Taru Siekkinen

The Changing Relationship Between the Academic Profession and Universities in Finnish Higher Education

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Abstract

This doctoral dissertation describes how the relationship between the academic profession and universities has changed, and how the global trends, particularly New Public Management (NPM), managerialism and academic capitalism, as well as other societal expectations have influenced it in Finnish higher education. Prior studies show that these global trends have had various effects on academic profession. Additionally, they have driven universities to develop as an organisation. NPM and managerialism emphasise hierarchical management structures, control, performance evaluations, and efficiency, which are commonly incompatible with professional values and practices; collegial decision-making, autonomy and trust. Higher education institutions are also expected to have more relevance in their activities. In addition, academics have started to apply entrepreneurial and commercial ways of acting in their work.

The data of this study were collected in Finnish universities, and in two projects that include two sets of survey data (from fixed-term academics and middle managers) and one set of interview data (from top and middle managers). Three empirical sub-studies incorporated in this research include perspectives from reciprocal commitment in academic careers, recruitments in universities, and change and continuity in the academic profession.

The results suggest that the relationship between the academic profession and universities is often tense. The academic profession is a powerful professional group that protects its traditional practices, values and autonomy. Universities have faced external pressure to develop as an organisation, and started to control their staff and monitor their performance more strictly. This has questioned the reciprocity between academics and universities by academics, standardised the university structures and processes, and emphasised the power of middle-managers in universities. The short project-based funding has also made academic careers more insecure. This study also suggests that in the new institutional frameworks, academics have adapted new roles and identities, as they have been affected by new organisational and societal expectations. New type of connected academic professionalism is emerging as professional, organisational, and societal/entrepreneurial roles, and identities are being blended in academic work.

Keywords: Academic profession, universities, academic work, New Public Management, managerialism, identity.

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Tiivistelmä

Tutkimuksessa tarkasteltiin akateemisen profession ja yliopiston muuttuvaa suhdetta. Lisäksi tarkasteltiin, miten globaalit trendit kuten uusi julkisjohtaminen (New Public Management, NPM), managerialismi, akateeminen kapitalismi sekä muut erilaiset yhteiskunnalliset odotukset, kuten lisääntyvät vaatimukset tutkimuksen ja opetuksen yhteiskunnallisesta relevanssista, ovat vaikuttaneet tähän suhteeseen.

Aikaisemmissa tutkimuksissa on havaittu, että nämä trendit ovat muuttaneet akateemista professiota. Ne ovat myös toimineet vahvana vaikuttimena yliopistojen sisäiselle kehittämiselle. Uusi julkisjohtaminen ja managerialismi korostavat hierarkkisia johtamisrakenteita, valvontaa, suoriutumisen arviointia ja tehokkuutta. Nämä nähdään usein olevan ristiriidassa profession toimintatapojen ja arvojen kanssa, jotka korostavat kollegiaalista päätöksentekoa, autonomiaa ja luottamusta. Akateeminen kapitalismi on lisäksi vaikuttanut siihen että akateemiset toimivat työssään soveltaen yrittäjämäisiä sekä kaupallisia toimintatapoja.

Tutkimuksen aineisto kerättiin suomalaisista yliopistoista kyselyjen sekä haastattelujen avulla kahdessa eri tutkimusprojektissa. Sähköisiä kyselyitä oli kaksi, joista toisessa vastaajat olivat yliopistoissa työskenteleviä määräaikaisia tutkijoita ja toisessa yliopiston keskijohtoa. Haastatteluaineisto kerättiin neljästä yliopistosta yliopiston korkeimmalta johdolta ja keskijohdolta. Tähän väitöskirjaan sisältyy kolme empiiristä artikkelia, joiden teemat liittyvät vastavuoroiseen sitoutumiseen akateemisilla urilla, rekrytointeihin yliopistoissa sekä akateemisen profession muutokseen ja jatkuvuuteen.

Tutkimuksen tuloksen osoittavat, että akateemisen profession ja yliopistojen välinen suhde on usein jännitteinen. Akateeminen professio on vahva professionaalinen ryhmä, joka suojelee omia traditionaalisia toimintatapojaan, arvojaan ja autonomiaansa. Yliopistot ovat kohdanneet paineita yliopistojen ulkopuolelta kehittyäkseen organisaatioina ja ovat alkaneet valvoa työntekijöitään tarkemmin. Yliopistot ovat myös standardoineet sisäisiä rakenteitaan ja prosessejaan sekä keskijohdon valta on yliopistoissa lisääntynyt. Akateemiset kokevat työnsä usein hyvin merkitykselliseksi, mutta ovat tyytymättömiä epävarmoihin tulevaisuudennäkymiin akateemisilla urillansa. Näin ollen he ovat myös kyseenalaistaneet vastavuoroisen sitoutumisen heidän ja yliopiston välillä.

Tutkimuksen perusteella voi tehdä myös johtopäätöksiä siitä, että organisatoriset ja yhteiskunnalliset odotukset ovat muuttaneet niitä institutionaalisia olosuhteita, joissa akateemiset toimivat. Nämä odotukset ovat myös muuttaneet akateemista työtä ja luoneet akateemisille uusia rooleja ja identiteettejä. On muodostumassa uudenlainen 'yhteydessä oleva' akateeminen professio (connected academic professionalism), kun roolit ja identiteetit liittyen professioon, organisaatioon sekä yhteiskunnallisen vaikuttavuuteen ja yrittäjyyteen yhdistyvät, sekä myös sekoittuvat akateemisessa työssä.

Avainsanat: akateeminen professio, yliopistot, akateeminen työ, uusi julkisjohtaminen, managerialismi, identiteetti.

List of original publications

1   Siekkinen, T., Kuoppala, K., Pekkola, E. & Välimaa, J. (2017) Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends, *European Journal of Higher Education*, 7(2), pp. 120-135, DOI: 10.1080/21568235.2016.1248990

2   Siekkinen, T., Pekkola, E. & Kivistö, J. (2016) Recruitments in Finnish universities: Practicing strategic or pathetic HRM? *Nordic Journal of Studies in Educational Policy.* 2016 (2):32316. http://dx.doi.org/10.3402/nstep.v2.32316.

3   Siekkinen, T., Pekkola, E & Carvalho, T. (2019) Change and continuity in the academic profession: Finnish universities as living labs. *Higher Education*. Online first. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-019-00422-3

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When I started as a project researcher at the Finnish Institute for Educational Research, University of Jyväskylä in the spring of 2012, I did not know much about higher education research, or what it is like to be a researcher. Now, almost eight years and many projects later, I can say I have an idea of those things. However, it is also true that the more you know, the more you acknowledge those things you still do not know.

At this phase of my academic career, it is time to thank those people who have made my journey possible so far. They say that to learn the most, you should always be in the company of people more intelligent than you. I have been extremely privileged to work with many wise academics who have taught me a lot.

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Introduction

The relationship between the academic profession and universities has changed. This change has been influenced by changes in their operational environment. The academic profession is responsive and changing by its nature like all professional groups (Musselin 2007a). Universities are organisations that are, on the one hand, traditional, bureaucratic and incapable of substantial change. On the other hand, they have started to develop as an organisation; they are more independent and they have their own goals (Bleiklie, Enders & Lepori 2017b; see also Musselin 2007b.)

Higher education as an institution has rather stable functions in society (Välimaa 2018; 2019), even though they have been recently challenged. These functions, which are mainly related to research and teaching, are conducted in universities by academic professionals, who are the most important asset of higher education (Enders 2001). As a powerful professional group and as a "key profession" (Perkin 1969), the academic profession is protecting its autonomy and guarding the values that unite this heterogeneous group of professionals (Clark 1987).

Together with the economic recession, global trends have reinforced the change and influenced higher education in several ways. In Nordic countries, the welfare state has faced a crisis and the forces of marketisation have affected and challenged free higher education. The theory of academic capitalism (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Kauppinen & Kaidesoja 2014; Ylijoki 2003) explains how higher education institutions have adapted market-like behaviour in their activities, and what implications it has on the academic profession. The

economic recession has brought us in a situation where universities face requirements to have more societal impact and relevance (value for money) (Brennan 2007; Kogan & Teichler 2007; Teixeira & Dill 2011). The reforms made in higher education in Finland have aimed to make Finnish higher education more competitive (Välimaa, Aittola & Ursin 2014). These reforms have been conducted in higher education worldwide, and they have been supported by the ideas and practices of the New Public Management (NPM) and managerialism, aiming to increase cost-efficiency and control in the public sector organisations (Bleiklie et al. 2011; Evetts 2009; Deem 2004; Deem & Brehony 2005). In addition, the massification of higher education has generated new expectations and challenges towards higher education around the globe (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994, Trow 1973).

In this doctoral dissertation, the aim is to describe how the relationship between the academic profession and universities has changed in Finnish higher education. It is organised into six main chapters. *Chapter one* briefly introduces the research theme and illustrates its motivation. It also provides a brief description of the Finnish context and how the higher education policies have developed in Finland in recent years. This is significant since national higher education systems and their responses to global challenges vary.

In *Chapter two*, the theoretical framework and prior research of relevance to this study is presented. The theoretical part builds on the research done in the articles included in this doctoral dissertation, but it widens and deepens those themes. First, the changing national and global operational environment of the academic profession and universities is described, as well as the emergence of global trends such as New Public Management, managerialism, academic capitalism and massification. In the section of the responsive academic profession, the prior study of the academic profession is addressed. After that, the universities as institutional frames of academics are discussed, as well as the tense relationship between the academic profession and universities. After that, the definitions of the hybridism and connected professionals are described, and how they combine the perspectives of the profession and the organisation.

In the chapter of "Academic profession affected by the organisation", the perspectives of changing roles and blended identities, shifting work culture, careers and recruitments, reciprocal commitment in academic careers, and gender are being discussed.

The aims of this study are formulated in *Chapter three*, and the data and methods in *Chapter four*. The findings of the three empirical sub-studies are described in *Chapter five*. Finally, in *Chapter six*, the discussion and conclusions, limitations of the research and ethical issues, as well as avenues for future research are addressed.

1.1 A brief overview of the change of higher education policies in Finland in the last decades

Finnish universities follow global trends on developing their activities, aiming to meet the needs of the changing social and economic operational environment. The new managerial ideology started to spread into Finnish higher education after the mid-80s, and especially in the 90s, when the deep economic recession radically changed the discourse in Finland, emphasising efficiency. Before that, the Finnish system was embedded in the so-called Nordic model in a stronger manner. This model is characterised by a strong state control and a high level of social security and equal educational opportunities. (Rinne 2004; see also Välimaa 2018, 2019.)

The Finnish doctrines of higher education can be described with three phases: The "traditional academic" doctrine, which lasted until 1960 and was characterised by strong professional autonomy and academic freedom (Rinne 2004, 93). This type of university was an "elite" one, meaning that studying was possible only for a limited amount of people from higher social classes. However, the expansion of Finnish universities started already in the 1950s, and it was also supported by the regional policy, as new universities were also established in regions outside the capital area. (Välimaa 2001; 2018; 2019.) The "state development" doctrine from the late 1960s to the late 1980s was characterised by a strong state control, and education was seen as a central factor in economic development. This university type was a "mass university". The massification of the Finnish higher education was closely related to building up the welfare state; providing equal opportunities for people to access higher education. (Rinne 2004.) The last doctrine is "managing by results and competition" that began in the late 1980s and the early 1990s. It emphasises productivity and results, is driven by markets, and promotes free competition. This type of university Rinne calls a "universal enterprise university". (Rinne 2004; see also Välimaa 2001; 2018.)

The economic circumstances have had a strong influence on higher education, also in Finland. Välimaa (2018, 283) described the 1990s deep economic recession as the first "globalisation shock" for Finnish universities, as it forced universities to pay more attention to their relevance for the society. This time of austerity also changed the general attitude towards the funding of universities; While previously external funding had been considered as suspicious, now it was thought to be necessary (Välimaa 2018).

In 1991, Finnish government launched an experimentation on vocational higher education. In 1996, this system was turned into a system-wide practice, and polytechnics were established. (Välimaa 2001.) Currently these institutions are officially called Universities of Applied Sciences and currently there are 24 of them in Finland (Vipunen 2018). In 1997, the New University Act (645/1997) was a strong change to a new direction where universities had more institutional autonomy (Välimaa 2001). The new culture that emphasised

results and competition was followed by many other changes. A new salary system based on performance was introduced in 2005. The funding formula for universities changed many times since the late 90s, continuously placing greater emphasis on the outputs of the universities, such as on the number of degrees and journal publications. (Kallio et al. 2015; Välimaa 2012).

In the beginning of the 2000s the Finnish government initiated several reforms that were called "the structural development of the Finnish higher education system", aiming to make the Finnish higher education more reactive to global changes. The official goals were "diversifying the funding base of universities, providing better opportunities to compete for international research funding, increasing cooperation with foreign world-class universities, and ensuring the quality and effectiveness of universities' research and teaching". The reforms included two strategic actions: The New University Act 2009, and university mergers. (Välimaa, Aittola & Ursin, 2014, 46).

The New University Act became effective in 2010. It caused many critical discussions related to its expected negative effects on academic work, collegiality, and professional autonomy (see the Finnish book edited by Volanen 2012). The new act (558/2009) made universities more like private corporations, and operating as private employers, when previously academics had been working as civil servants. The reforms were a significant turn towards a managerial culture, as it required that university boards should have 40 % external members, and the power of rectors, boards, and managers was increased, while at the same time the traditional collegial forms of decision-making were diminishing (Kauppinen & Kaidesoja 2014; Välimaa 2010; 2012; Välimaa, Aittola & Ursin 2014). After the reform was implemented, Finnish universities began to enact their own human resource management (HRM) policies in a stronger and more visible manner (Article II: Siekkinen, Pekkola & Kivistö 2016).

In addition to this, several university mergers have been implemented; University of Eastern Finland, University of Turku and Aalto University were all formed in year 2010 (Välimaa, Aittola & Ursin 2014). Furthermore, one more merger took place at the end of 2018 when the Tampere University was created, merging two universities: The University of Tampere (UTA), and the Tampere university of Technology (TUT). In the new university, there is also the University of Applied Sciences of Tampere (TAMK) incorporated (Vellamo et al. forthcoming). In 2019, there are 14 universities in Finland.

The steering of universities in Finnish higher education is carried out by the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC), mainly through the funding formula (MEC 2018). The ministry of education launched the newest funding formula for universities in spring 2019 where the emphasis is even more on outputs: degrees, publications, and competitive research funding that has been received (MEC 2018). The new funding formu-

la gained a great deal of criticism since it lacks the basic funding, particularly in research (Kivistö et al. 2018).

The higher education development in Finland has mainly followed the European trends. However, when examining the higher education, national context is significant (Bleiklie et al. 2017a; 2017b; Clark 1983). The historical development in each country should be taken into account when policy makers are planning the development of higher education, like university mergers (Geshwind, Pinheiro & Aarrevaara 2016). Next, I will go to the theoretical discussion and at first, I will describe how the global trends have influenced higher education.

