How Do Managers and Entrepreneurs Describe Themselves? A Comparative Investigation in Turkey*

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Abstract

There is general agreement on the differences between managers and entrepreneurs. The current research explores how an entrepreneur's self-concept differs from a manager's self-concept and aims to make a contribution concerning comparison of managers and entrepreneurs' self-construal. The results show that participant entrepreneurs and managers define themselves differently. Managers describe themselves mostly with context-related statements emphasizing social role, stature, and structure. Entrepreneurs separate themselves from the social context, mostly defining themselves with attributes. This research presents an empirical aspect that the attitude of managers is more collective, while entrepreneurs behave, feel, and act more individually.

Keywords: self-concept, entrepreneur, manager, Twenty Statements Test, Turkey
JEL Codes: L26, M10,

Introduction

The distinction between managers and entrepreneurs is a much-discussed issue (McGrath et al. 1992) in management literature. Previous studies underline psychological, personal, and demographic differences between entrepreneurs and managers (Busenitz/Barney 1997). In the previous decade, some studies were conducted on personal factors that account for differences between managers and entrepreneurs (Forbes 2005; Stewart/Roth 2007; Berthold/Neumann 2008; Orser/Dyke 2009). Stronger risk-taking orientation and rugged individualism (Begley/Boyd 1987); decision making (Busenitz/Barney 1997); achievement and preference for innovation (Stewart et. al. 1999); overconfidence (Forbes 2005); motivation, and attitude toward trade unions (Berthold/Neumann 2008) are some of the differences between managers and entrepreneurs that have been discussed in previous studies.

Until now, no study has directly examined managers' and entrepreneurs' self-descriptions, with the exception of the research done by Malach-Pines and colleagues (2002), which focused on managers and entrepreneurs regarding traits of their father, mother and self. Their findings showed that managers mostly identified themselves with their parents (family context), while entrepreneurs derived a greater sense of significance from their work.

In some of the previous researches, it was underlined that there are psychological, personal, and demographic differences between managers and entrepreneurs' self-descriptions (Busenitz/Barney 1997; Forbes 2005; Stewart/Roth 2007; Berthold/Neumann 2008; Orser/Dyke 2009). The current study not only investigates whether managers and entrepreneurs differ in self-identification, but also diverges from the previous studies in additionally exploring the differences in their self-construals from the viewpoint of independence and interdependence.

The method involves a comparison based on a 'referential framework' (McPartland et al. 1961; Rees/Nicholson 2006), which categorizes self-construal into independent and interdependent selves (Somech 2000). Being a manager or entrepreneur is the independent variable of the research; the dependent variable is the independent or interdependent self, which is the individual's collection of traits, roles, attitudes, and behaviours. This study investigates how managers and entrepreneurs as individuals view themselves and relate to others, in terms of viewing themselves as a separate individual or as part of a group (Agrawal/Maheswaran 2005).

This study therefore aims to fill the gap in the management literature concerning the difference between managers' and entrepreneurs' self-construal. Differing from previous studies, the current research explores how managers and entrepreneurs describe themselves and in what ways their self-descriptions differ (or not).

The hypothesis of the current research draws on the previous studies comparing managers and entrepreneurs and underlines the distinctions between the two roles (McGrath et al. 1992; Busenitz/Barney 1997; Forbes 2005; Stewart/Roth 2007; Berthold/Neumann 2008; Orser/Dyke 2009). Malach-Pines and colleagues (2002) showed that managers' identification with the social context was positive, but entrepreneurs' identification with it was negative; that the individualist attitude of entrepreneurs was stronger than that of managers (Begley/Boyd 1987; Stewart et al. 1999); and that the potential for entrepreneurial self-efficacy as a distinct characteristic of entrepreneurs differed from that of managers (Chen et al. 1998). Hence, it is expected that managers and entrepreneurs may have different self-structures and behave, feel, and act differently. The motivation to research this subject is to develop a comparative discussion of managers and entrepreneurs in terms of self-construal.

This paper makes a contribution to contemporary debates concerning managers and entrepreneurs with three points. First, there will be comparative discussions of managers' and entrepreneurs' self-descriptions. In previous studies only psychological, personal, and demographic differences (Busenitz/Barney 1997) have been discussed, with the exception of the study by Malach-Pines and colleagues (2002), who directly researched the personality and family dynamics of man-

agers and entrepreneurs regarding their self-identifications. The current research differs in that it focuses only on the self-construal of managers and entrepreneurs, and thus adds this dimension to the literature comparing the two.

