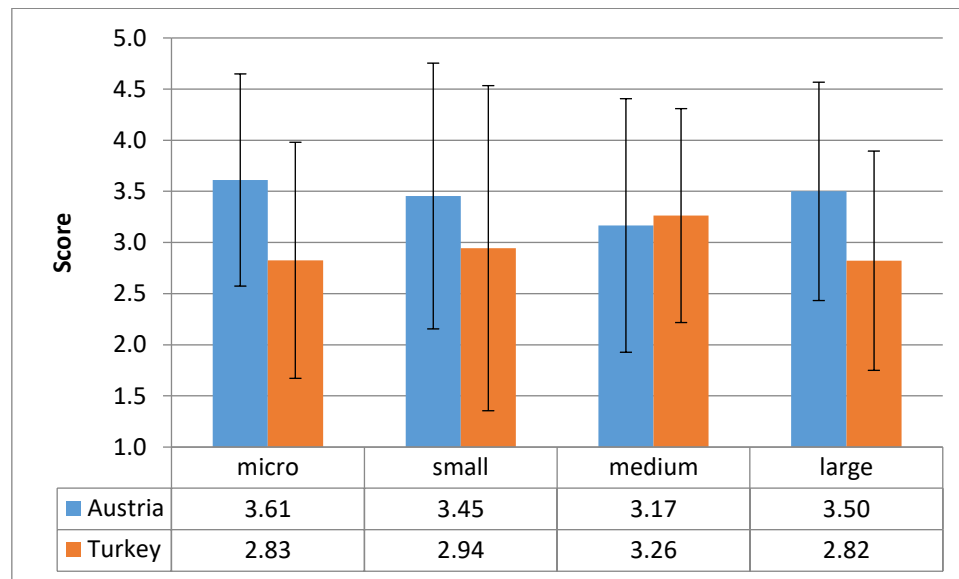


Figure 13: Mean Values for the Perception of Individualism in Companies of Austrian and Turkish Management and differing Company Sizes

As mentioned and as is illustrated by figure 13, in all cases except medium enterprises, Austrian managed firms exhibited a higher perception of individualism. While in all other segments of different sized companies, respondents working under Austrian management have indicated higher scores for perceived possibility for individualism at the workplace, in the case of medium enterprises, the mean value obtained for employees of Austrian firms amounts to 3.17, with a standard deviation of 1.239; whereas the mean obtained for the answers of participants working under firms led by Turkish management comes to 3.26, with a standard deviation of 1.046. This is one instance in which the confirmed results from hypothesis one deviate.

7. Further Research

The results of the underlying study show differences in the perception of possibilities to express individualism in Austrian and Turkish work environments. However, no substantial differences between Turkish and Austrian employees' answers were presented. This indicates an assimilation of Turkish migrants in Austria. The authors still suspect a difference between migrants with Turkish backgrounds working under Turkish management and those working under Austrian management. The concept of assimilation is anticipated to be higher for migrants working in environments dominated by Austrian culture when compared with work environments under the influence of Turkish culture (Heimken, 2017, pp. 32-34).

As an avenue for further research the authors suggest performing analysis that includes a differentiation within migrant groups. Heimken (2017) for example suggests the differentiation of migrant groups on an 8-point scale. He subdivides 'Migration' into different levels based on language, as depicted in Figure 14. Levels 1 to 3 range from having no migrant background to having one parent with a migrant background. Levels 4 to 8 range from having both parents of a migrant background to the individual him- or herself being a migrant. Such a scale demonstrates how migration cannot be used as a uniform term because there are very different scales of identification and therefore language abilities. Individuals within the levels 1 - 3 have stronger language skills than children of levels 4 - 8 (Heimken, 2017, pp. 30-32). As Hofstede also notes, the cultural background of families has an impact on the importance of education. For children whose parents both have a migrant background, educational facilities, such as kindergartens, often become a key success factor in language acquisition (Heimken, 2017, pp. 32-34). In this vein the authors suggest Turkish migrants who can be classified in levels 1 to 3 would assimilate better to the Austrian cultural dimension of individualism. Turkish migrants who have who can be classified within levels 4 to 8 would be expected to keep the characteristics of their Turkish cultural backgrounds and would exhibit more collectivistic behaviors. The authors suggest further research to focus on these differences based on emigrational status and based on language skills.