2
Theoretical discussion

In this theoretical chapter, I will continue, widen and deepen the theoretical discussion started in the research articles that are incorporated in this doctoral dissertation. Theoretical perspectives include prior research regarding global trends such as New Public Management (NPM), managerialism, academic capitalism and massification of higher education, central characteristics of the academic profession and universities, their tense and changing relationship, new academic roles and identities, as well as academic work, careers, recruitments, and gender.

2.1   Studying higher education

Higher education research is an interdisciplinary research field; researchers from various disciplinary backgrounds are adapting theories from other disciplines to it. Higher education research commonly has a practical emphasis, but in spite of that there is still always some kind theoretical framework present. To be able to find a theory that fits a study, we have to consider the scope of the phenomenon that the theory is intended to explain; whether we need a theory that operates at a macro, meso, or micro level (Tight 2012, 197, 213). These macro, meso, and micro levels in higher education can be regarded as a global, organisational, and individual perspectives.

To be able to understand the interdisciplinary nature of higher education research better, it is important to acknowledge how different disciplines are positioned in this research area. Teichler (2000, 15) divides higher education research into four types:

1. *Quantitative-structural aspects*, e.g. admission, élite and mass higher education, diversification and the relationships between higher education and employment. (Economists and sociologists)
2. *Knowledge and subject related aspects*, e.g. disciplinarity versus interdisciplinarity, *studium generale*, academics versus professional emphasis, acquisition and use of knowledge, relationships between teaching and research or curricula. (Education, history and sociology)
3. *Person or teaching and learning aspects*, e.g. communication, guidance and counselling, teaching and learning styles, students or academic staff. (Education, psychology and sociology)
4. *Aspects of institution, organisation, governance*, e.g. planning, administration, management, decision-making, funding or resource allocation. (Law, political science, economies, public and business administration, sociology of organisation).

However, the categories above do not include the research of professions (see e.g. Pekkola, Carvalho, Siekkinen & Johanson 2018), which is sociological research and forms a significant theoretical basis in this doctoral dissertation. The disciplinary background of this dissertation is multidisciplinary, as it is attached to (mainly) educational and sociological research, and research done in administrative sciences.

In higher education research, the studies on work and careers of academics has been a popular theme. This emphasis can be justified, since academics can be perceived to be at the centre of higher education: "[a]cademics are, after all, the key to the higher education process; without them, there would be no one to teach and supervise students, to carry out and disseminate academic research, or to run higher education institutions." (Tight 2012, 149). In this doctoral dissertation, the focus is the academic profession and its relationship with the university. The changes in the work and roles of academics exemplifies the changes in universities and in society, in general.

2.2 Academic professionals and universities in the middle of global pressures

2.2.1 National frameworks of higher education

The higher education system in each country has been formed in a very unique and specific way, influenced by different cultural aspects, power relations, and various historical events, and so are the organisational frames and social structures of academic professionals in which they perform their work. The national higher education systems are continuously developing. However, universities have always been in a close relationship with societies surrounded by them (Välimaa 2018; 2019). Today, universities are facing an increasing amount of pressure to impact society and have more societal relevance in their research and teaching activities (Kogan & Teichler 2007; Ramaley 2014). Societal problems that are challenging to define and that do not have easy solutions are called 'wicked problems' (Coyne 2005; Ramaley 2014). Higher education is expected to address these issues (see e.g. Vellamo et al. 2019).

In addition, to provide solutions to global issues, higher education is increasingly perceived to be responsible to their multiple stakeholders. Higher education influences significantly at local and regional levels in economic and societal ways, and "universities are seen as the vehicle to develop processes for dissemination of new knowledge" (Hagen 2002, 207; see also e.g. Lazzeretti & Tavoletti 2005). In addition, expectations from employers towards higher education have increased (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994).

In his seminal book "The Higher Education System" (1983), Burton Clark introduced "the Triangle of Coordination" where the complex relations regarding the coordination of higher education within one nation state between the state authority, the academic oligarchy and the market are described. In the model, "each corner of the triangle represents, then, the extreme of the one form and a minimum of the other two, and locations within the triangle represent combinations of the three elements in different degrees" (1983, 142).

This triangle is a highly useful starting point when analysing any higher education system. It reveals the complex nature of higher education and the power relations between those three actors within one nation state and beyond. However, as Jongbloed (2003) reminds us, the power relations are dynamic and transforming, and after particular global trends have had an influence on higher education in all countries, the power of markets has increased.

In addition to these national relationships and dynamics, which shape the European higher education systems in each country, the influence of the policy makers and the policies coming from the European Commission and the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) has been strong. The impact of the Bologna process was

significant to higher education policies in European countries (e.g. Diogo 2016). The Bologna process was signed in 1999, aiming to unify the degree system, to develop the European system of credits, to support lifelong learning and social dimension of higher education, and to develop Europe as an attractive knowledge region. The countries that implemented the Bologna process (47 countries by 2015) formed the European Higher Education Area, EHEA. (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2015.) The aim of the process was to create one European system and a set of criteria. However, it has faced many challenges due to national differences in higher education systems.

Additionally, the Lisbon strategy was launched in 2000, aiming to make Europe "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion" (the European Commission, no date). In Finland, the Lisbon strategy was considered as a "neutral truth", as national authorities considered the national higher education system, and it created pressure to speed up the national higher education reform. In addition, the rhetoric at the EU level was used to justify the national changes. (Moisio 2014, see also Saarinen 2007).

In addition, the several policy recommendations have affected academic professionals' work and careers in universities. To boost researchers' careers in Europe, the European Commission launched "The European Charter for Researchers – the Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers" in 2005, which states that "[t]he Research careers in Europe are fragmented at local, regional, national or sectoral level, not allowing Europe to make the most of its scientific potential. The Charter ensures that researchers can enjoy the same rights and obligations in any European country." (European Commission, EURAXESS). The Charter "is a set of general principles and requirements which specifies the roles, responsibilities and entitlements of researchers as well as of employers and/or funders of researchers." The code of conduct "consists of a set of general principles and requirements that should be followed by employers and/or funders when appointing or recruiting researchers." (Siekkinen, Pekkola & Kuoppala 2015).

Afterwards, the European Commission introduced "HR strategy for researchers", HRS4R, that was aiming to support the implementation of the principles of the Charter and Code. (European Commission 2005; European Commission EURAXESS.) These actions were aiming to make research careers attractive in the European area and boost knowledge production by developing the working conditions of researchers. By introducing the European Research Area (ERA), the European Commission was aiming to support more effective national research systems, optimal transnational co-operation and competition, and "an open labour market for researchers – to ensure the removal of barriers to researcher mobility, training and attractive careers" (European Commission 2012, 3).

2.2.2 Global trends influencing the academic profession and universities

Many global trends have had an influence on the academic profession and universities. In this doctoral dissertation, by global trends I particularly mean NPM, managerialism, academic capitalism and massification of higher education, even they do not occur evenly around the globe. Global trends are always connected to one cultural context more strongly than to another. Global is connected to the process of "globalisation" that is a complex process. As Kauppinen and Cantwell (2014, 138) describe:

> Globalization, a set of processes including a cross-border flows of capital, people, and ideas as well as the ascendance of a post-Fordist production model, has transformed (albeit unevenly) social, political, cultural, and economic relations worldwide.

Välimaa, Papatsiba and Hoffman (2016, 16) addressed the most important phenomena that shape, change, and define societies, with respect to the higher education. They came into the conclusion that three the most significant phenomena are knowledge, ICT and networks. Especially networks have changed the knowledge production, as the knowledge is increasingly produced in networks, and even though universities still have a central role in knowledge production, they do not have the monopoly in the process anymore (see also mode 2 and triple helix by Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff 2000). (Välimaa, Papatsiba & Hoffman 2016.)

One challenge for higher education that requires attention, and can be considered as a global trend is massification (see e.g. Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). The process where the number of students increases considerably, creates challenges in many parts of higher education: finance, administration, selection of students, curricula and socialisation of staff, research and teaching, and student housings and jobs (Trow 1973). Trow (1973) introduced three phases related to the process: elite (under 15 percent of the young cohort are educated), mass (from 15 to 50 percent of the cohort are educated), and universal (over a half of the cohort are educated). Additionally, the process is different in different parts of the world; the population in Europe is decreasing whereas the populations in Africa and Asia are increasing, for example. Therefore, challenges that are faced by the national higher education systems differ (Klemencic & Fried 2015). Marginson (2016) refers to this social phenomenon with the concept *high participation systems, HPS* and emphasises that even if there are many reasons (economic, social, historical) for this process that concerns every country, not a single one of them is convincing because of the complexity of the phenomenon.

Another trend that has gained a great deal of research interest is the "academic capitalism". It was originally analysed by Slaughter and Leslie (1997) in the context of Anglo-Saxon countries, and has been spreading in European, as well as in Finnish higher education, when Finnish academics are increasingly involved in activities related to commercialisa-

tion of their academic "products", as well as other entrepreneurial actions (Kauppinen and Kaidesoja 2014; Ylijoki 2003). However, the processes in the U.S. and Europe have been very different, as in Europe the academics' move to the market took place rather rapidly compared to the process in the U.S. (Slaughter and Cantwell 2012).

With the concept of academic capitalism, Slaughter and Leslie (1997) and Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) analysed how the universities have introduced many market-like behaviours in their actions. The central argument in the book by Slaughter and Leslie (1997) was that the "structure of academic work is changing in response to the emergence of global markets" (1997, 209). They analyse the development where governments are decreasing their funding for universities and universities have to find it increasingly from other sources, such as from private sector companies. This development is changing the dynamics and nature of higher education. Along this process, academics have become as "state subsidized entrepreneurs"(ibid. 210), who are seeking their own funding. Especially in the Anglo-Saxon countries this has been a central issue in higher education. In the U.S., the power and role of the markets have been traditionally strong, and this trend has transferred also to universities where the research and development are increasingly linked with commercial purposes. (Slaughter and Leslie 1997.)

Academic capitalism has also had an influence on what kind of research is considered valuable. "Basic" research is confronted by "applied", which is now considered to be more valuable due to its revenue generation (Rhoades 2014). This process also diversifies disciplines because those disciplines which have strong contacts to the private sector are gaining more funding (and power) than those who have weak contacts to the private sector. (Slaughter and Leslie 1997.) Thus in concrete, academic capitalism changes the academic work.

> The growth of contingent faculty as a proportion of the overall academic workforce is an expression of the changing priorities in academic capitalism, pushing production workers into the background and foregrounding various managerial professionals in marketing, enrollment management, student services, and entrepreneurial pursuits. (Rhoades 2014, 121)

In addition to academic capitalism, two overlapping global trends in public policy and administration have had a significant effect on the academic profession: New Public Management (NPM) and managerialism (see also Article III: Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019). Although these trends are interconnected, NPM emphasises efficient public organisations (Evetts 2009), whereas managerialism describes an ideology of management (Deem and Brehony 2005).

NPM emerged in the UK in the 1980s as a response to the peoples' demands for a cheaper and more efficient public sector during times of economic recession (Evetts 2009;

Ferlie et al. 2008). Andresani and Ferlie (2006, 416) state that "the NPM ideas stress a combination of: (1) empowered and entrepreneurial management rather than traditionally autonomous public-sector professionals and administrators; (2) use of quasi-market forces rather than planning; (3) strong performance measurement, monitoring and management, with a growth of audit systems." They also emphasise that the NPM reforms are driven by a central government aiming to get more value out of public services. Additionally, these reforms are implemented in a top-down manner in organisations.

Managerialism spread from applications in business to those in public institutions (Deem and Brehony 2005; Klikauer 2015). It emphasises competition, the marketisation of public-sector services, and monitoring efficiency through performance evaluations and outcome measurements (Deem 1998). Many authors refer to managerialism as an ideology. Trow wrote: "The 'ism' points to an ideology, to a faith or belief in the truth of a set of ideas which are independent of specific situations" (1994, 11). Deem and Brehony (2005; see also Deem 2004) said that managerialism (or new managerialism) is an ideology born from the earlier and narrower concept of 'management', which emerged in the U.S. during the early twentieth century. Under this ideology, managers believe that they have advanced knowledge and know-how to run an organisation efficiently, and managerialism is regarded as a solution to all problems in the public sector.

To accomplish the goals (that are influenced by NPM and managerialism), which the government has set for universities, higher education institutes began implementing performance evaluations and monitoring their research and teaching activities more carefully. In this change within universities, where institutional governance held a central position, academic leaders were expected to take on a managerial role. As a consequence, the power of collegial bodies in universities shrunk while the power of managers and other non-academic leaders expanded, especially the one of deans (Bleiklie et al. 2011; Deem 1998, 2004; Deem & Brehony 2005; Carvalho & Santiago 2010).

However, although these trends are commonly considered to have more negative than positive effects on higher education, we should still be open to their potential positive influences as well. Bleiklie et al. (2011) showed in their research that even though NPM has reduced the influence of academics in the governance of higher education, at the same time new arenas for academic influence might have been opened. Furthermore, there has been some discussion on how new practices can support academic professionals in pursuing excellence in their work. For example, related to the teaching evaluations in higher education, Chan (2001, 109) said that "'some dose' of 'managerialism' in the right proportion and in the right context would help institutions move towards a more open, objective, transparent and accountable culture". Evetts (2018) also considered the benefits of developed HRM in organisations, which has had positive effects on transparency and equality in organisations. However, it has not resolved all problems related to those issues.

2.3 The responsive academic profession and changing universities

2.3.1 The academic profession – a dynamic and heterogeneous group

The research on professions has its roots in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and classic sociologists such as Durkheim and Weber have had a strong influence on it (see e.g. Pekkola et al. 2018a). While the concept of *profession* defines a group of people, *professionalisation* is related to the process of achieving the status of a profession, as well as maintaining and developing the closure of the occupational group so that the group can maintain their own self-interests regarding their salary, status, and power (Abbot 1988; Evetts 2013; Larson 1977). A third concept that is commonly used when studying professions is *professionalism* which is considered as an occupational or normative value; something that is promoted in work, by and for workers. (Evetts 2013).

Professional groups and their functions in society have been described and defined differently by different authors (see eg. Pekkola et al. 2018a). For example, according to Freidson, professions are situated between the state and the market, forming a "third logic" (2001). Parsons (1939, 1954) addressed the function of profession in contrast to business, markets or bureaucracy. Parsons considered that professionals had an altruistic mission in contrast to businessmen seeking their own benefit (Parsons 1939). However, Abbot (1988) argued that professionalism promoted professionals' own occupational self-interest with respect to their status, salary and power.

In this dissertation, the academic profession is in focus. However, the academic profession is challenging to define since it is dynamic and continuously responsive to external changes. Like Musselin (2007, 175) have addressed it:

> There is therefore no ideal, universal and stable state of the academic profession. As all social bodies, it is a living entity, able to adapt, sensible to external changes but also trying to enact its environment.