Second, each role's self-construal will be specifically discussed. The self-descriptions of entrepreneurs and managers who start their own business (Busenitz/ Barney 1997), create an organization (Czarniawska-Joerges/Wolff 1991) and are supposed to execute the owners' role (Czarniawska-Joerges/Wolff 1991), work in large organizations (Busenitz/Barney 1997) will be discussed from the viewpoint of interdependent and independent self-construal.

Third, the methodological approach called the Twenty Statements Test (McPartland et al. 1961), which is used for data collection, will be discussed. The findings are presented with a 'referential frame' (McPartland et al. 1961), and the results are evaluated in terms of interdependent and independent selves. There are some other measures to assess the independent and interdependent selves, but the Twenty Statements Test (TST) is a projective technique which allows the subjects to express themselves openly and captures personal variability more than other techniques (Somech 2000).

In light of all this, the main goal of the current research is to contribute to the literature new empirical observations concerning the self-descriptions of managers and entrepreneurs. Hence, the main question of the research is "Do managers and entrepreneurs define themselves in different ways?"

Theoretical Framework

Utsch and colleagues (1999) underline that personal characteristics influence whether an individual becomes an entrepreneur or a manager. In Carland and Carland's study (1991), entrepreneurs showed stronger personality traits than their management counterparts. Chen and colleagues (1998) demonstrate the potential of entrepreneurial self-efficacy as a distinct characteristic of entrepreneurs, differing from that of managers. Identification and removal of self-doubt enable the entrepreneur to be actively engaged in entrepreneurial tasks, more persistent in the face of difficulties and setbacks, and more confident in meeting challenges. The risk propensity of entrepreneurs is greater than that of managers. According to research by Malach-Pines and colleagues (2002), entrepreneurs describe themselves as having a greater sense of significance in their work. In that study, managers' identification with their father and with both parents was positive, but entrepreneurs' identification was negative. Entrepreneurs, who are often both owner and manager (Ucbasaran et al. 2013), displayed a positive identification with their work.

According to Busenitz and Barney (1997), individuals who start their own business are somehow different from people who work in large organizations. Research conducted by Stewart and Roth (2007) indicates that entrepreneurs exhib-

it higher achievement motivation than managers, and the two groups' success criteria differ (Orser/Dyke 2009). Entrepreneurs have a higher tolerance for ambiguity than do managers (Schere 1982). Other research shows that entrepreneurs are more innovative than managers, and managers are less willing to make risky decisions (Tan 2001). Czarniawska-Joerges and Wolff (1991) explored the roles of managers and entrepreneurs in organizational theatre (a metaphor to express organizations with scenes and role play). The importance of entrepreneurs is not the management of an existing organization but the creation of such an organization. On the other hand, managers are supposed to execute the owners' will.

Much of the research mentioned above underlines the differences between managers and entrepreneurs with respect to their characteristics, tendencies, priorities, and traits. In this research, self-description is used as a way to compare managers and entrepreneurs' self-structure, which is the collection of an individual's schemes, prototypes, goals, and images (Sherman et al. 1989). The self-concept, which was first discussed by William James in 1892 (Gerrig/Zimbardo 2012), forms the core of this research. Self-concept is a cognitive and dynamic structure that includes many components, such as memories, characteristics, motives, values, beliefs, self-esteem, ideals, and possible selves (Chen et al. 2006). Attitudes, beliefs, intentions, norms, roles, and values are seen as aspects of the self (Triandis 1989).

The private and collective facets are the main reference criteria to use for evaluations of the self. They correspond, respectively, to self-evaluations and contributions to the collective group (Breckler/Greenwald 1986; Somech 2000). Self-construal refers to an individual's sense of self in relation to others (Santamaria et al. 2010). It is accepted as constructed within social spaces because it is claimed that during interactions an individual's self-entity coexists with the self-identifications of others (Rattan 2011). The self not only presents a person's view of what makes him or her unique, but also seeks to attain the goals and the role established by a group (Somech 2000).

Markus and Kitayama (1991) proposed a theoretical framework by providing a linkage between individualism and collectivism with independent and interdependent self-construal (Matsumoto/Yoo 2006; Lu/Gilmour 2007). People who have an interdependent self-construal do not separate from the social context, and thus are more connected to and less differentiated from others. By contrast, people with an independent self-construal are dynamic centres of awareness, emotion, judgment, and action (Matsumoto 1999). According to Ma and Schoeneman (1997), the self-concept with an individualist attitude is identified as ego-centred, autonomous, self-directed, and independent. On the other hand, the self-concept with a collectivist attitude is identified in the context of relations with others. It is highlighted that the collectivist self does not differentiate

between personal and group goals; in any distinct case, it tends to sacrifice personal goals for the good of the collective group (Matsumoto 1999).