1	No Migration Background	No Migration Background recognizable (1) (Parents and grandparents were born in Germany)
2	Migration Background of a parent (levels 2,3)	Migration Background of one parent and no Migration Background of the other (2) (Grandparents of a parent immigrated)
3		Migration of one parent and no Migration Background of the other (3) (One parent immigrated)
4	Migration Background of both parent (levels 4,5,6)	Migration Background of both parents (4) (Grandparents of both parents immigrated)
5		Migration of one parent and Migration Background of other (5) (Grandparents and one parent immigrated)
6		Migration of both parents (6) (Both parents immigrated)
7	Own Migration (7,8)	Own Migration in preschool age (7) (The adolescent immigrated to preschool age herself)
8		Own Migration at school age (8) (The adolescent immigrated during school time)

Figure 14: Migrant Groups

(Heimken, 2017, p. 30)

8. Conclusion

This master thesis established and distinguished between the concepts of Individualism and Collectivism introduced by the sociologist Geert Hofstede. While following his work, the cultural differences of the Austrians and Turkish migrants were illustrated and measured in the context of individualism in the workplace.

After accounting for the large portion of immigrants of Turkish background living in Austria and for the personal experiences of the authors while working within both Austrian and Turkish environments, a study was conducted comprising of respondents in businesses under both Austrian and Turkish management. The study was primarily concerned with measuring how respondents perceive the possibility to express their individuality in the workplace.

The authors hypothesized that Austrian enterprises would provide more opportunities for personal expression than those enterprises under Turkish management. In addition, a negative correlation between size and perceived possibility for individualism was hypothesized. Finally, the respondents' attitudes towards existing hierarchies were hypothesized to have an effect on the perception of the degree of opportunity for individuality.

Findings support the first hypothesis. The results convey a general a stronger perceived possibility for individualism in participants who work for companies led by Austrian management. However, the second and third hypothesis could not be supported by the results.

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Appendices

Appendix I - Survey

Individualism at the Workplace

Seite 1

Thank you for participating in this short survey on Individualism at the Workplace. It will only take 5 min. - let us get started!

Vielen Dank für die Teilnahme an dieser kurzen Umfrage zu Individualismus am Arbeitsplatz. Es dauert nur 5 Min. - lasst uns beginnen!

Personal Information

Gender / Geschlecht: *

☐

Male / Männlich

☐

Female / Weiblich

How old are you / Wie alt sind Sie? *

☐

16-25

☐

36-45

☐

26-35

☐

46+

What nationality do you have / Welcher Nationalität gehören Sie an? *

☐

Austrian / Österreichisch

☐

Turkish / Türkisch

☐

Other (European Citizen) / Andere (Europäer)

☐

All Others / Alle Anderen

What is your highest Level of Education / Was ist Ihr höchster Bildungsgrad? *

☐

Highschool / Matura,
Abitur

☐

University, Higher Educational Institution / Universitätsabschluss oder höhere
Bildungsanstalt

☐

None /
Keines

Employment Information

In which area do you work / In welchem Bereich sind Sie tätig? *

☐

Office Activities / Büroaktivitäten

☐

Service Industry / Dienstleistungsbranche

☐

Gastronomy / Gastronomie

Do you work in a Turkish or an Austrian company / Arbeiten Sie in einem Österreichischen oder Türkischen Betrieb? *

☐ Austrian / Österreichisch

☐ Turkish / Türkisch

What is the size of your company / Wie groß ist das Unternehmen für das Sie arbeiten? *

☐ Microenterprise (1-9 employees) / Mikrounternehmen (1 - 9 Angestellte)

☐ Small (10-49 employees) / Klein (10 - 49 Angestellte)

☐ Medium (50-249 employees) / Mittel (50 - 249 Angestellte)

☐ Large (≥250 employees) / Groß (≥250 Angestellte)

What is your current position / Was ist Ihre derzeitige Position? *

☐ Employee / Angestellter

☐ Leading Position / Leitende Position

☐ Management / Führungsebene

Attitudinal Information

How would you rate the following statement regarding individuality / Wie würden Sie die folgende Aussage hinsichtlich Individualität beurteilen? *