Recently, the academic profession has been studied rather widely in the European higher education (e.g. Aarrevaara & Pekkola 2010; Carvalho 2017; Kehm & Teichler 2013; Pekkola 2014; Teichler & Höhle 2013). Two large studies on academic profession have been conducted rather recently, one of which was international (the CAP, the Changing Academic Profession study), and the other had a European perspective (EUROAC, Academic Profession in Europe: Responses to Societal Challenges). These studies described the main trends in different countries considering the work and careers of academic professionals (e.g. Fumasoli, Goastellec & Kehm 2015; Kehm & Teichler 2013; Teichler & Höhle 2013). In ad-

dition, these studies have had a significant contribution to the research on academic profession, and they have deepened our understanding of the position and change of the academic profession in different national contexts.

Carvalho (2017) found out, unexpectedly, that the academic profession was not defined in those studies. One possible reason for the unstudied academic profession can be the debate about whether the academic profession is a profession at all (Carvalho 2017; see also Pekkola 2014). For example, Enders (1999, 72) stated that perhaps instead of talking about academic profession we should talk about different occupations within universities. However, many authors have supported the idea that the academic profession is clearly a profession. Perkin (1969) calls it a "key profession", Larson (1977) "producers as producers", and Carvalho (2017, 9) a "meta-profession", since "academics are above other professional groups since they play a role, as knowledge producers, in defining these theoretical principles".

According to Rhoades, the academic profession is considered a profession (2007, 120-121) (based on the work on Goode 1957 and Parsons 1954):

> like other so-called liberal professions, higher education scholarship and teaching are considered a profession because they are characterized by advanced education and a specialized body of knowledge over which they have a monopoly; a normative structure of codes of ethics and the rule of meritocracy; a level of autonomy embedded in peer review and considerable professional self-regulation; and, in the case of professor, concepts like academic freedom and shared governance.

To be able to argue whether the academic profession is a profession or not, we should be able to recognise academics as a coherent group that is separated from other professional groups. Höhle and Teichler (2013) describe three dimensions that are common to all academics from a global perspective: *1) The process of learning and maturation is very long*, academics are regarded as full members of academic profession after working many years in higher education and after they have achieved the position of a senior academic. *2) Academic careers are highly selective,* only some of the junior researchers making it to the top as professors, and the process also includes completing the doctoral degree, and, in some countries, other degrees or examinations as well. *3) Academic freedom* is regarded as a key precondition for academic work. Moreover, it is commonly reinforced by institutional *autonomy*. All these characteristics support strong academic profession, especially for professors, who are hard to steer from outside because of the autonomy and freedom they enjoy (e.g. Carvalho & Diogo 2017; Evetts 2010; 2011.)

However, it is important to acknowledge that the academic profession is internally divided (Carvalho 2017). Already Clark (1987) described how the academic profession is shaped by many social settings: national context, discipline, and institution (1987, 2-3):

> To ignore such primary types of settings is to fall back on misleading general statements about 'academic man'. - . We move from stereotype to reality as we look at variation by context. Large areas of similarity may still exist, but they ought to be found not assumed.

The cohesion of this professional group is also a matter of perspective; academics can be identified as a single professional group, but when examining more closely, different subgroups can be identified (Becher 1989; Carvalho 2017). These subgroups can differ in many ways (in terms of perspectives, experiences, interests, and motivations), making the academic profession a very heterogeneous group, and therefore hard to define (Carvalho 2017; Teichler 2010).

Teichler (2010) has described three dimensions that divide academic professionals: *1. Discipline.* The different disciplinary cultures inside universities characterise academic work and careers in academia (see also: Becher 1989; Clark 1987; Välimaa 1998; Ylijoki 2004). *2. Career stage.* In different career stages, the autonomy academics enjoy, as well as power and other privileges and benefits, such as salary, differ to a great extent (e.g. Brechelmacher et al. 2015). Moreover, the nature of academic work differs in different careers stages, as in early career stages the emphasis is on teaching and research, and in later stages more on management and administration. *3. Institution type.* The type of the institution influences the emphasis on academics' work tasks (research/teaching).

In addition to this list, *gender* plays a very important role in academic work and careers; there are several studies that confirm women's weaker position in academia. Women's family responsibilities makes it challenging to combine work, which is challenging by its nature, and a family (e.g. Nokkala et al. 2019). Based on study by Siekkinen, Pekkola & Kivistö (2016) (Article II) also *funding* has to be acknowledged (and based on that, the type of the working contract).

Pekkola (2009; 2014) based his definition on academic profession drawing on Light (1974), according to which individuals that are members of the academic profession a) *are working in a university* and b) *produce certified knowledge*. Drawing from Larson (1977), Carvalho (2017, 8–9) described the academic profession in the following way: "Academics are an *organisational profession* since their practice (teaching and/or research) can only be developed within the framework of an organization (being a higher education institution or other kind of institution)". (Carvalho 2017; see also Musselin 2013a).

When discussing who belongs in the academic profession, three perspectives are also important. First, members of the profession also act as its gatekeepers, as they have the

power and control in deciding who to accept as members of the profession (Goode 1957). In universities, only PhDs are allowed to supervise doctoral students, and thus they act as gatekeepers. Secondly, as many authors have described, the academic profession is bound to the organisation (e.g. Carvalho 2017; Light 1974; Musselin 2013a). Thirdly, work tasks should concentrate on academic tasks such as teaching and/or research. Moreover, since the academic profession used to be a rather small, élite community of professors (Clark 1987), all professors working in universities are included in the academic profession in spite of their current role.

Based on prior research mentioned above, in this doctoral dissertation, I define the membership of the academic profession through three dimensions: a) PhD degree b) working contract to a university, and c) working tasks include teaching and/or research.

However, there is a threat in this plentiful discussion related to academic profession that we might lose the central point of it: why can academic professionals be regarded as a professional group that has more unifying than separating aspects? As Altbach (1995) addressed, the basic functions of academics everywhere are: "the conservation, dissemination, and innovation of knowledge". This process unifies as well as separates academics but, most significantly, creates a common base of values (Clark 1987). It also legitimises the existence of the profession (special function in a society).

2.3.2   Universities as an organisational frame for academics

Academic professionals are a specific group of employees, and so are their employers, universities. In this dissertation, the term 'university' does not refer to a single university but university organisations in general.

In higher education research, 'institution' is sometimes used to mean the same as 'organisation'. However, they commonly have a different meaning. The difference between the organisation and the institution in higher education becomes clearer if we consider how the basic tasks of the university as an institution have changed, versus how the tasks of the university organisation have changed. The main tasks of the university institution have remained mostly the same throughout history: to educate people and to produce new knowledge. If we consider the tasks of the current universities as organisations, they have been under multiple pressures and demands stemming from the society, markets, as well as the profession. Therefore, universities as organisations have changed significantly and these changes, which have often been supported by national policies, have also made them different between countries. This tension between the institution and the organisation constantly exists in universities. (Välimaa 2018; 2019, see also Clark 1983.)

Universities and their function in societies, as well as societies' expectations towards them have varied throughout history. Previously, the function of the university to educate was emphasised. In Finland, for example, universities had a central role in building the welfare-society whereas currently they are seen as central in developing the knowledge economy (Välimaa 2018; 2019). In different times, the definitions of the "ideal" university have varied. The Humboldtian idea of the university emphasised the unity and freedom of the two basic dimensions: the teaching and research. Wilhelm von Humboldt described this as "The regally (state) protected and fully endowed Ivory Tower combined with an elitist and gate-keeping Gymnasium/Abitur". (Nybom 2007, 62.) This idea of university is sometimes seen as ideal, as it is being contrasted to current models where teaching and research are being increasingly separated and the academic freedom sometimes threatened in a complex environment with many dependencies.

Afterwards universities have been defined, for example as, 'multiversity '(originally developed by Clark Kerr 1963, in here by Krucken, Kosmützky and Torka 2007) 'entrepreneurial' (Clark 1998) and 'enterprise' (Marginson & Considine 2000). All of these definitions have captured something from the prevailing atmosphere and societal trends. In addition, they describe not only the nature of the university and their relationship with society, but they also tell something about the role of the academic profession as well. Entrepreneurial university emphasised the proactive nature of the universities in a changing operational environment as well as the entrepreneurial attitude of academics (Clark 1998). The enterprise university continues with the same theme, suggesting that the universities are increasingly acting like private corporates with a strong executive control, including commercial and entrepreneurial spirit, and definitions of quality and lines of accountability are increasingly adapted from the private sector. "In becoming the Enterprise University, the university seems at risk of losing sight of its own distinctive features and achievements. In fact it might be losing control over the very means by which its own identity is formed". (Marginson & Considine 2000, 14). The term multiversity emphasises the role of the global trends as well as the influence of national settings in developing the higher education:

> "…there is a worldwide trend towards the multiversity being shaped by globalizing trends in higher education that are transforming national systems and individual university organizations alike. --- Universities are best understood as historical, time-dependent systems that are strongly embedded in their own national and organizational histories. The "new multiversity" emerges because universities all over the world devise diverse solutions in the face of global trends that may appear standard, but that are never standardized in their effects, as they are adapted, incorporated or resisted by universities that are ultimately rooted in particular times and places." (Krücken, Kosmützky and Torka 2007, 8).

If we think what makes universities special and different to other organisations, couple of characteristics are significant. In his seminal book "The higher Education System", Clark (1983, 28) described how the "academic activities are divided and grouped in two basic ways: by discipline and by enterprise". The enterprise or the institution is comprehensive since it brings together different disciplines, which does not recognise organisational or national boundaries, as they form a world community (Clark 1983). Traditionally, universities have been described as loosely coupled systems (Weick 1976) where its subunits have a rather great autonomy and where there is only a little coordination and control by its central management. They also have had traditionally a high degree of organisational autonomy from external interests, and have significant functions in societies. They also employ powerful academic professionals, who are commonly more committed to their discipline than to their organisation and who enjoy a great amount of freedom in their work. (Clark 1987; Musselin 2007b.)

Universities are facing pressures to change because of the higher education's growing social and economic impact, and because of the public interest in how they can efficiently fulfil their mission in society, related to the high quality research and teaching. Second, as knowledge is an essential element in the current knowledge-based economy, the way it is organised becomes significant. (Bleiklie, Enders & Lepori 2017a.) Universities have been dealing with these pressures and many reforms that have been implemented within the past decades, and, as a result, they have transformed their structures and rules into more organisation-like. (Musselin 2007b, 75).

There are two models of universities as organisations, where the position of the academic profession differs. The bureaucratic-academic organisation as an ideal-type is a bottom-heavy with weak organisational leadership, and poor capabilities for organisational change (rather academic professionals act, not the university as an organisation). In this model, the state controls universities significantly. The corporate-managerial model emphasise universities as organisations. In this model, the bureaucratic control is replaced by other means; e.g. audits and accountability measures, and quasi-market mechanisms. "'The old public administration' is replaced by 'new public management'". (Bleiklie, Enders & Lepori 2017b, 305.) Hüther and & Krücken (2016, 55) describe the change of universities into a "complete organisation" that can be characterised as follows: "by identity (autonomy, collective resources, boundaries, being an organization and being special), hierarchy (co-ordination and control, internal management), and rationality (setting objectives, measuring results, and allocating responsibility)." (see also Pietilä 2018).

This process of becoming an organisation includes many internal processes. They are specifically developed to meet the needs of new administrative systems (and in the end, the university management) such as HRM, ICT, and financial management, which are also causing new tensions between administration and academics. Furthermore, as various

global trends influence higher education, new kinds of challenges and uncertainties are being emerged to universities' internal governance (Stensaker 2018).

Universities have changed as an organisation, although rather moderately regarding the current environment where they would have the autonomy to change. There are theories on why organisations remain rather the same in a one field, for example Dimaggio's and Powell's theories on institutional isomorphism (1983). In this theory, the role of the academic profession is acknowledged (see the next chapter). Some authors have developed their idea further. Hüther and Krücken (2016), for instance, explained how European universities are influenced by the reforms supporting NPM and the trends that are constructing universities into "complete organisations" (mentioned above). Both of these trends highlight the isomorphic tendencies - homogenisation among universities.

National difference are significant in examining higher education. Finnish higher education has been characterised as a strong steering by the state (in contrast to the power of the market and academic oligarchy (Clark 1983)). However, the relationship between the state and the university has changed. In many European countries, universities have separated themselves as being the state-owned organisation and become autonomous corporations, in legal terms. At the same time, academic professionals have shifted from being civil servants to having employment contracts (Musselin 2013a; Process in Finland: Välimaa 2012; 2018; 2019). State steering has remained strong in higher education, but it has changed its form being mainly steering from the distance (Enders 2000, 4). After all, the government is the most important stakeholder for universities as they are the major funder of public higher education (Benneworth & Jongbloed 2010). One perspective to examine this relationship is the agent-theory, which implies that: "governments do not trust universities, simply because universities are likely to behave opportunistically if they are not held accountable for the resources they receive" (Kivistö 2008, 340). This perspective can be applied to the profession-organisation –relations in the context of higher education as well, when academics are being monitored by the universities. However, the changes in the relationship between the state and universities affects strongly to the academic profession. When universities are increasingly accountable to the state, they have been compelled to apply it to their academic units and individual academics as well (Kallio et al. 2015).

2.3.3 Tense relationship between the academic profession and the university

Although universities in Europe are becoming increasingly homogenous, national contexts still have a great effect on them. The relationship between the academic profession and

the universities is distinct in different national contexts as well. Most importantly, however, this relationship is constantly changing.

> Yet the profession is mainly and increasingly composed of individuals who are caught up in large local and national administrative frameworks, often intensely bureaucratic ones, which systemize their duties and privileges and convert them into employees. In turn, these workers manage to convince outsiders as well as themselves that, unequivocally, they are not mere employees but instead, are and should be seen as, privileged members of virtually independent professional community. (Clark 1987, 371-372.)

The power relationship between the academic profession and the university has always been tense. Academic professionals traditionally have academic freedom and power, and universities are their employers who have started to control them in a more strict manner (e.g. Kallio et al. 2015). However, the academic profession is a powerful profession that has been resistant to organisational control and managerial intervention. The work of academics is very particular by its nature, which makes it "unsuitable for both market and organisational control". (Evetts 2011, 415.) Research and teaching are complex, "unclear technologies", meaning that they are difficult to describe, prescribe, as well as reproduce. Their outputs are also challenging to define. (Musselin 2007b, 72-73, Evetts 2011.) Academic professionals are also "trained as critical thinkers and can apply this to anyone attempting to manage them" (Deem 2004).

In addition, academics have power within universities, making them as "active players". This aspect is sometimes underestimated when the power relations in the university are being discussed. As Clark said (1987, 377): "---in each national context, as a product of past efforts as well as historical conditions, the academic profession will have characteristic ways of defending itself and affecting the rest of society". Furthermore, the academic profession is also connected to the elite of the state (Clark 1983, 1987), which is significant aspect regarding the power relations between the academic profession and universities. Musselin (2013b, 1170) provides interesting aspect of this subject as she describes, how the peer-review system in higher education empowers academics:

> …the managerial governance developed by these academic leaders relies on, or even is wholly dependent on, academic evaluation, while faculty members in universities are confronted simultaneously with more managerial and professional controls. One does not exclude the other: they combine and reinforce each other.