From the viewpoint of the distinctions between individualist and collectivist self-concepts, Somech (2000) compared different meanings of the independent and interdependent selves in both urban and Kibbutz sectors (a communal settlement based on a socialistic ideology and collectivistic values) in Israel. People from the urban sector gave more independent responses and fewer interdependent responses than people from the kibbutz sector, is the main result of the mentioned research. According to Hui (1988), social context and social relations can activate individualist and collectivist attitudes. Kim and colleagues (1994) found that individualist and collectivist attitudes are not mutually exclusive. These different types of attitude can coexist at the individual level, and Kim et al. demonstrated that individuals can simultaneously have independent and interdependent self-construals (Singelis 1994). Green and Paez (2005) suggest that individuals can be characterized by specific combinations of individualist and collectivist attitudes. It is possible to observe people who are high or low in individualism or collectivism. Either dimension can be both low and high. For example, individualist relations are common with some people or in particular situations, such as in business relations. On the other hand, in other situations the relationship with others is collectivist, as in the context of family.

Research Methodology

This study empirically examines the self-description of managers and entrepreneurs. It is a multidisciplinary study related to both management and social psychology. The main contribution of this research is to compare the self-construal of managers and entrepreneurs. The following sections present information about the participants, measures used, research procedure, data collection, and analyses.

Participants

The research sample was selected from managers and entrepreneurs who work and live in Turkey. Turkey is a developing Eastern country with social homogeny and was described as collectivist by Hofstede (1980). House and colleagues (2004) define Turkey as vertical collectivist. In recent decades, some studies such as Göregenli (1995) and Wasti and Erdil (2007) have shown Turkey to be a quickly changing transitional country that is transforming to incorporate both individualist and collectivist elements. The reason for conducting the research in Turkey was to observe managers and entrepreneurs in the same national context.

Table 1: Demographics of participants

Categories		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Male	60	63.8	63.8	63.8
	Female	34	36.2	36.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	100.0	
Job	Manager	44	46.8	46.8	46.8
	Entrepreneur	50	53.2	53.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	100.0	
Marital statues	Single	18	19.1	19.1	19.1
	Married	74	78.7	78.7	97.9
	Other	2	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	100.0	

Table 2: Average age of participants

Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Manager	39.3636	44	10.48607
Entrepreneur	38.5000	50	10.62390
Total	38.9043	94	10.51171

Forty-four managers and 50 entrepreneurs ($N = 94$) in Turkey participated in the research. The participants came from the service, technology, food, retail, consulting, industrial goods, and education sectors. At the time of the study, all participants lived in Konya, an economically and industrially developed city in the Anatolia region of central Turkey. The average age of the participants was 39, with a range from 19 to 63. Of the participants, 64% were male and 36% were female. Over 19% were single, 79% were married, and 2% were divorced.

Procedure

Participants were selected from among managers and entrepreneurs, and the selection process favoured people who had been working as managers or entrepreneurs for one year or more. Participants were reached through purposeful sampling (Seidman, 1998) and the trace method (Hornby/Symon 1994) to select the most appropriate participants to obtain information-rich cases (Patton 2002).

In order to find people who were managers or entrepreneurs, 12 participants (5 managers, 7 entrepreneurs) were reached by the researcher's effort, and they in turn were asked to reach through their personal, social, and professional networks other people who could be voluntary participants in this research. In total, 102 people were asked to participate. Eight were excused since they had business on the days appointed for the study and would be out of the office. The oth-

ers were willing to voluntarily participate in this research. The response rate (92%) was high because of using networks. Most of the participants were pleased to take part in a study conducted by a person from a university. Eleven of them were interested in the results and asked to receive them at the end of the research.

Data collection was performed face to face in the participants' workplaces. During data collection, the researcher explained the subject and method of the study to each participant. In the application of the Twenty Statements Test, explanations made by Kuhn and McPartland (1954, quoted in Rees and Nicholson 2004) were used for data collection and analysis. After the research method had been explained, a Twenty Statements Test sheet (A4 format) was given to each participant to fill in 20 blank lines with self-descriptive statements. Participants were asked to complete the sheet in 15 minutes. The reasoning behind the time limitation was to prevent participants from worrying about logical order and importance and to cause them to write the first statement that came to mind. The TST sheet included three parts: instructions, 20 blank lines, and items to collect demographic information (Somech 2000). The question "Who am I?" was printed on the sheet, and the participants were required to fill in the blank lines with 20 statements starting with "I am":

> In the twenty blanks below please make twenty different statements in response to the simple question, "Who am I?" Answer as if you are giving the answers about yourself, not somebody else's thought on you. Write your answers in the order they occur to you. Do not worry about logic and importance. Go along fairly fast (Somech 2000).