1 represents no possibility for individuality, 5 represents very high possibility for individuality

1 stehend für keine, 5 stehend für sehr hohe Möglichkeit zur Entfaltung von Individualismus

	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to live out my individuality at the workplace / Am Arbeitsplatz habe ich die Möglichkeit meine Individualität auszuleben	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Importance of Individualism at the workplace / Bedeutung von Individualismus am Arbeitsplatz *

Rate the aspects listed below based on the level of importance to you in your professional life /

Bewerten Sie die folgenden Aspekte hinsichtlich ihrer Wichtigkeit im Berufsleben

	extremely important	very important	quite important	somewhat important	Unimportant
Social Framework / Soziales Netzwerk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personally Oriented Motivation / Persönlich Orientierte Motivationen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Close Family / Familienbeziehungen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal Freedom / Persönlicher Freiraum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Autonomy / Autonomie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Hierarchy / Hierarchie *

Rate the aspects below as to how much you agree with them /

Bewerten Sie die folgenden Aspekte hinsichtlich ihrer Wichtigkeit

	extremely important	very important	quite important	somewhat important	Unimportant
Hierarchy System without Justification / Das Bestehen Hierarchischer Systeme ohne Rechtfertigungsgrund	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Equality of Power and Demand Distribution / Gleichheit von Macht und Nachfrageverteilung	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Asymmetries between the Interaction partners / Asymmetrien zwischen Interaktionspartnern	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

» [Umleitung auf Schlussseite von Umfrage Online \(ändern\)](#)

Appendix II - Data

[illegible]

Appendix III

Abstract

Motivated by the personal backgrounds of Austrian and Turkish authors, this master thesis executes a study on employees' perceptions of the possibility to express individualism at the workplace, comparing Austrian and Turkish corporations.

Following the milestones of Dutch social psychologist Geert Hofstede in his research into cultural dimensions, this thesis initially defines individualism within various contexts of observation. Austrian population demographics are then used to establish a sample population, which is then examined in more detail using dimensions of cultural differences of the Austrians and Turks in reference to Hofstede's works.

Through conducting a survey, the authors demonstrate a coherence of the perceived contingency of individualism in the workplace based on management origins. Although variances are demonstrated through statistical analysis, the perceptions of the ability to express individualism do not vary as widely as the hypotheses presume. The thesis shows that a work environment under Turkish management seems to convey less of an opportunity for the employee to express individualism compared to one of Austrian management. Furthermore, other factors such as size of the company and attitudes towards existing hierarchies are investigated. However, no significant cohesions in these further factors are substantiated.

Abstract in German

Motiviert durch die persönlichen Hintergründe österreichischer und türkischer Autoren, führt diese Masterarbeit eine Studie über die Wahrnehmung von Mitarbeitern durch, wie Individualität am Arbeitsplatz ausgedrückt werden kann, indem österreichische und türkische Unternehmen verglichen werden.

Nach den Meilensteinen des niederländischen Sozialpsychologen Geert Hofstede in seiner Erforschung kultureller Dimensionen, definiert diese Arbeit zunächst den Individualismus in verschiedenen Beobachtungskontexten. Aus der österreichischen Bevölkerungsdemografie wird dann eine Stichprobenpopulation erstellt, die anhand von Dimensionen der kulturellen Unterschiede Österreicher und Türken in Bezug auf Hofstede näher untersucht wird.

Durch die Durchführung einer Umfrage zeigen die Autoren eine Kohärenz der wahrgenommenen Kontingenz des Individualismus am Arbeitsplatz basierend auf den Ursprüngen des Managements. Obwohl Varianzen durch statistische Analyse gezeigt werden, variieren die Wahrnehmungen der Fähigkeit, Individualismus auszudrücken, nicht so weit, wie die Hypothesen vermuten. Die Arbeit zeigt, dass ein Arbeitsumfeld unter türkischem Management dem Mitarbeiter weniger Gelegenheit bietet Individualismus auszudrücken, im Gegensatz zu österreichischem Management. Darüber hinaus werden andere Faktoren wie Unternehmensgröße und Einstellungen zu bestehenden Hierarchien untersucht. In diesen weiteren Faktoren sind jedoch keine signifikanten Zusammenhänge begründet.