If we consider the power of professional groups in general, Abbot (1988) have argued that professionalisation was promoting particularly the self-interests of the members of the

professional group with respect to their benefits and power. In their study on institutional isomorphism (1983), DiMaggio and Powell argue that professionals with similar education and wide networks is what also makes organisations similar; they have power inside organisations. Universities are also dependent on academics: they have a central position in universities, where they do most of the central work, and thus they possess the position as a key asset of universities (Enders 2000).

However, the academics have always performed their work in the organisational frames of universities (Musselin 2013b) and thus they are bound to them. In addition, universities offer career structures and paths, which provides a frame for academic careers and promotions (Article I: Siekkinen et al. 2016). The relationship between academic professionals and their universities is also an employment relationship. This perspective emphasise the power of an employer over the employees, respectively.

Around Europe, universities have been subjected to many reforms. These reforms have commonly increased the autonomy of universities from the state and changed the relationship between academics and their employers. In Chapter 1.1 I already described this process in the Finnish context, when academics are not civil servants anymore, but instead they have working contracts and an "employee – employer" relationship with their universities. Becoming "ordinary" employees and being suddenly managed and controlled by universities in a more string manner changed the nature of academic work drastically (Kallio et al. 2015; Kivistö, Pekkola & Lyytinen 2017; Kuoppala et al. 2015). Universities increasingly control the work of academic professionals to be more efficient (e.g. Kallio et al. 2015). Evetts (2009) states that the values and principles of the profession and the organisation are commonly inconsistent (see also Article III: Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019), as the profession guards its autonomy while the organisation pursues to control it.

In some studies, the concept of institutional logics have been used to describe the differences between organisation and profession. Canhilal, Lepori and Seeber (2016) addressed the conflicted professional and managerial logics in their study to examine differences between European universities, particularly with respect to their decision-making. In the context of higher education, the logics of the profession and the organisation have been described as conflicted. In general, there is logic multiplicity existing in many organisations, which is causing tensions inside organisations (Besharov and Smith 2014). Thorton and Ocasio (1999, 804) define institutional logics as "socially constructed, historical patterns of material practices, assumptions, values, beliefs and rules". Brukmann and Carvalho (2018) describe the phenomenon of change in higher education institutions using the definition of archetypes in their research, where they describe these two conflicted dimensions as 'collegial archetype' and 'managerial archetype' (see more in the next chapter).

To build on studies on sociology of professions and research on professions and organisations, the conflicting relationship between the values and principles of the profes-

sion and organisation are visible. The special relationship between them have gained increasingly research interest, partly because professional activities are currently taking place mostly in organisational settings (Muzio & Kirkpatrick 2011; Pekkola et al. 2018a). The professionalism has been influenced by NPM and changed towards a more controlled one, being more tied to organisational goals and effected by its discourses (Evetts 2011).

Evetts (2009) construes this change occurring in professionalism influenced by NPM from *occupational professionalism* towards more *organisational professionalism* (see Table 1 below). *Occupational professionalism* is manifested by the discourse that is constructed within professional groups and it is characterised e.g. by a collegial authority, relations based on trust, and control operationalised by practitioners themselves. Moreover, it is guided by the codes of professional ethics. However, new *organisational professionalism* is manifested by the discourse of control that is used by the managers of organisations. It involves rational-legal forms of authority, standardised work processes and practices, hierarchical structures in authority and decision-making, and performance reviews and accountability. (Evetts 2009.)

This dichotomy gives us tools for the analysis of the transformation of professionalism influenced by the NPM. Furthermore, Evetts showed in her research how the professionalism is being changed by NPM and how the professional groups resist the change (2009; 2011). These aspects of a *change* and *continuity* with respect to the academic profession were considered in the Article III (Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019). That study suggested that there are both perspectives incorporated simultaneously in the academic profession, and thus, it can be described as hybrid. In higher education they both are important for the future of higher education (Tight 2014).

Table 1. *Organisational and occupational professionalism (adapted from Evetts 2009)*

Organisational professionalism	Occupational professionalism
Discourse of control used increasingly by managers in work organizations	Discourse constructed within professional groups
Rational-legal forms of authority	Collegial authority
Standardised procedures	Discretion and occupational control of the work
Hierarchical structures of authority and decision making	Practitioner trust by both clients and employers
Managerialism	Controls operationalised by practitioners
Accountability and externalised forms of regulation, target setting and performance review	Professional ethics monitored by institutions and associations
Linked to Weberian models of organisation	Located in Durkheim's model of occupations as moral communities

2.3.4 Hybridism and connected professionals – combining the aspects of the profession and the organisation

Hybridism is an interesting idea and phenomenon that has previously been studied mainly in the area of public administration and organisational research. Johanson & Vakkuri (2018) describe in their book how to manage organisations that are not 'private' or 'public' but rather hybrid by their nature. They used universities as an example of what kind of issues can arise in performance evaluations in hybrid organisations as there are many stakeholders included, and questions such as "how is the performativity of universities produced?" arise (Johanson & Vakkuri 2018, 137).

Currently, this phenomenon of hybridism has been acknowledged also in professional work. In the area of nursing, Carvalho (2014) has studied how nurses incorporate traditional and new norms in their professionalism. In turn, Gullbrandsen (2011) has studied the hybrid nature of research institutes, which operate on the interface between science and non-science and hold a position between public and private organisation. Noordegraaf (2007, 773-775) introduced the idea of hybridised professionalism where "professionals know how to operate in organised, interdisciplinary settings that cannot be organised easily". Furthermore, Noordegraaf (2015, 2) also described how hybrid professionalism that includes organisational and professional aspects can be intertwined in daily practices. He summarises the development of combining professional and organisational logics as follows (ibid. 14):

1. *Pure professionalism,* aimed at restoring a traditional professional logic, free from and protected against managerial logics.
2. *Controlled professionalism,* aimed at disciplining professional work within organisational settings and structures.
3. *Managed professionalism,* aimed at hybridising professional/organisational logics, in terms of structures, systems and roles.
4. *Organising professionalism,* aimed at going beyond hybridity, especially by embedding organising and organising roles and capacities within professional action.

The first two models represent the pure logics of the profession and the organisation. The third model is the hybrid combining the professional and organisational logics, and the fourth is beyond hybridity; "Whereas hybrid professionalism is 'meaningfully managed professional work', the move beyond hybridity implies new forms of professionalism in which organizing becomes part of professional work and repertoires" (Noordegraaf 2015, 12).

Noordegraaf's ideas on hybrid professionalism can be applied well into higher education research, where the phenomenon of hybridism is still considered only in a few studies (see Bruckmann & Carvalho 2018; Lepori 2016; Pekkola et al., forthcoming). However, one has to keep in mind that the idea of hybridism in the context of universities is not so new after all; already Clark introduced in his famous triangle of coordination that hybrid principles exists. He described how the power of academic oligarchy, market, and state vary in different national contexts regarding the coordination of higher education, and thus creates different kind of national higher education systems (Clark 1983).

In the study by Bruckmann and Carvalho (2018) the theoretical framework of architypes was applied to study organisational change in higher education. They combined collegial and managerial architypes as an efficient-collegial architype, which is characterised, for example, by efficient collective decision-making and autonomy with accountability. This efficient-collegial architype might represent an ideal-type when both aspects, collegial and managerial, are combined in higher education institutions. (Brukmann and Carvalho 2018.) In addition, in Article III the idea of the hybrid academic profession was addressed (Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019) when some good consequences related to organisational practices, such as clearer career paths and more transparent salary progression emerged. In universities, hybrid values and practices might have good consequences with respect to academic work.

In higher education, hybridism is increasingly emerging as something that is being "nested". As Pekkola et al. describe this, hybridism occurs on many levels: system level, university level, in the positions of academics, as well as in their work and identities. The hybrid practices on different levels are embedded and interconnected, as they reflect changes that occur simultaneously on other levels. (Pekkola et al. forthcoming.)

Later Noordegraaf developed his ideas about hybridism further and introduced the concept of *protected and connected professionalism*, where professionalism is reconfigured (Noordegraaf 2019). Professional work is becoming connected to not only the organisation but other stakeholders as well. The nature of professionalism will be affected since professional work is increasingly done in close collaboration with external stakeholders. Therefore the expertise, autonomy, and authority of professionals are affected and configurated; more connected than protected and controlled solely by the professional group (Noordegraaf 2019). With respect to the academic profession, being affected by many stakeholders is currently a reality. For example, in the article of Vellamo et al. (2019) the authors provide an example of universities multiple stakeholders in case of technical universities. These stakeholders include student, academics, institution, industry, and region/nation.

2.4 Academic profession affected by the organisation

2.4.1 Academics' new roles and blended identities

The roles related to the both, profession and organisation are being mixed in academics' daily work. As a consequence, this process changes the identities of academics as well. Evetts (2011, 412) has described how "Organisational principles, strategies and methods are deeply affecting most professional occupation and expert group, transforming their identities, structures and practices".

Identity is structured in the social processes of strong and stable communities (Henkel 2005). Identity is not a stable but rather a responsive project, as it is being constructed, deconstructed and reconstructed in the context of many collectivities and relationships (Giddens 1991; Henkel 2010). Identity is related to work roles of academics and understandings of what it means to be an academic (Ylijoki and Ursin 2013; 2015). These roles have transformed as higher education has expanded its functions. Traditionally academics work either in academic roles or administrative/managerial roles supporting the first (Whitchurch 2008). In addition, one can specialise in one or more areas in one's career (Tight 2012.) The diversifying academic work entails a great variety of new tasks.

The work within universities has also been divided into "academic" and "non-academic" work, meaning the difference between research/teaching versus administration and management. These boundaries between "academic" and "non-academic" work are becoming blurred, however. The number of "third space professionals", who are working as professionals in managerial or administrative roles but also combining academic roles in their work, is increasing. The work of these professionals is related to preparing and supporting organisational change and decision-making for the management, establishing new services, or developing the existing ones, for example. These professionals can be found working at different levels of universities. (Kehm 2015; Whitchurch 2008.)

In addition to these classifications, academics can be divided based on whether they hold a management position or not. This question is not directly related to the academic career stages, however, since not all professors have a management position and not all managers are professors. Deem (2004) has referred to this group as *manager-academics*. The institutional change has strengthened their role, and their number has increased in universities (Carvalho & Santiago 2010; Kekäle 2003). Evetts (2011, 412-413) have argued that "when service sector professionals have proved enduringly difficult to manage and resistant to change, the important part of the strategy became to recreate professionals as managers --- the discourse of enterprise becomes linked with discourses of professionalism, quality, customer service". In universities, this would mean that professors are made manager-academics so that academics would be easier to manage.

Currently, at least in some universities, some of these managers, such as deans, might have been recruited from the business sector without any academic experience (Deem 2004). Top-managers are also currently *appointed*, not *elected* (Kehm 2015). Deem (2004) emphasises that managing academics is very different from managing industrial workers. This is because, first, the loyalty of academics is not directed mainly at the organisation, but rather at the discipline (see also Clark 1987). Second, academic work is typically conducted individually, though teamwork is rather common as well. Third, academics are trained to think critically and they are applying this skill also towards the managers. (Deem 2004.) All these factors, along with academic freedom, make academics, especially professors, a challenging group to manage (Evetts 2011; Carvalho & Diogo 2017).

Furthermore, manager-academics are standing out as a group that is rather different compared to other academics. Pekkola et al. (2018b) found out that professors with a management position emphasised organisational values and practices based on them, such as control and performance management, more than professors without a management position (see also Evetts 2009.) Furthermore, a considerable challenge of managing academic work is related to the new culture of evaluation. Managers are now confronted with widening areas of responsibilities: Besides monitoring budgets and finance, they also have to control the performance of academic staff more carefully (Deem 2004; Kallio et al. 2015).

Academic identity can also be related to the membership of the group or an organisation. The academic profession includes various subgroups and therefore it does not necessarily offer a strong base for a stable group identity. However, academic professionals share some common values (Clark 1987; Teichler 2010). Organisational identity is not commonly very strong for academics, who are often more committed to their discipline than to their university (Clark 1987). However, the organisational change, during a university merger, for example, can be perceived as a threat among academics towards their disciplinary identity (Vellamo et al., forthcoming; Ylijoki & Ursin 2015).

The identities and understandings of what it means to be an academic are becoming increasingly diversified and polarised. This is influenced by many changes in higher education, as some academics feel that they have won, and some that they have lost in the new, more competitive environment. (Ylijoki and Ursin 2013; 2015.) Related to this, Välimaa (1998) emphasised that there are many layers in academic identity, which are used in different social interactive situations.

Consequently, as academic work and roles are widening and becoming blurred (Musselin 2007a; Whitchurch 2008; 2010; Henkel 2010) so are the identities, as academics combine different academic, managerial, and entrepreneurial roles in their work. Whitchurch (2010) addresses the implications of private/public spaces for professional identities and calls academics who are mixing these two roles and identities in their work as "blended

professionals". Lam (2010) describes how the entrepreneurial roles have currently been highlighted by referring to a transformation of academics from the "ivory tower traditionalists" to "entrepreneurial scientists". However, the change is not a process from one identity to another but more mixed. Jain, George and Mataric (2009) showed in their article that academics involved in technology transfer adopted a hybrid role identity, comprising an academic self as a focal, with a secondary commercial persona. In addition, being in a role of a manager-academic entails "incorporating managerial as well as academic values", which creates tension in their work and their identities (Henkel 2000, 247; see also Pekkola et al. 2018b; Santiago & Carvalho 2010).

In her book, Henkel (2000) found out that particularly academics' teaching identities are subjected to changes, especially those related to massification, changing relationships with the labour markets, and new curriculum structures. Research identities are bound to the discipline in particular. In Henkel's research, academics were "holding on to their values and the control of their research and scholarship agendas". (Henkel 2000, 208.) The disciplinary 'home' is the most central membership for the academic professionals (Clark 1987).

The disciplinary culture is a popular way to see and analyse the culture in higher education (Välimaa 1998). From the cultural viewpoint, in the university there are many "small worlds" instead of one, homogenous culture, as Clark observed in 1987. With these "small worlds", Clark referred to the different disciplinary realities within universities. The discipline forms our way of thinking, what kind of questions we ask, and how we try to find solutions to them. Disciplines construct universities to faculties where teaching and research are conducted, and therefore it still forms the basic structure of the university. (Clark 1987, see also Ylijoki 2004.)

In his book "Academic Tribes and Territories" (1989), Becher described the diverse disciplinary cultures. According to him, the disciplines form their own "tribes" which operate in their own "territories", and thus form a base of academic life: "In its very nature, being a member of a disciplinary community involves a sense of identity and personal commitment" (ibid., 24). These tribes have their own traditions, ways of working, and ways of creating knowledge. (Becher 1994; 1989.)