The meeting protocol had three stages. First, the researcher made an introductory and explanatory speech. Second, the participants filled out the form. Third, the researcher concluded the appointment. In total, the process took at most half an hour of participants' time.

Data Collection and Analysis

This study was structured as qualitative research, and the Twenty Statements Test (McPartland et al. 1961) was used for data collection in order to obtain self-identifying statements from managers and entrepreneurs. The reason for structuring the research as a qualitative study was to attain richer data and cases (Patton 2002) regarding self-description.

The main reason for using a Twenty Statements Test was to benefit from rich data and the ease of using the TST (Carpenter/Meade-Pruitt 2008). According to Couch (1967), the TST as a method has greater structure than is usually considered necessary for qualitative research, and Rees and Nicholson (2006) underline that the TST supports obtaining quantitative data via a qualitative method. According to the theoretical background of the TST, individuals think of themselves in terms of what they do; how they do it; their social roles such as mother,

designer, athlete; their values; and their moral attitudes. The self depends on others, and the aim of measurement is to provide statements for individuals to articulate aspects of symbolic systems they apply to themselves (Rees and Nicholson 2006). In other words, the TST focuses on the interrelationships between self-concept and social positions, self-concept and behaviours, self-concept and attitudes (Schwirian 1965).

The data were analysed using content analysis (Holsti 1969; Luborsky 1994; Phillips/Hardy 2002). Individualist and collectivist attitudes of managers and entrepreneurs as interdependent and independent selves were measured using a 'referential framework' (McPartland et al. 1961). Responses referring to personal traits, attitudes, or behaviours were classified as independent; responses that were related to others (Somech 2000) were classified as interdependent.

According to Rees and Nicholson (2006), data can be assigned to different categories and coded in different ways. The qualitative data obtained from the TST were coded according to whether they were expressions of independence or interdependence. The referential framework developed by Kuhn and McPartland (1954), which is a commonly used and appropriate categorization for studies of the self, was used. The framework contains four main categories (Rees/Nicholson 2006):

1. *Physical (category A): Physical structure in time and space.*
2. *Social (category B): Term of position within social roles and structures.*
3. *Attributive (category C): Social actor abstracted from social structure (termed 'reflective').*
4. *Oceanic (category D): Conceptions of the self abstracted from physical being, social structure, and social action (one of the meanings of oceanic is huge or great, and it is used to express non-self-identifying statements like "I am a human being").*

First, the participants' statements were sorted into four main categories following Kuhn and McPartland (1954) and Rees and Nicholson (2006), and nine subcategories (Somech 2000). After analysis of the collected data, it was determined that categories B and C would be used as primary categories, within which subcategories would be created. Categories B and C were not homogeneous, as were categories A and D. Drawing on the research of Somech (2000), the subcategories of B and C were structured as below:

Subcategories of B:

1. *Family (B1)*
2. *Residence (B2)*
3. *School/Education (B3)*
4. *Work (B4)*

5. *Military Service (B5)*
6. *Political Affiliation (B6)*

Subcategories of C:

1. *Hobbies and Preferences (C1)*
2. *Aspirations (C2)*
3. *Personal Traits (C3)*

First, responses were categorized into the four main classifications as follows. Self-descriptions such as being dark, young, or fat were put into category A; being a student, democrat, or mother into category B; hobbies, preferences, aspirations, and personal traits into category C; finally, abstract descriptions like being in the centre of the world were put into category D. The same systematic process was applied to the statements in B and C to assign the descriptions to subcategories. Responses in categories A and D could not be subcategorized because category A responses were solely related to aspects of physical appearance like colour, age, and gender, and category D responses were too abstract and unrelated to each other. These factors made both A and D impossible to subdivide.

The classification was done according to the synthesized thoughts of McPartland's (1965) referential schemes and Somech's (2000) content analysis form. The final form of the analysis involved 11 categories. A and D were physical and oceanic, respectively. B was social, involving family, residence, education, work, military, and political descriptions. Finally, C was attributive, involving hobbies, preferences, aspirations, and personal traits. The independent self was the sum of the physical (A) and attributive (C) categories. The interdependent self was the sum of the social (B) and oceanic (D) categories. In total, four categories (including subcategories) were related to the independent self (A +C1+C2+C3), and seven were related to the interdependent self (B1+B2+B3+B4+B5+B6+D). The content analysis was built upon the studies done by McPartland (1965), Somech (2000), and Rees and Nicholson (2006).