Becher studied the characteristics of the discipline, the epistemological issues, career patterns, reputation and rewards, professional activity and value systems. Based on these characteristics, he made a distinction between hard and soft, and pure and applied disciplines. In these ideal-types, the hard sciences represent physics, chemistry, pharmacy, and mathematics. Soft sciences represent history, languages, and sociology. Three disciplines in his research can be classified as applied: engineering, pharmacy and law. Sociology and physics, for example, represented the pure type. Based on these dimensions, he formed four categories: "hard-pure", "soft-pure", "hard-applied", and "soft applied". They catego-

rise disciplines by the way of working, creating knowledge, publishing patterns etc. which can be used as ideal-types and heuristic tools to increase our understanding on disciplinary differences. (Becher 1989; 1994.)

Academic roles and identities become mixed, as work tasks of academic professionals have become wider in their changing organisational context. Some sources of academic identities, such as discipline, have remained rather powerful. However, the disciplinary boundaries in academic work have been breaking, as transdisciplinary collaboration between academics from different disciplinary backgrounds and non-academics is becoming common way of doing research (Tress et al. 2005).

2.4.2   The shifting academic work culture

Collegial aspects are seen as a basis of the academic professionals work, which has been challenged within new institutional frames when "professionality is replaced by accountability; collegiality by competition and interpersonal performative comparison" (Ball 1997, 261). Collegiality can be approached in different ways. If we take a narrow perspective to it, collegiality is seen as a co-operative, discipline-based aspect of academics' work "— refereeing papers, marking theses, serving on professional bodies, editing journals, organising and attending conferences" (Brett, 1997, 19). By examining the collegiality from the aspect of management, the issue is the new culture that appears to understate the traditional collegial basis of academic decision-making that has now been challenged by the managerial way of managing academic work that emphasises centralised decision-making bodies and strong management (Burnes, Wend & By 2014; Deem 2004).

In a broader aspect, these perspectives are combined and collegiality is accounted as the traditional cultural basis of academic work. Collegiality is a course of actions that define the principles and values forming the basis of the academic world. It is a process where all members of the academic community participate as equal, and it is based on argumentation, critical discussion and assessment made by peers. (Välimaa 2018.)

However, Välimaa (2018, 355) emphasises that collegiality, as a course of action, has a political aspect as well and it can include problematic ways of doing. As Clark noted (1983, 202) "the collegial group, if long possessed by oligarchical powers, can develop all the ills of the closed systems – walling off internal demands, ignoring changes in environment, and substituting local and particularistic criteria for general ones in judging performance." Therefore, collegiality in a very closed group, ruled by the small group of professors, can isolate itself from being reflective with respect to the changing environment. Furthermore, collegiality is also considered as something that existed in the elite-university within small academic communities. After the massification, when the number of academic staff and

students increased dramatically, the relations between academics and students changed their forms. (Clark 2001; Burnes, Wend & By 2014.)

In spite of its problems, collegiality supports the commitment of university employees to take part in the development of the university, and the goals of its actions. (Välimaa 2018.) The lack of collegiality alienates academics from universities and its decision-making. It has been studied that it also decreases the perceived job commitment and satisfaction (Burnes, Wend & By 2014).

The shift towards the more evaluating and competitive culture has been clear in universities during the past decade, and it concerns all academics in a very concrete way. The different kind of practices of research and teaching evaluation can be found in many European universities (Morary et al. 2015). Evaluation in academic work in Finland has meant that universities have introduced different kind of indicators and quantitative targets that are developed to monitor and steer the work of academics (Kallio et al. 2015). In research, academics are pushed to publish in the most prestige journals (in Finland, the JUFO categories are used to rate journals, see: Publication forum 2018). Student satisfaction surveys have been introduced to evaluate teaching performance. These ways of evaluating academic work by universities are also means to evaluate the performance of universities by the government. The funding formula for Finnish universities includes many indicators that are applied to measure the outputs of universities and allocate governmental funding based on them (MEC 2018).

The evaluations have increasingly been used to assess the performance of individual academics during their career. New career models such as tenure track that is increasingly being applied in European universities, includes cyclic and continuing evaluation (Henningsson et al 2017; Pietilä 2015; Välimaa et al. 2016). Academic careers are becoming closer to meritocratic systems. As the 'meritocratic' means that if the system works, "everyone has an equal chance to advance and obtain rewards based on their individual merits and efforts, regardless of their gender, race, class, or other non-merit factors" (Castilla & Benard 2010, 544). Meritocracy is believed to enhance the careers of women and ethnic minorities in universities. However, there are challenges within the system and good intentions can lead to opposite outcomes. Problems may arise if the organisation is advertising itself as being very meritocratic, but simultaneously, its managers can be blind to their own hidden attitudes and stereotypical beliefs (Castilla & Benard 2010).

A fair evaluation requires good indicators. However, these quantitative indicators are perceived to suit poorly for evaluating academic work. On the organisational level, the rich content of academic work is not always visible and therefore it is also hard to measure (e.g. Musselin 2007b). As a consequence, only those activities that can be measured are measured (the amount of publications, number of students etc.) and eventually those things are also produced (Kallio et al. 2015; Kallio, Kallio & Grossi 2017). As Kallio et al. (2015, 6)

describe, implementing the system of the performance management in university means constructing reality in academia, and in the end, "you get what you measure".

Measuring the outputs also treats disciplines differently; the impact of hard sciences is easy to verify. However, in social sciences and humanities, implications can occur during a long time period and a direct impact, particularly any kind of correlation, is extremely challenging to confirm (see e.g. Muhonen, Benneworth & Olmos-Peñuela 2018).

Competition has negative consequences on academia, which many of them are still unrecognised. Naidoo (2016) states that "universities worldwide are trapped in a competition fetish", and competition "is perceived as an independent force that is viewed as a 'natural phenomenon'", and thus no-one is responsible of its negative consequences (ibid. 1).

> This means that holistic performance is not accounted for. Competition also simplifies and de-contextualises, placing people and institutions in precise hierarchy. This cloaks the diversity of higher education and makes the support of institutions with diverse missions more difficult to sustain. (Naidoo 2016, 7)

Furthermore, an excessive competition reduces the diversity of activities when actors are pushing to produce outputs that are specifically measured. For example, research is more valued than teaching, due to the influence of global competition where research outputs are highlighted in evaluations (Naidoo 2016).

As Evetts (2009) addresses in her framework on occupational and organisational professionalism (see table 1, page 35 in chapter 2.3.3), the principles and practices of the profession and organisation are sometimes being conflicted. That is the case also in universities, as academic professionals are holding on to their traditional collegial processes and universities are aiming to replace them with managerial ones. However, sometimes the managerial practices have increased the transparency in professional work when collegial decision-making can be more closed (see also Evetts 2018).

2.4.3   Career structures and recruitments of academic professionals in universities

The academic career combines the perspectives and motivations of the organisation (the university), the individual (the academic), as well as the profession (the discipline) (Article I: Siekkinen et al. 2016). In addition, the national framework influences on the career structures of universities in each country. When we examine academic careers, this complex context and different interests of various actors and groups have to be taken into ac-

count while not forgetting the analysis of the academic labour markets, which have been in transition (see more: Musselin 2004; 2005).

Universities are offering structures where academics can perform their work and proceed in their careers. Universities implement HRM practises to monitor their staff and recruitments, aiming to support the careers of the most prominent academics, and recruit the best ones. Careers are also significant for the professional group, because through them the academic profession is reproduced. From the aspect of an individual, academics make career choices based on their personal motivation and professional identities. (see Article I: Siekkinen et al. 2016; see also Goastellec et al. 2013.)

Well-working and functional career structures and promotion systems are significant for both; the academic profession and universities. There are commonly two kinds of career advancement systems applied in universities. The first one is the competition system, which means that an academic who wishes to proceed in her/his career, has to compete against other candidates when applying for an open position. This has been the common way of career progression in European universities. The second system is the promotion system which has been common in universities in the U.S. In this system, the performance of academic is evaluated, commonly based on a certain set of criteria and if they are fulfilled, the academic can be promoted to the next stage of a career. (Frølich et al. 2018; Musselin 2004; 2005.) The competition system is less coherent, and it is currently being standardised and restructured in many countries. The promotion system, i.e. the tenure track is more structured and applied increasingly also in many European universities. However, universities often apply the hybrid model combining these two systems in their academic recruitments.

Previously in European universities, the structure of the academic career followed the rather unstructured, traditional way: beginning as a young academic, then moving to a middle rank position, and finally some are eligible to progress to the position of a professor (Goastellec et al. 2013). In Finland, as in many other countries, this way of seeing the academic career was considered too unclear and unstructured, there were too many titles in use in universities, and it was claimed to offer too few opportunities for career advancement and rewards. (MEC 2008; Välimaa et al. 2016).

The more standardised career structure that was introduced by the European Science Foundation (2009) and by MEC in Finland (2008) was the four-stage career model (see also LERU 2010). Universities started to standardise their career structures, guided by the national and international policy-makers. The four-stage career model in Finland includes the following stages, which follows the European ones as well (LERU 2010; Välimaa et al. 2016): 1. Doctoral student, 2. Postdoctoral researcher, 3. University researcher / lecturer, 4. Professor / research director.

With this career structure, Finnish universities were aiming at a clearer and more rewarding career structure (MEC 2008; Välimaa et al. 2016). The four-stage career model was

evaluated in Finland in 2015 and the conclusion was that it had been applied in Finnish universities rather well and offered especially a tool for the university administration to manage their staff better. Still there were some challenges related to it: the career progression was still based mainly on applying for open positions, and the career model did not recognise all academic staff working in Finnish universities (especially those researchers who were working with a grant). (Välimaa et al. 2016.)

In the four-stage career model in Finnish universities, most of the academics are situated at the first stage. In addition to PhD students, universities place also those researchers who do not have a PhD degree yet on the first stage. The second stage of an academic career is the postdoctoral phase that forms "a bottleneck" because the competition for research funding is tough after completing a PhD degree. If an academic is successful to receive funding and continues their career in the second stage, the transfer to the third stage continues to be challenging to accomplish. Some postdoctoral researches are doing several postdoctoral periods in a row without opportunities to progress to the third stage. If the access to the third stage unfolds, the position often guarantees a permanent working contract. However, the third stage is crowded since there are rarely positions open at the fourth stage, in a professorial position. (Välimaa et al. 2016.)

Even though the previous paragraphs described the situation in Finnish universities specifically, the trends and challenges are rather similar all over Europe: permanent academic positions are rarely open and the path to a more stable position is a challenging one, taking a lot of time and effort. Especially the transitions from lower to upper career stages are perceived difficult. Even if the trends are similar and the academic careers are composed of similar phases (young researchers, mid-ranking staff, and the professoriate), the specific academic career structures and titles that are used in different stages differ between countries. (e.g. Brechelmacher et al. 2015; Frølich et al. 2018; Goastellec et al. 2013; Kwiek &Antonowicz 2015.) It is also important to note that career structures are not static but constantly being restructured and changed in various national contexts (e.g. Eurydice 2017; Frølich et al. 2018).

To be able to develop more rewarding career structures and to offer a clearer and more predictable career path towards a professorship and therefore to attract and recruit top researches, European universities have introduced a tenure-track career structure (LERU, 2014), which is increasingly applied in European universities. However, its organisational implementations are different when in universities it includes two to five stages (e.g. Frølich et al. 2018; Henningson, Jörnesten & Geschwind 2017; Pietilä 2015; Välimaa et al. 2016).

The tenure track -model has been a shift towards a culture where academics are constantly being evaluated by their (research) outputs. Regarding the career progression, in a central place there are the criteria, which fulfilment is being monitored by the university. If the criteria are being fulfilled, the researcher is transferred to the next stage of the tenure

track. (Henningson, Jörnesten & Geschwind 2017; LERU 2014; Pietilä 2015; Välimaa et al 2016.). Even though the tenure-track career model has traditionally not been applied in European universities until recently, "tenure" has meant a guaranteed autonomy and job security for permanent, senior academic staff. It has also been a sign for social prestige and status. This has changed, as in many countries also professors have been hired on fixed-term basis and even permanent ones can be dismissed. (Enders 2000, 12-14.) With tenure tracks, universities are binding future professors more clearly to their strategic areas; tenure tracks are means of implementing the strategy for universities (Pietilä 2015).

In North America, tenure has traditionally been used to ensure the academic freedom and provide job security for academic staff. There, the tenure track has been a common career model, including three steps (beginning right after obtaining a PhD degree): assistant professor, associate professor and tenured professor. However, lately its base has been cracking, as universities have been calling for more flexible working contracts for academics, and the number of full-time and tenure-track jobs has been decreasing, especially in public research universities (Ehrenberg 2012). The number of the so-called contingent faculty, meaning usually those who are working part-time, has been rising. "The prevailing neoliberal public policy agenda holds that job security is a thing of the past, health and retirement benefits are increasingly unaffordable perks, and the need to be 'responsive' to 'the market' requires managerial 'flexibility'"(Rhoades 2008, 12).

The current development in universities with respect to academic career structures has shifted towards more standardised and monitored processes that permit career opportunities in universities only for the most prominent researchers. This development creates the new "elite" in universities, when some have better opportunities to perform their work with desirable resources, and have a clear career path upwards, while others have to bear with scarce resources, insecurity, and unclear career paths ("core" and "periphery", as Kimber 2003, put it). Even though the position of this "elite" has been changing to being more insecure as well (e.g. Enders 2000). As Baruch (1998, no page) describes the way of thinking in organisations: "It is no longer 'people are our most important asset', but 'fewer people are our most important asset'".

Furthermore, alongside with the standardisation of career structures, other HRM processes have been standardised as well, such as recruitments. Recruitments form the most significant activities of universities since the staff is their key asset, as well as their most costly resource (Enders 2000, 3). Rasmussen (2015) asked in his study why the recruitment processes did not produce staff who could teach in his university in sociology. The reasons he found were influenced by reforms in Norwegian higher education. After these reforms, only international publications were emphasised in recruitments and as a result, recruited academics were good in publishing but bad at teaching (see also Välimaa et al. 2016). Musselin (2013a) also noticed that local recruitments have nowadays a more neg-

ative connotation (e.g. "inbreeding" [Horta 2013]) and by contrast, hiring international staff "is considered as an evidence for performance, reputation and quality (if not excellence)" (Musselin 2013a, 29).

The new processes of recruitments are said to be more professional, transparent, and securing the equal treatment of all applicants, since they are based on the ideology of meritocracy (Castilla & Benard 2010). However, new processes include challenges as well, as there are conflicts of interest involved. As mentioned before, recently the power of academics has decreased while the power of managers has increased in universities (Deem 1998; 2004) and this shift concerns the processes related to recruitments as well. However, in lower-stage recruitments, the power of manager-academics is still substantial. (Article II: Siekkinen, Pekkola & Kivistö 2016 and Article III: Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019).

2.4.4   Is there reciprocal commitment in academic careers? – The world of projects and insecure funding

It is proven that work engagement and commitment of employees have a positive influence on both individual and organisational level (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopolou 2007; Meyer & Hercovitch 2001). Commitment is regarded as a stabilising force that binds individuals to a course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001). A much-studied aspect is "an organizational commitment" that studies the employees' commitment towards the organisation (e.g. Meyer and Allen 1991; Baruch 1998; Cohen 2007). Baruch (1998) noted already almost twenty years ago, that organisational commitment benefits both sides, but it seems that organisations have forgotten their commitment towards their employees, and therefore there is no strong basis for reciprocal commitment anymore (Baruch 1998). Academics are generally highly committed to their work but the aspect of the employers, reciprocal dimension of the commitment, is challenging to study. Firstly, it is difficult to define, who the employer in university is: the head of faculty, dean, rector, or the faceless university. Secondly, the reciprocity is challenging aspect to study in academic careers, as research funding is competitive and highly challenging to achieve, and thus the continuity of a career is commonly insecure for the reasons, in which universities are sometimes unable to influence (see Article I: Siekkinen et al. 2016).

The working conditions in academic work are important when aiming at supporting the high quality of academic work and the success of the universities. From the perspective of organisational success, the human talent is significant (Tung 2008). Particularly in universities the staff has a central position as they are connected to all central university activities (Baruch, 2013; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). Furthermore, as Drucker (1999,

83-84) emphasises, "knowledge-worker productivity requires that the knowledge worker is both seen and treated as an 'asset' rather than a 'cost'."

Precarious work is usually referred to an employment that is "uncertain, unpredictable, and risky from the point of view of the worker". It has spread to concern also professional and managerial work (Kalleberg 2009, 2, 6). The change in universities' funding scheme from a more stable budget-based funding towards a project-based funding has had a concrete influence on the employment contracts of academics. In universities, fragmented funding and short, fixed-term employment contracts have caused the increasing sense of insecurity to academics all over the world (see Article I: Siekkinen et al. 2016, as well as: Aarnikoivu et al. 2019; Brechelmacher et al. 2015; Kwiek & Antonowicz 2015; Kuoppala et al. 2015; Ryan 2012; Santiago & Carvalho 2008; Ylijoki 2010).

It has been questioned whether it is even possible to talk about 'careers' for early-career researchers, if the work contracts are short, the future is uncertain, and the funding is fragmented (Välimaa 2005). Maybe we should talk about "jobs" instead. However, if "careers" are considered to be characterised merely by permanent contracts, that would narrow down the object of study to only senior academics with a more stable position. This would give a wrong impression, since the professional development of academics starts many years in advance and their contribution to the research production is valuable from the beginning (Begín-Caouette, Jansson & Beaupré-Lavallée 2018).

2.4.5 Gender in academic careers – academics call for change to their working culture

Women's disadvantageous position in academia has been acknowledged many years and academics have demanded for more transparent and equal working conditions and opportunities for career promotion. The issue has been the low representation of women in some disciplines and in high career positions in general. It has been conceptualised, for example, as a "glass ceiling" that means women are facing an invisible ceiling when trying to progress in their careers towards senior positions (Jackson & O´Callaghan 2009). A "leaky pipeline" means that women are leaking out from academia in every step of their careers more than men are (Goulden, Mason & Frasch 2011).

Globally, the share of women academics in universities has increased steadily (Wotipka, Nakagawa & Svec 2018), as well as in Europe where the trend has been clear in past fifteen years, leading to the current situation where the share of women is around 40 % of academics. However, the differences between countries are very clear, especially when examining the share of women professors that varies between 15 – 30 % (Eurydice 2017). In Finnish universities, women are clearly underrepresented in technical fields and natural sciences,
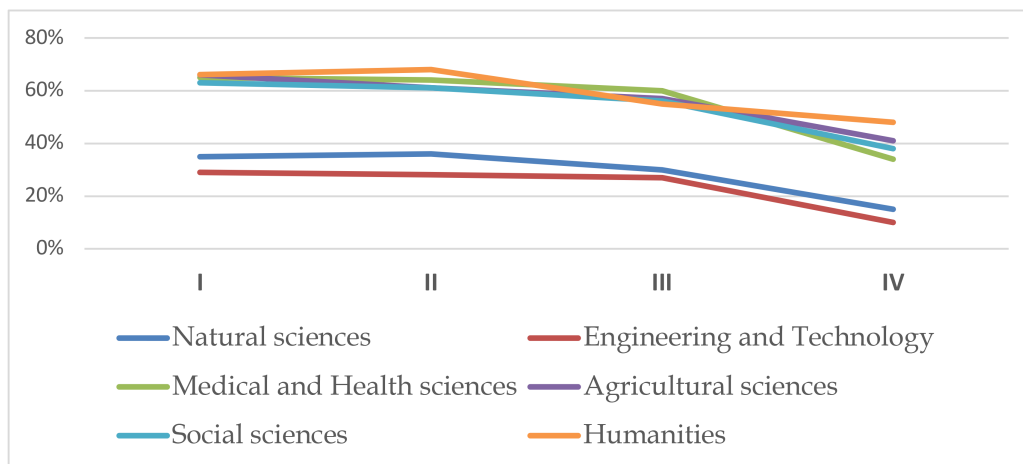
Figure 1   *The share of women in different career stages by disciplines from all performed person-years in Finnish universities in 2018 (source: Vipunen)*

and in the fourth career stage in general. However, the trend is that the share of women is increasing in the fourth career stage: in Finland in 2010, it was 25 percent whereas in 2017 it had already increased to 30 percent (Vipunen 2018). This trend is partly related to the slow regeneration of professors; in a couple of European countries the share of 50 to 60-year-old academics is over 40 % of all academics (Eurydice 2017).

At the organisational level, the issues are related to the unequal treatment of women in recruitments and salaries, as women have lower salaries in many countries (also in Finnish universities). In addition, there are differences in work contracts between genders: Women are working on fixed-term contracts more often than men are as women's careers are more influenced by family responsibilities. Women are also underrepresented especially in tenure track positions and particularly when recruitments are based on invitations (and are influenced by networks). (Nokkala et al. 2019; Pekkola et al. 2015; Pinheiro et al. 2015; Välimaa et al. 2016.)

Academia is also described as being masculine and supporting the masculine culture where women face different kind of challenges to fit in and take part in academic activities (Carvalho & Machado 2010; Fotaki 2013; Huopalainen & Satama 2018; Leathwood & Read 2009; Nikunen 2014; Piñheiro et al. 2015). In their study, Nokkala et al. (2016) found out that women feel strategic networking in academic context more unnatural than men. In their article, Huopalainen and Satama (2018) described how current university, characterised by entrepreneurialism, efficiency, and evaluation, is incompatible with motherhood that requires a significant share of mothers' resources.

Furthermore, Huopalainen & Satama (2018) address the question of mobility, which is considered important for academics regarding gaining networks, but it is challenging especially for mothers to accomplish. Following the same theme, Nokkala et al. (2019) discuss the differences between national gender regimes, academic careers, and mobility in Finland and Switzerland. They found out that differences in national gender polities have had an influence on women's careers and the attitudes towards mobility on an individual level. However, as Lund (2012) pointed out that even many studies have shown that women are disadvantages in comparison to men in a 'New Research Economy', we should not be making generalising conclusions based solely on gender. Women are still positioned differently, and not all women are disadvantaged in relation to the new performance measurements in universities.

The aspect of gender is a complex issue. Responses to it in the academic context exemplifies the power of the academic profession as academics stand for gender equality and call for change to the traditional academic structures that are discriminatory for women. In general, organisational processes have changed to be more transparent, as Evetts (2018) has said. However, organisational answers, such as meritocratic processes are blind to certain structural discrimination. Meritocratic processes rely on quantified assessment, which do not recognise discriminating processes at the level concrete work tasks (questions such as who is able to concentrate on research and who is involved more in teaching and administrative tasks. See more e.g.: Bizopoulou 2019) either structural ones in the level of the society. Universities have developed 'one-size-fits-all' -structures, that might be 'good for some but bad for many', meaning that standardisation creates clear structures that benefits some researchers but at the same time, diversity is forgotten (Article III: Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019; see also Evetts 2011).

3
Aims of the study and research questions

The overall aim of this doctoral dissertation is to examine the changing relationship between the academic profession and universities. Furthermore, the research questions are:

1. How the relationship between the academic profession and universities has changed in Finnish higher education? (Articles I, II and III)

2. How the global trends have influenced universities and the work, roles and identities of academic professionals in Finland? (Articles I, II and III)

These questions are addressed in three empirical sub-studies, which are all independent studies with their own specific aims. In these articles, the changing relationship between the academic profession and universities were examined in the context of the changing operational environment and global trends, particularly in the Finnish higher education.

In Article I (Siekkinen, Kuoppala, Pekkola & Välimaa 2016), the aim was to study whether there is a reciprocal commitment in academic careers and, furthermore, if the academic careers are precarious by the influence of global trends. The study address that academic careers are insecure as they are often based on short project-based funding. However, academics find their work highly meaningful and they are committed to their universities. Therefore, the reciprocity between academics and their universities is being questioned by academics.

In Article II (Siekkinen, Pekkola & Kivistö 2016), the aim was to study how the recruitments have changed after the universities have been influenced by global trends: NPM and managerialism. The results suggests that recruitment processes have been standardised in Finnish universities. However, lower-stage recruitments are still implemented commonly as unofficial way, and professors and especially deans have power in them.

In Article III (Siekkinen, Pekkola & Carvalho 2019), the aim was to study change and continuity in the academic profession in Finnish universities. The study suggests that there are both, changes and continuities in academic profession: academic professionalism has been changed by the influence of NPM and managerialism. However, academics also resist the change and they have power in universities. Both aspect, the profession and organisation occur simultaneously and form a hybrid academic profession, where professional and organisational aspects co-exists.

Table 2. *The articles, main questions, and the perspective*

Article	Question	Perspective
Article I: Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends	Is there reciprocal commitment in academic careers between the employer and the employee?	Relationship between the academics and universities
Article II: Recruitments in Finnish universities: practicing strategic or pathetic HRM?	How have the recruitment practices changed in Finnish universities?	University organisation
Article III: Change and continuity in the academic profession: Finnish universities as living labs.	Are there changes and continuities in the academic profession?	Profession and organisation

4
Data and methods

The data of this doctoral dissertation was collected in two research projects, where the aims of the studies were related to this doctoral dissertation: universities, academic work and careers in Finnish universities. In both projects, I was working as a project researcher and my contribution to both of them was significant. These projects were:

1. The position and role of the fixed-term university researchers in a knowledge-based economy (in Finnish: Yliopistojen määräaikaisten tutkijoiden asema ja rooli tietotaloudessa). The project was conducted in the School of Management, the University of Tampere (current: Faculty of Management and Business, Tampere University) between 2013 and 2015. The project was funded by the Finnish Environment Fund. (Kuoppala et al. 2015)

    - Data (used in this doctoral dissertation): Electronically conducted survey, with open questions. Questions were related to fixed-term researchers' position in universities, how the precarious situation has affected in their work and personal lives, and have they considered leaving the university.

    - Aim of this study: to describe and analyse what the fixed-term researchers' position and role in a knowledge-based economy is.

    - Contribution: survey-planning; quantitative analysis of the survey-data; writing two chapters of the book, including the significant results of the project.

2. The evaluation of the four-stage career model in Finnish Universities (in Finnish: Neliportaisen tutkijanuramallin arviointihanke). The evaluation project was conducted in 2015 in collaboration with the Finnish Institute for Educational Research, the University of Jyväskylä, and the School of Management, the University of Tampere (current: Faculty of Management and Business, Tampere University). The project was funded by the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture, however, it was autonomously conducted by the project (Välimaa et al. 2016.)

- Data a) Electronically conducted survey. Questions were related to the strategic HRM, implementation of four-stage career model and tenure track model in Finnish universities, as well as recruitments.
- Data b) Interviews conducted in four Finnish Universities.
- Aim of the study: To scrutinise the introduction and implementation of the four-stage career model, and its suitability for aiming to clarify the career structures in Finnish Universities.
- Contribution: writing the funding application; project planning; planning the survey and interviews; conducting the survey and interviews; analysing the quantitative and qualitative data; writing the final report.

Table 3.   *Articles, data, respondents and methods.*

Article	Data	Respondents	Methods
Article I: Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends.	**Dataset 1:** Survey from the project: Fixed-term researchers' position in a knowledge economy (2013)	N= 810 Researchers who were working with a fixed-term contracts in Finnish universities	Quantitative (survey questions): descriptive analysis, ANOVA. Qualitative (open questions): direct content analysis.
Article II: Recruitments in Finnish universities: practicing strategic or pathetic HRM?	**Dataset 2:** Survey from the project: The evaluation of a four-stage career model in Finnish universities (2015)	N= 131 Middle-managers from four Finnish universities	Quantitative analysis: descriptive analysis.
Article III: Change and continuity in the academic profession: Finnish universities as living labs.	**Dataset 3**: Interviews from the project: The evaluation of a four-stage career model in Finnish universities (2015)	N=8 Group interviews, top and middle managers from four Finnish universities	Qualitative analysis: thinking with a theory, directs content analysis.

Dataset 1 consists of both quantitative and qualitative data, collected with an electronic survey. The survey had overall 810 respondents, with a response rate of 23 percent. The respondents represented all scientific fields, both genders, and different age groups. The study presented in Article I focused on researchers who have a doctoral degree and who are working on a fixed-term contract, mainly as postdoctoral researchers (n=204, 30 %) and university researchers and lecturers (n=104, 16%). These groups were central to our study because they have gained doctoral degrees and accomplished to proceed in their careers in some university. To study this group, they were compared with the group of doctoral students and project researchers who were 53 % of all respondents (n= 350).

From the survey, eight quantitative and one qualitative question were used. Through these questions, the respondents' perceptions on reciprocal commitment were studied. The methods of analysis that were used in the analysis of the quantitative data, were cross-tabulation (means, standard deviation), and Two-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), that was used to explore, how confident the researchers were considering the continuation of their careers at the university and how these perceptions were related to how meaningful they find their work. For the ANOVA-analysis, an aggregated variable "Meaningfulness of work" was formed (Cronbach's Alpha .702) that contained three questions from the survey.

In addition to using eight quantitative questions, one qualitative question from the survey was used. Answers were mostly written in Finnish but there were also some English responses. The length of the answers was varying from one sentence to a longer paragraph. The answers were coded inductively into four categories (see more about the direct content analysis from: Hsieh & Shannon 2005) (See more about the analysis and the results from the Article I).

Dataset 2 consists of quantitative data, collected with an electronic survey in summer 2015. It was sent to the deans and heads of the administration of faculties and to personnel managers and administrators responsible for personnel in the central administration of all Finnish universities. Most of the respondents were deans (N=47) and heads of administration (N=58). The response rate was 77% (N = 131). The survey was a part of the Evaluation of the Finnish Four-Stage Career Model project, funded by the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture. The questions of the survey were related to universities' strategic HRM, four-stage career and tenure track models and recruitments (See more descriptions of the survey from the Article II and from the report: Välimaa et al. 2016).