The keywords used for the qualitative analysis were determined according to the analyses done in previous related studies. Some key words used in the analysing of qualitative data were gender (for example, male), age (46), facial expression (smiling), physical appearance (fat) for physical category (A); job (engineer), task (quality controller), responsibility (team leader), role (mother), social status (wife), relation (follower) for social category (B); interest (technology), choices (like to be alone), wishes (ideals), and traits (patient) for attributive category (C); and abstract descriptions (part of nature) for oceanic category (D).

Descriptive statistics (i.e., demographic data) and the distribution of statements were done in SPSS in order to obtain the relations between the demographics and the participants' self-descriptions as in the research done by Aypay and Ay-

pay (2011). Because the data were non-parametrical, a chi-square test was used to check significance.

Quality Check

After the researcher had coded and analysed the data, an external referee from the social sciences department of the researcher's university made quality checks of the content analysis method. Each statement obtained from managers and entrepreneurs was categorized by the referee in respect to category A, B, C, or D and the subcategories of B and C. The consistency of categorization agreement for 1000 statements from entrepreneurs was 88.9%, and for 880 statements from managers it was 89.7%. The statements on which the researcher and referee did not agree were re-evaluated and re-categorized in order to obtain the final form.

Findings

Data were gathered from 94 participants via the Twenty Statements Test and then analysed with content analysis. According to the results, while managers describe themselves mostly in terms of social categories (64%), entrepreneurs use reflective self-descriptions (81%). Participant managers are categorized as having an interdependent self-construal, with the total of B and D categories equalling 65%; while entrepreneurs were classified as having an independent self-construal, with the total of A and C equalling 82%.

Figure 1: Content analysis of entrepreneurs' self-descriptions (percentages do not sum to 100% because of rounding).
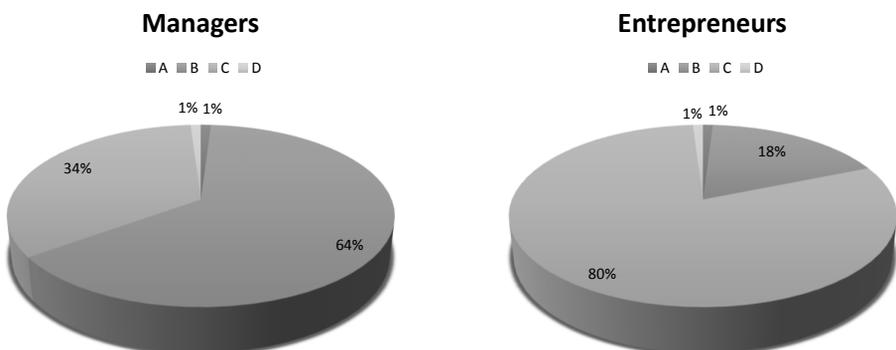
In addition to the content analysis of qualitative data, the data set was analysed statistically. Statistical results were presented to quantitatively determine differences between managers and entrepreneurs. The scores of independent and interdependent selves are given in Table 3. As is seen from this table, the differences between managers and entrepreneurs are statistically significant. The results

show that while the participant managers used more interdependent and fewer independent self-descriptions, entrepreneurs' self-descriptions were more independent and less interdependent.

Table 3: Means and SDs of independent and interdependent selves

	Independent Self		Interdependent Self	
	Manager	**Entrepreneur**	**Manager**	**Entrepreneur**
Mean	0.357955	0.815	0.642045	0.185
SD	0.003017	0.002033	0.004546	0.003062
t-test	-15.4		15.4	

p=0.000

Table 4: Subgroups

Subcategory	Manager	Entrepreneur	*Z*	*p*-value
Independent self				
A-Physical	0.038	0.012	-1.590	.112
C1-Hobbies & preferences	0.038	0.069	-3.340	.001
C2-Aspirations	0.108	0.155	-4.331	.000
C3-Personal traits	0.817	0.764	-6.679	.000
Interdependent self				
B1-Family	0.039	0.152	-1.467	.142
B2-Residence	0.010	0.016	-.208	.835
B3-School & education	0.158	0.123	-6.036	.000
B4-Work	0.769	0.679	-8.007	.000
B5-Military	0.002	0.000	-1.066	.286
B6-Political affiliation	0.004	0.000	-1.066	.286
D-Oceanic	0.018	0.029	-.490	.624
X^2	56.742			
p-value	0.000			

Of the statements made by managers, 63.5% were social (category B), 34.4% were reflective (category C), and the remainder fell into categories A (1.4%) and D (0.7%). The majority of the 44 managers described themselves in social terms (category B). Of the 880 statements, 559 expressed social characteristics, indicating that the participant managers mostly depicted themselves in terms of social role, status, and structure.