The data were analysed descriptively, to gain insight into the respondents' perceptions of the recruitment practices and policies in their units. Data from two questions on the specific responsibility of defining job descriptions and the roles and responsibilities in selection procedures in different career stages were collected only from the respondents who were the heads of administration in a faculty (or an equivalent unit) (n=58).

Dataset 3 consists of interview-data collected during the Evaluation of the Finnish Four-Stage Career Model project, as Dataset 2. The interviews were conducted in four Finnish, middle-sized and multidisciplinary universities. The interviews were carried out as semi-structured in four groups, where members were selected by their expertise regarding the implementation of the new academic career structures in their university. In this study, the responses of top- and middle-management university employees, including: rectors, vice rectors, and provosts (n=3); deans (n=7); chief administrators (n=2); personnel managers (n=5); and heads of administration (i.e. faculty managers) (n=5) were examined (total amount of the group interviews: 8). The interviews included questions about the implementation and objectives of the four-stage career model and the tenure-track models in Finnish universities (Välimaa et al. 2016).

Interviews were conducted in Finnish and they were transcribed afterwards. Data analysis was performed by using two methods: thinking the interview data with a theory (Jackson & Mazzei 2013), and direct content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon 2005). In both, the researcher is familiar with a prior research and theory from the subject, and the data is analysed by discussing with them. Data analysis started with reading all the interviews carefully, then selecting passages in which the interviewees described academic careers or professional activities in universities, especially regarding change and continuity; professional and managerial activities. Subsequently, these passages were categorised with a help of code-words, and compared to analytical categories (see Article III). These analytical categories were formed based on Evetts' theoretical framework on change and continuity in professionalism (2009; 2011).

These analysis methods were chosen to be applied in this doctoral dissertation, as they were offering suitable tools regarding the data that was used, and research questions of each empirical studies. This doctoral dissertation is phenomena-centred; it is aiming to describe the changing relationship between the academic profession and universities in Finnish higher education, and therefore it is not aiming to generalise. With a prior research, however, it is possible to link the empirical results of the articles to the wider discussions about changing higher education.

In spite of some limitations related to the secondary analysis, the situation offered benefits as well; as I was a project researcher in both projects, my knowledge of the projects and the data is profound. The secondary data also saves resources, as there is no need to collect the data (Kielcolt & Nathan 1985). Therefore, these projects gave me an opportunity to use three different kind of data sets and to study academic work from different perspectives, which would not have possible solely as a PhD student with no access to research projects' data (see also Heaton 2008). However, the data analysis is secondary data analysis and therefore it is used for a different purpose than for what it was initially commissioned; the original aims and research questions differ from the current ones, even though themes are related ('problem of the data fit') (Heaton 2008.)

5

Findings of the empirical sub-studies

This chapter will summarise the results of the three sub-studies that are included in this dissertation (Articles I, II and III). As described in the previous chapter, I have used both qualitative and quantitative data and analysis methods in my research, so it is conducted as a mixed-methods study. In addition, in my articles, I have used altogether three data sets that were collected in two projects.

5.1   STUDY I: Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends

In the first article (Article I), the nature of reciprocal commitment between the employer and the employee in the context of academic careers was studied. The data of the article were collected with an electronic survey from academics working with fixed-term employment contracts in eight Finnish universities.

The background of this study is the precarious situation of the fixed-term, early-career researchers working in universities. Academics are usually highly committed to their work and academic work is also regarded as highly meaningful, meaning that monetary rewards alone are not considered as the best way of rewarding the academics of doing good work. In addition, academics value the prestige and acknowledgements from the representatives of the academic peers.

In career, the aspect of an individual (employee) and of an organisation (employer) come together. Career structures are offered by the organisation; however, an individual is proceeding in those steps and performing the work. In the career negotiation, the offers and needs from the both sides; the organisation and the individual are taking into consideration. In academic careers, the discipline also plays a significant role. Furthermore, the changes in organisation's operational environment, as well as the changes in individual's social environment have an influence in the result of the career negotiation.

Commitment in career and work are studied rather much in the area of working-life research. Organisational commitment benefits both sides: organisations as well as the individual, and trust plays a central role in it. Based on the data, we can draw a conclusion that academics are committed to their work and also to their universities. The more senior the academic is, the more meaningful (s)he considers her/his work, and more likely (s)he considers that her/his career in the university will continue. In the open questions of the survey we asked whether the academics have considered leaving the university, and 48 % had considered and 27 % of respondents have done some concrete actions towards it. The most common reason they said as a reason for leaving was the precarious situation in the university.

This article provided an interesting starting point to explore the nature of reciprocity in academic careers. Additionally, we can consider the nature of commitment more carefully: What it is in the context of academic careers, who is the employer in university, and how the commitment of academics' changes towards their organisation and towards their scientific community during their career.

5.2   STUDY II: Recruitments in Finnish universities: practicing strategic or pathetic HRM?

In the second article (Article II), the recruitments in universities were considered. Universities' recruitments have changed; academic staff is now considered more as a strategic asset of universities. Therefore, academics that are recruited should fit better into the organisation's strategic goal, as well as support and implement them. Global trends such as managerialism and New Public Management (NPM) have changed universities to emphasise more efficiency, control, standardised structures, and strong management in their practices. Reinforced by these trends, as well as by the national reforms that have been supporting universities' transition to act as more independent employers, universities have started to implement their own Human Resource Management (HRM) policies. Recruitments are playing a central role in these new policies.

However, based on our study, universities still recruit people also in an informal way. We found out that academic staff can be divided into three different groups by the way they are recruited, i.e. how they are subject to different HRM practices, and how they are valued in universities by their strategic manner. These three groups are: 1) *Professional recruitments* that are based on an international, open call. Recruitments committees and external reviewers are commonly used. Job titles incorporate full professors and tenure track- professors. Contracts are permanent or fixed-term. 2) *Organisational recruitments*, which are also commonly based on international open call. Decisions are made commonly by rectors, heads of departments or deans. Contracts are permanent or fixed-term. *Qualifying positions* include doctoral students and postdoctoral researchers, *departmental positions* lecturers and senior researchers. 3) *Unofficial and local recruitments*, which are commonly informal and local, containing project researches. Working contracts are fixed-term, recruitment decisions are commonly made by heads of departments or deans.

Based on the empirical survey data of this article, some conclusions can be made about Finnish universities' HRM practices considering recruitments in particular. HRM practices related to recruitments of academics have changed, and the practices differ considering the nature of open position, and the strategic value of it. Recruitments are significant to universities, as their staff are their most important asset; universities have to plan their HRM practices more carefully, and connect recruitments to their strategic core areas and long-term planning of the organisation more efficiently.

5.3   STUDY III: Change and continuity in the academic profession: Finnish Universities as living labs

The third article (Article III) discusses change and continuity of the academic profession. Professional groups are dynamic by their nature but instead of just reflecting the changing environment and the internal processes of a change, professions are characterised by continuities as well. Those continuities foster traditional professional values and practices, as changes usually support the organisational ones.

The data of this article included interviews from top and middle managers working in four Finnish universities. According to the data, the academic professionals' work and careers are changing in universities, but also many continuities exist. Organisational aspects are currently emphasised; strong management, efficiency, control, evaluations, and standardisation have become the leading values and practices within universities. However, there are many continuities, as professional practices and values such as autonomy, academic identity, culture of the workplace, power of professionals, and diversity remain rather central aspects of academic professionals' work and careers.

The central perspective in this transformation is the academic identity. When the roles and work tasks of academics are changing, so do the identities that become increasingly blended and diversified. In the work of manager-academics, this tension between profession and organisation is constantly present as they combine both logics in their work. Furthermore, the change in academic work has meant a shift towards more hybrid roles and identities, where both, professional and organisational, are being mixed.

In the interviews, negative and positive orientations were mentioned related to both, changes and continuities. For example, standardised practices can create "one-size-fits-all" structures where there is no room for diversity. However, more standardised structures can also make the career and salary progression more transparent and equal. The traditional academic working culture with old practices has been discriminating women with a consequence that it is more challenging for women to rise to the top. Change is not always 'bad' and continuities 'good'; along with change, many old traditions that have been discriminating minorities should be renewed.

As a conclusion of this article, it can be said that these two values and practices, profession and organisation, are not always opposite by their nature, even though there are many tensions between them. They are intertwined and occur simultaneously. This model where both occur at the same time, is called hybrid. Furthermore, we can state that academic profession and its change is hybrid. These both sides of the academic profession should consider in more deep way; how they co-exist in academic work, what are the implication, and how the both sides could be supported better in universities, and thus foster the scientific excellence in a turbulence environment.

5.4 Clarification of the distribution of work in the articles

The three empirical articles described above were written in research projects that are mentioned in Chapter 4: Data and analysis. All of these articles have been written in collaboration with other authors. My contribution in these articles that are included in this doctoral dissertation was emphasised:

- In the STUDY I: Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends, the contribution of other authors was to comment the text that I produced: theoretical framework as well as analysis and conclusions. However, the idea of reciprocity was formed together in discussions with all of the authors.

- In the STUDY II: Recruitments in Finnish universities: practicing strategic or pathetic HRM? Other two authors' (Pekkola & Kivistö) contribution was more significant, as they both were responsible on writing one chapters in the article. I was responsible of rest of texts, as well as data analysis and conclusions.

- In the STUDY III: Change and continuity in the academic profession: Finnish Universities as living labs, my contribution was again the greatest, since other authors mostly commented text that I produced: theoretical discussion, analysis, as well as conclusions. Together with other authors, we formed the basic idea of the article.

6
Discussion and conclusions

In this doctoral dissertation, I studied the changing relationship between the academic profession and universities in an environment that has been influenced by many global trends; particularly NPM, managerialism and academic capitalism. The relationship between the academic profession and universities is complex and dynamic, as both of them are not 'typical' by their nature, academics as professionals and employees, and universities as organisations and employers.

The academic profession is a dynamic professional group that reflects the changes of its social environment (Musselin 2007a). It is also a powerful professional group, described also as a "meta-profession", which enjoys a great amount of academic freedom in their work, and furthermore, they are commonly more committed to their discipline than their organisation (Carvalho 2017, 9; & Diogo 2017; Clark 1987; Evetts 2011). What makes their position particularly significant is that universities are dependent on academics, as academics are their biggest asset and involved in universities' core tasks (Enders 2000; Musselin 2007b). In addition, their power in universities is reinforced by the peer-review system of universities that is based on academic assessment by academics, which is utilised by university managers (Musselin 2013b). However, the relationship between academics and universities is also an employment relationship, which provides another perspective to their power-relations. Academic profession is bound to universities since universities form the organisational frames of the profession where the professionals perform their work and proceed in their careers (Musselin 2013a; Article I).

Universities are organisations but different compared with many others since their unique organisation and management structures (structured by disciplines). In addition, their 'outputs', research and teaching, are complex to measure and thus not accountable (Clark 1983; Musselin 2007b; Evetts 2013). The relationship between academics and universities has become more tense since universities are pursuing to be more efficient, leading to more control on academics' work, as academics are guarding their own traditional professional values and academic freedom (Carvalho & Diogo 2017; Musselin 2013a; Kallio et al 2015; Article III). The change of universities has been strongly influenced by global trends that have been affecting academics, but filtered through organisational processes. In spite of the rather stable basic functions of universities as institutions, universities as organisations have changed (Välimaa 2018; 2019). Furthermore, the definitions or meanings of universities have had different emphasis during time. For example, the definition of "entrepreneurial university" stressed how the universities should be more responsive towards the changing society (Clark 1998).

Global trends such as managerialism and NPM have previously appeared in private sector organisations, but they have spread to public sector organisations. In universities, they are aiming to increase the effectiveness of academic work, and to change universities' management to answer the needs of the new, changing, and more competitive operational environment. According to previous research, these trends have mainly had negative effects on the work and careers of academic professionals, as their implications are perceived to be mostly incompatible with traditional practices and values of the academic profession. (Deem 2004; Deem & Brehony 2005; Evetts 2009; Santiago & Carvalho 2008.) However, Ylijoki and Ursin (2015) found out in their research on Finnish academics, that there are 'winners' and 'losers' in the new competitive university environment, which have created polarisation between academics.

In addition to the trends of NPM and managerialism, higher education as a phenomenon has adapted market-like behaviour in its activities, which is considered in the theory of academic capitalism. Originally, this trend emerged in the U.S. but it has been developed in European, as well as in Finnish higher education. (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Kauppinen & Kaidesoja 2014; Ylijoki 2003; see also Clark 1987.) Furthermore, alongside the process of massification more varied expectations towards higher education have been introduced, which are related to the new, and wider tasks and functions in universities' societal and commercial activities (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). Moreover, Kogan and Teichler (2007, 10) stated that the increasing requirement for having more relevance in research is one of the key challenges in higher education. They also addressed the change from the "scholarship of discovery" to the "scholarship of application" (See also Brennan 2007). As part of their societal impact, universities and academics have been required to take a more active role in solving the "wicked problems" of our society (Ramaley 2014).

Clark emphasised in 1998 that all new expectations towards universities are forcing universities to change towards being more "entrepreneurial" so that they could respond to them.

In this dissertation, the contextual background is Finnish higher education, which has been influenced by many global trends. In a prior research, as well as in empirical articles incorporated in this doctoral dissertation, this influence is observable. University processes and structures have been standardised (Kivistö et al. 2017; Article II; Article III). The new, more standardised career structures are based on cyclic evaluation (Pietilä 2018; Article III), and in general, introductions of the new ways of performance evaluation in academic work have threatened the traditional collegial academic 'ethos' (Kallio et al. 2015; see also Kivistö, Pekkola & Lyytinen 2017).

In addition, changes in the funding of higher education have increased project-based funding and academic careers are perceived to be as insecure (Article I: Nikunen 2012; Ylijoki 2003). Furthermore, the short fixed-term funding has made academics question the reciprocal commitment between the academics and universities (Article I). The power of middle-managers have increased in Finnish universities (Pekkola et al. 2018; Article II; Article III) and the university mergers has led to many adjustments of academics (Välimaa, Aittola & Ursin 2014; Vellamo et al. forthcoming). In addition, the trend of academic capitalism has been studied and revealed that it has affected the Finnish higher education, as universities and academics are increasingly involved in activities related to marketisation and entrepreneurialism (Kauppinen & Kaidesoja 2014; Ylijoki 2003).

However, in spite of the increased managerial power in universities, academics also have power and authority in Finnish universities (Article III). As Evetts has described (2009), strong professional groups resist the change and are protecting their values and their own professional boundaries. In the relationship between the academic profession and universities, we can notice changes, as well as continuities, inspired by the theoretical framework of Evetts (2009). In there, *changes* describe changes in professionalism that are influenced by NPM (e.g. management based on the hierarchy, financial control, audits, work standardisation and competition) and *continuities* describe those aspects in professionalism that are being protected by professionals and resist the change (e.g. legitimacy based on esoteric knowledge, trust, competence, discretion to deal with complex cases and collegial relations). In article III several changes and continuities were acknowledged in academic profession (based on Evett's (2009) categories); changes were related to policies on academic work and management, control and evaluation, and standardisation and competition. Continuities, in turn, were associated to power and authority of academic professionals; trust, competence, identity and work culture, and diversity and collegial relations.