The 862 statements by managers in categories B and C were then assigned to subcategories. This revealed that when managers described themselves with social statements, they used work-related expressions 78.89% of the time. Educa-

tion- and school-related expressions were the next most frequently used, accounting for 15.74% of all statements in the social category.

Table 5: Self-descriptions of managers in social category

Subcategories of Category B	Frequency	Percent
Family (B1)	23	4.11%
Residence (B2)	4	0.72%
School & education (B3)	88	15.74%
Work (B4)	441	78.89%
Military (B5)	1	0.18%
Political affiliation (B6)	2	0.36%
Total	559	100.00%

Following the social category, the next-highest rank was given to attributive statements, which made up 34.4% of the total. When the subcategories of the attributive category were investigated, personal traits were found to be the most frequently referenced. The remainder of the statements described aspirations and hobbies and preferences.

Table 6: Self-descriptions of managers in attributive category

Subcategories of Category C	Frequency	Percent
Hobbies & preferences (C1)	11	3.63%
Aspirations (C2)	33	10.89%
Personal traits (C3)	259	85.48%
Total	303	100.00%

It was found that participant managers described themselves most frequently with social statements, which include references to social roles, status, and structures. Among the subcategories, work-related statements—including job or career, roles in the workplace, and relationships with colleagues—were the most frequently used, followed by personal traits, in the attributive category, and then school- and education-related statements, which reference educational background, school information, fields of expertise, and major.

Sample self-descriptions of managers (age, gender, and sector):

I am a manager who is interested in employees and customers (28, male, consulting).

I have worked as a quality manager (26, male, technology).

My major is engineering (35, male, industrial goods).

I graduated from İstanbul University (42, female, services).

I began my career job while I was in high school (35, male, services).

Of the statements made by entrepreneurs, 80.8% were attributive (category C), 17.5% were social (category B), and the remainder were assigned to categories A (0.7%) and D (1.0%). Of the 1000 statements obtained from 50 entrepreneurs, 808 were attributive (category C), with the participant entrepreneurs describing themselves in terms of hobbies, preferences, aspirations, and personal traits. Entrepreneurs' statements in the attributive category were then subcategorized. This revealed that the most commonly used expressions mentioned personal traits. References to aspirations were the next most frequent, followed by hobbies and preferences.

Table 7: Self-descriptions of entrepreneurs in attributive category

Subcategories of category C	Frequency	Percent
Hobbies & preferences (C1)	60	7.43%
Aspirations (C2)	132	16.34%
Personal traits (C3)	616	76.24%
Total	808	100.00%

Following the attributive category, the second most frequently occurring category was social. Among the subcategories of the social category, work-related statements were the most frequently used by entrepreneurs, followed by family roles and education/school.

Table 8: Self-descriptions of entrepreneurs in social category

Subcategories of category B	Frequency	Percent
Family (B1)	34	19.43%
Residence (B2)	5	2.86%
School & education (B3)	22	12.57%
Work (B4)	114	65.14%
Military (B5)	0	0.00%
Political affiliation (B6)	0	0.00%
Total	175	100.00%

Sample self-descriptions of entrepreneurs: (age, gender, sector)

I focus to understand others (37, male, industrial goods).

I am interested in technology (43, male, technology).

I can be a leader or follower when need be (36, female, food).

I am goal oriented (30, female, services).

I pay attention to small details (59, male, grocery retail).

It was found that participant entrepreneurs described themselves most frequently with attributive statements, which include personal characteristics, choices, and objectives. Among the subcategories, statements referencing personal traits—including behaviours, attitudes, and actions—were the most frequent, followed by aspirations (also in the attributive category), and then by work-related statements (in the social category) referencing job or career, roles in the workplace, and relationships with colleagues.

Discussion

The aim of this research is to explore how an entrepreneur's self-description differs from a manager's self-description and to contribute to the literature observations on the differences between the self-construal of managers and entrepreneurs. The research was conducted on a sample consisting of 94 Turkish managers and entrepreneurs.

Differing from the previous studies, which underline the differences between managers and entrepreneurs concerning psychological, personal, and demographic factors (Berthold/Neumann 2008; Busenitz/Barney 1997; Forbes 2005; Orser/Dyke 2009; Stewart/Roth 2007), the current research explores differences in self-description between managers and entrepreneurs.

Self-concept is one of the most important aspects of personality and involves the attitudes, beliefs, intentions, norms, roles, and values (Chen et al. 2006; Triandis 1989) of an individual. This research adds one more dimension, named self-description, to the differences between managers and entrepreneurs previously discussed in the management literature.

Analysis revealed that the participant managers and entrepreneurs defined themselves in different ways, as discussed in the study by Malach-Pines and colleagues (2002). Even though both the participant managers and entrepreneurs live and work in the same country, the entrepreneurs are more individualist than the managers. While managers' self-descriptions are mostly based on context-related statements emphasizing social role, status, and structure, most of the entrepreneurs' self-descriptions are not related to the social context but instead reference attributes such as personal traits. This presents an empirical aspect that the attitude of managers is more collective, while entrepreneurs behave, feel, and act more individually, as discussed in recent studies (Begley/Boyd 1987; Stewart et al. 1999).

The self-definitions of entrepreneurs tended to reflect an individualist self, whereas managers' self-descriptions reflected a collectivist self. It is observed

that managers and entrepreneurs have specific combinations of individualist and collectivist attitudes. Participant managers and entrepreneurs had both independent and interdependent self-constructs (Hui 1988; Singelis 1994; Green/Paez 2005), and these different types of attitude coexisted at the individual level. Participant entrepreneurs have a tendency toward individualist behaviour, and their self-description is more strongly independent than interdependent. On the other hand, participant managers act in a more collectivist manner, and their self-description is more strongly interdependent than independent. Even though all participants were natives of the same country and lived and worked there, the fundamental difference in self-perception between managers and entrepreneurs was still present.

Self-descriptions related to both individualist and collectivist attitudes have been seen at the same time (Kağıtçıbaşı 2005) for managers and entrepreneurs, as underlined in the study of Hui (1988), who found that social context and social relations can activate both individualist and collectivist attitudes. Despite the shared background, however, entrepreneurs exhibited a greater tendency toward individualism, whereas managers tended to be collectivist in their attitude.

Entrepreneurs had a strong tendency toward attributive self-description, while managers more strongly tended toward self-description in a social context. While managers described themselves in terms of social roles, status, and structures, entrepreneurs described themselves most often in terms of personal traits, including behaviours, attitudes, and actions. Managers felt themselves dependent on the social context. Managers' self-descriptions are based on the social environment and interactions, indicating that managers exhibit a more collectivist attitude than entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs defined themselves independently from the social context and did not often use socially related expressions.

Entrepreneurs exhibit a self-profile that is independent from the social context and emphasizes personal traits. Entrepreneurs' self-descriptions were primarily attributive, revealed a separation from social context, and underlined a tendency towards individualist culture. The next most frequently used were work-related descriptions. Neither managers nor entrepreneurs described themselves often in global or physical terms.

The point in common between managers and entrepreneurs was to describe themselves primarily in terms of the work context or personality traits, respectively, rather than in terms of the family context. Self-descriptions involving personality traits are stronger than self-descriptions in the family context.

It was observed that the participant entrepreneurs did not define themselves at all in terms of military service or political affiliation, while some managers did. Managers described themselves most often in terms of work and education, but entrepreneurs defined themselves in terms of family roles more than managers

did, which contradicts research conducted by Malach-Pines and colleagues (2002).

The main result of this study on a Turkish sample is that self-description changes according to whether the individual is a manager or an entrepreneur, but the reason for this difference is as important as the difference itself. Existing literature explain the differences between managers and entrepreneurs in basic terms of personality, psychology, and demographics (Busenitz/Barney 1997). According to Utsch (1999), the main determiner of whether an individual is an entrepreneur or a manager is the personality, and distinct differences in motivation (Stewart/Roth 2007), tolerance for ambiguity (Shere 1982), decision making (Tan 2001), overconfidence (Forbes 2005), and self-efficiency (Chen et al. 1998) influence the choice of the most appropriate professional role.

The literature on the self explains that self-concept is first an inner process and then becomes relational. According to Tice and Baumeister (2015), the self is defined by the network of relationships in which it exists. In addition, self-concept is explained by Shavelson and colleagues (1976) as one's perceptions of self, which are formed through interaction with and interpretation of the environment (Leung et al. 2015). For instance, Hui (1998) underlines how social factors activate different attitudes of individuals. According to the literature on managers/entrepreneurs and self-concept, self-description can be influenced by both personality and social context. Until now, the comparative studies on differences between managers and entrepreneurs (Forbes 2005; Stewart/Roth 2007; Berthold/Neumann 2008; Orser/Dyke 2009) have mostly emphasized their personality characteristics. However, the current research on the construal of the self can open a discussion of the effects of interaction, relationship, and context on managers and entrepreneurs.

Kağıtçıbası (2013) underlines that the self is a universal concept but is perceived in different ways. For example, according to Geertz (1975), it can be symbolized with a theatre game. The self consists of the masks, stage, play, and roles. So relations are accepted as being more important than the individuals. Similarly, in the metaphor used by Czarniawska-Joerges and Wolff (1991), organizations are accepted as a theatre and managers and entrepreneurs are differentiated by the roles they perform. Hence, different roles in organizational, industrial, and social contexts can cause managers and entrepreneurs to have different self-structures.

In an organization, the difficulties, setbacks, and challenges (Chen et al. 1998); need for innovation and risk-taking orientation (Tan 2001); and creation and enterprise (Czarniawska-Joerges/Wolff 1991) cause different conditions in organizational and industrial contexts. In addition to differences in personality, the needs and features of an environment can be accepted as reasons for differences in self-description.

As noted earlier, understanding why managers' and entrepreneurs' self-descriptions differ is as important as exploring these differences themselves. Hui (1988) claims that social context, structure, and relations affect people's tendencies to behave in a more individualist or collectivist manner. Namely, behaviours and attitudes as elements of self-construal are shaped by external dynamics. In addition, Utsch and colleagues (1999) underline that characteristics determine whether an individual becomes an entrepreneur or a manager.

The present research is mostly based on theories of the self in social psychology and discussions of managers and entrepreneurs in the management discipline. As a main academic implication, this study shows that concept of the self is both an inner and a relational process for managers and entrepreneurs. Differences between managers' and entrepreneurs' self-construals depend on these two processes. Regarded as an inner process, the self-construals of managers and entrepreneurs differ according to their personality and psychology. Self-construal is affected by how managers and entrepreneurs perceive and describe themselves, which is based on their inner aspects. On the other hand, it is also a relational process between them and other members of society. Both managers and entrepreneurs in this study revealed collectivist attitudes, but the dominant value differs for each category of participant. While the managers are collectivist, entrepreneurs are individualist, in contrast to the national culture.

A second implication, relevant to practitioners, is that gaining a deeper understanding of managers' and entrepreneurs' self-construal would allow for criticism and analysis of existing education and training programs, and the development of better designed programs for both managers and entrepreneurs. A study on self-description is a way to listen to managers and entrepreneurs and to better comprehend their needs and expectations.

Conclusion

The primary finding of this study is that self-description changes according to whether the individual is a manager or an entrepreneur. There is a significant relationship between being a manager or an entrepreneur and the dominant self-description (i.e., interdependent or independent).

During data collection, it was observed that it was very difficult for some participants to answer the question "Who am I?" According to Somech (2000), the time limitation is necessary for participants to write the first statement that comes to mind and prevent them from worrying about logical order and importance. Most of the participants wrote their statements in the expected time, but some had difficulty in expressing themselves.

As a basic limitation of the research, there may be a risk in using the Twenty Statements Test as a research tool. The risk lies in participants' comprehending and answering correctly the question "Who am I?" There were some repetitive

answers. Also, some participants expressed statements which were the thoughts of others about themselves, rather than their thoughts about themselves. Both types of statement were excluded from the data analysis.

Another limitation of the research is that it was conducted only in one country and thus explores the phenomena only from the perspective of a single country. For future studies, it would be ideal to conduct this research in more countries to observe the similarities and differences in the self-construals of managers and entrepreneurs within a broader context.

There is a growing need for more research into the self-descriptions of individuals in various roles, such as manager or entrepreneur. Personal characteristics are one of the main components of the self. Research of this nature will help to understand individuals' characteristics and personalities, and enable more accurate and efficient evaluation of their behaviours, attitudes, and choices. An individual's choice of professional role may be the result of particular characteristics as a main component of self-construal. There must be many driving dynamics of the differences in self-construal and whether an individual is more naturally an entrepreneur or a manager. For future studies, it is suggested to explore the relationship between social context, self-construal, and professional role, and how each affects the others.

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