Furthermore, continuing with the same theme related to power and authority of academic professionals, in Article I, in the career negotiations, the power on both side of the table: academic (employee) and a university (employer) was emphasised. If the employer

is the manager-academic, the professional power is present in the process. In addition, in Article II related to university recruitments; in the lower career-stages, the recruitments were commonly implemented as an informal way. This suggests the significant power of manager-academics in recruiting processes with respect to some recruitments. In turn, the professorial recruitments are going through a strict organisational evaluation process. However, it is important to remember that these evaluations are also in the hands of the academic professionals (Musselin 2013b).

As described above, the academic profession and its relationship with the universities have changed in Finnish universities. Driven by these changes and new expectations from the organisation and society, that are being affected by the NPM, managerialism, and the academic capitalism, the roles of academics have changed as well, and so have the identities of academics (Evetts 2011; Henkel 2010; Musselin 2007a; Ylijoki & Ursin 2015).

Academics' new roles are emerging especially in those positions where managerial and entrepreneurial tasks are being blended in more 'traditional' academic work related to teaching and research. In the new institutional frames of universities, positions of the manager-academics have increased and their power emphasised (Article III: see also Deem 2004). Evetts (2011) has stated that professionals have been recreated as managers so that powerful professionals would be easier to manage. Many authors have addressed the current transformation in universities as a struggle between organisational (/managerial) and professional values and practices. This tension emerges in the work of the manager-academics who are working in the interface of both worlds. They combine both roles in their daily activities. (Carvalho & Santiago 2010; Deem 2004; Deem & Brehony 2005; Pekkola et al. 2018b).

In addition to the new managerial roles of academics, many academics have also become 'entrepreneurs' (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; see also Ylijoki 2003) meaning that they are increasingly responsible for applying for their own research funding and they are involved with commercial and entrepreneurial activities as well. This can mean that academics are collaborating more with the possible funding organisations, also from the private sector, to compensate the decreasing governmental funding (Hagen 2002).

Lam (2010) describes this transformation where the roles and identities of academics are influenced by entrepreneurial forms, from the "ivory tower traditionalists" to "entrepreneurial scientists". This changes the knowledge production, which is increasingly more transdisciplinary and involves non-academic partners as well (Tress et al. 2005), and has been conceptualised in prior research as the 'new mode of knowledge production' (Gibbons et al. 1994) and 'triple helix' (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000).

All these three perspectives that have been mentioned above – profession, organisation and societal impact/entrepreneurial – are changing academic work and roles. These changes can be perceived either as negatively or positively by academics. A good example are the

Human Resource Management (HRM) practices, which can be perceived as inflexible and bureaucratic. However, they can foster many positive implications as well. This issue came up also in Article III as the middle-managers perceived that the new standardised career structures and salary systems related to it have clarified the career and salary progression for academics. Furthermore, Evetts (2018) claims that these new, standardised procedures and processes in organisations have increased the transparency and improved diversity and equal opportunities for professionals, as they have replaced less formalised social networks and informal recommendations. However, she continues that career inequalities continues to exist in many ways. In addition, these aspects can also support the performance of academics as a whole, as Van Looy et al. (2004) have showed in their study: activities that are simultaneously both, scientific and entrepreneurial, rather support each other's performance than reduce it.
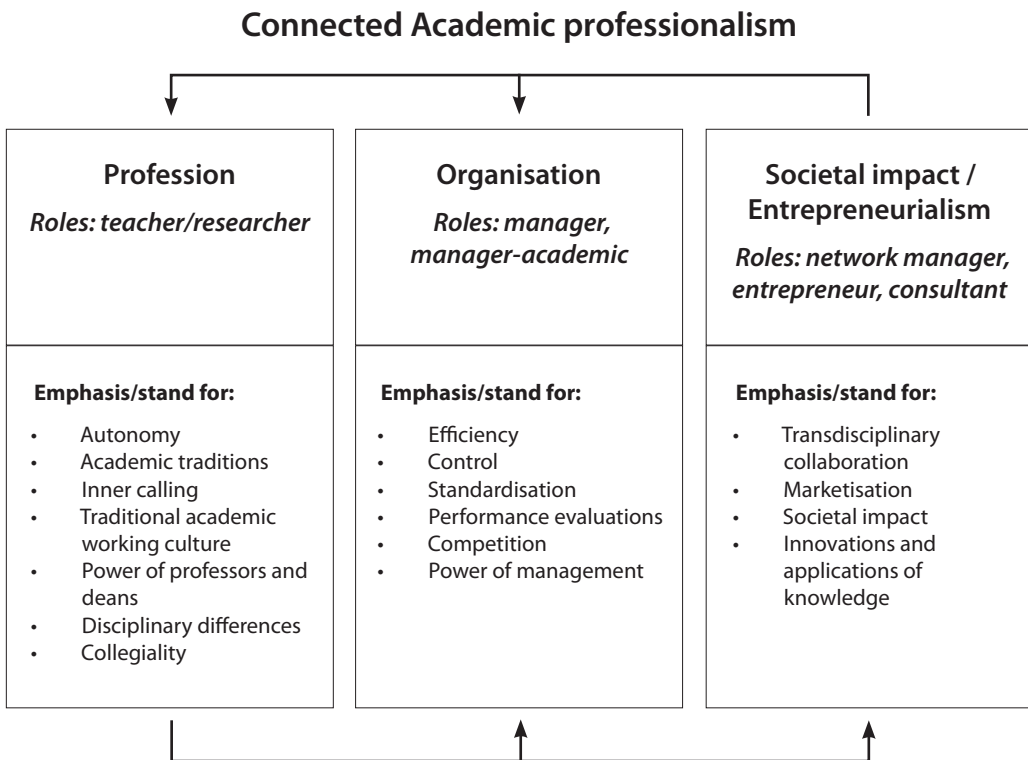
As described above, many authors have addressed the change in higher education and the academic profession as dichotomous; academic profession protecting their traditional values from external intruders, either organisational or entrepreneurial that are perceived to threaten the traditional identity of academics. The definition of the hybridism is used to describe this process in professional work and in higher education (Pekkola et al. forthcoming, Noordegraaf 2015).

However, the phenomenon is not necessary dichotomous, but more complex where all these three aspects; professional, organisational and societal/entrepreneurial occur as simultaneously and intertwined with each other. The professionalism that includes all of these aspects can be called *connected professionalism* (Noordegraaf 2019).

In a Figure 2 presented here, I combine three aspects – professional, organisational and societal impact/entrepreneurialism. I describe these three aspects as they together, occurring as simultaneously, mixed and intertwined with each other, form the connected academic professionalism.

1. The *professional* aspect that represents the traditional academic profession and its logics, with a strong (traditional) academic identity with (traditional) roles on teaching and research. (See e.g. Bruckmann & Carvalho 2018; Evetts 2009; Henkel 2005; Noordegraaf 2015; Ylijoki & Ursin 2013; 2015)

2. The *organisational* aspect that represents the strong emphasis on values, logics, and practices influenced by the New Public Management and managerialism. They advocate on control, efficiency, competition, performance evaluations, and strong management. Roles are managerial or managerial-academic, identities are related especially to management (See e.g. Bruckmann & Carvalho 2018; Evetts 2009; Deem 2004; Deem and Brehony 2005; Pekkola et al. 2018b; Noordegraaf 2015).

3. The aspect of *societal impact/entrepreneurialism* includes also a rather traditional role of academics taking part of external activities in non-academic arenas. However, the emphasis on this aspect is in entrepreneurial roles and identities that include values and practices influenced by the marketisation of higher education. In here, the knowledge has a value as applied and a source of innovations. Academics are seen as entrepreneurs; applying their own funding and building actively transdisciplinary networks also outside universities, and also as consultants who sell their (research) products. Roles of academics are commonly related to working in an interface between universities and industry/business. (See e.g. Etzkovitz 2013; Jain, George & Maltarich 2009; Lam 2010; Noordegraaf 2019; Slaughter & Leslie 1997; Ylijoki 2003)

Connected Academic professionalism

Profession	Organisation	Societal impact / Entrepreneurialism
Roles: teacher/researcher	*Roles: manager, manager-academic*	*Roles: network manager, entrepreneur, consultant*
Emphasis/stand for: • Autonomy • Academic traditions • Inner calling • Traditional academic working culture • Power of professors and deans • Disciplinary differences • Collegiality	**Emphasis/stand for:** • Efficiency • Control • Standardisation • Performance evaluations • Competition • Power of management	**Emphasis/stand for:** • Transdisciplinary collaboration • Marketisation • Societal impact • Innovations and applications of knowledge

Figure 2. Connected academic professionalism.

These three aspects and 'ideal-types'; professional, organisational, and societal impact/entrepreneurial are tools for us to understand the changing nature, and the relationship between the academic profession and universities. In addition, they support our understanding about the relationship between higher education and the society, since changes in the roles of academics manifest the changes in society.

As Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas (1994, 29) described the phenomenon already twenty-five years ago including all these three perspectives, and a rise of a 'new professionalism':

[a] 'new professionalism' may be emerging which emphasise the qualities associated more with the managerial and market than with the collegial model: namely, the capacity to work in teams, to be cost conscious and results oriented, to respond to exogenous criteria of quality, and to be able to create and sustain networks both within and across higher education boundary.

The relationship between the academic profession and university continues to be significant as their capabilities of conducting their main functions are dependent from each other. Together they should find best practices how to answer the external expectations towards universities and academic work. These practices should secure the autonomous position and academic freedom of academics, as well as support the organisational development of universities.

6.1   Limitations of the research and ethical issues

In higher education research, the focus is often in a phenomenon that is aimed to describe. In this doctoral dissertation, the phenomenon was related to the changing relationship between the academic profession and university, and the global trends that have an influence on them. In addition, the perspectives of changing academic roles and identities, hybrid academic professionalism, and connected professionalism were addressed.

The empirical data of this doctoral dissertation was collected in two research projects (see Chapter 4). Three empirical articles concerned the relationship between the academic profession and university, as well as the influence of NPM and managerialism to the academic profession and universities in Finnish higher education. The perspectives of changing roles and identities, and hybrid academic professionalism were covered in a third article. The idea of the connected academic professionalism and particularly, the aspect of new roles related to societal impact and entrepreneurialism were based on prior research of the subject.

The limitations of this research are related to the secondary data analysis. The data of this study was collected in two projects. The themes of the projects were related to the po-

sition of fixed-term academics in universities, and the evaluation of new career models in Finnish universities (read more from Chapter 4). Although the themes of these projects were connected to this doctoral dissertation, the challenges related to secondary data analysis have to be acknowledged. If the data collection had been made in this doctoral dissertation project, the data would have been more limited but the questions would have been specifically customised regarding the research questions of my study.

In this doctoral dissertation, the empirical data present, however, the significant aspect of the phenomenon from many levels. Therefore, I consider that the data collection in those two projects was a success and enabled richer views of aspects in this study. To be able to make international comparison, the data should be collected from many countries. The data of this dissertation was collected from Finland, however, the prior international research showed that the same phenomena occur in European universities as well.

The *validity* of the research means, whether the methods of the study are successfully measuring those things that they are intended to measure. In addition, the *reliability* of the research describes whether the methods of the research are trustworthy and repeatable (Drost 2011). This study included both, quantitative and qualitative data and methods, and therefore the methods can be called as mixed methods. The empirical articles included in this doctoral dissertation are independent studies, and they were conducted in projects mentioned earlier. First, I will consider here the validity and reliability of the qualitative articles, which were articles I and III (the first article included both, quantitative and qualitative data). Morse et al. (2002) have identified verification strategies for establishing validity and reliability in qualitative research, which are: methodological coherence, appropriate sample, collecting and analysing the data concurrently, thinking theoretically, and development of the theory.

First, the methodological coherence was ensured when the methods of the studies were planned concurrently with the research questions, forming a coherent entity. Second, the sufficiently appropriate sample was covered in the research articles: in Article I the rich dataset that included the open questions of the survey were examined. Article III, which included group-interviews, all of the interviewees were experts on the subject and they provided valuable and relevant information regarding the research question. Third, collecting and analysing the data concurrently was not actualised, since the data was collected in each of the articles before the analysis started. The main reason for this was that the research was conducted in the two projects with rather strict schedules. However, if we think this doctoral dissertation as one research project, the data was collected in many phases. Fourth, I applied theoretical thinking to this work during the whole research process; constantly comparing my findings to the prior research findings and theories. Fifth, the development of a theory (introduced in this doctoral thesis) was an outcome of the long research process where each empirical article had a significant role as they increased my understanding of the theme of the research.

The verification strategies of Morse et al. (2002) above concerned especially the qualitative research, but can be applied in the quantitative research as well, especially those dimensions that have to do with the whole research process in general. In addition to those, Drost (2011) describes reliability and validity particularly in quantitative research. In quantitative research, measurement errors can occur that threats the reliability of the research. There are also methods to estimate test reliability. In this doctoral dissertation, the quantitative data was analysed in an exact way. In Article I, the Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the merged variable (it was .702, that is sufficient [Drost 2011]). In Article II, the analysis was descriptive.

Furthermore, in quantitative research, validity of the study can be examined in many ways. Internal validity describes the validity of the research itself. In Article I, the response rate of the survey was only 23 %, but the respondents represented all disciplines, age groups, and both genders. We also used several variables, and one merged variable to study the perceived reciprocal commitment of the respondents (see Article I for more information). In Article II, the response rate of the survey was 77 %, which can be considered as good (the survey was sent to respondents together with the letter of the Ministry of the Education and Culture. The study had a strict schedule and we had to conduct the survey during the summer, which is usually a bad timing when respondents are having their holidays. With the help of the letter, many chose to answer the survey). In this article, the analysis was descriptive, but the used variables were well suited for the research. The validity of the research can also be increased through a well-done operationalisation. In the empirical articles, the variables that were used were considered carefully.

As a higher education researcher, the position of a researcher should be especially acknowledged when we are researching ourselves. The position of a researcher is central particularly when conducting a qualitative research. However, our experiences as academics gives as special knowledge about the object of our research, and as Tight (2012, 149) addressed it: "who else is going to research academics if not academics themselves?". My personal interest to the subject started from the precarious nature of the academic careers, and developed from there to take account also the broader picture: the organisation, the profession, and the changing environment. Therefore, the structure of this study is following the development of my personal thinking as well.

The ethical issues were taken into consideration during the research process. The guidelines of the Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity 2012 were followed. The guidelines are supporting the responsible conduct of research. In this doctoral dissertation, the research followed the general principles on conducting research that are endorsed by the research community: integrity, meticulousness and accuracy. The data collection was conducted in an ethical way and the anonymity of survey respondents and interviewees was ensured. The results of the research were reported in an open and responsible way. The

researcher acknowledged the work of other researchers; citations were appropriately used. Furthermore, the other authors' work in the research process was acknowledged and their names were included in the publications. In addition, in each of the articles, the source of the finance was mentioned.

6.2 Avenues for future research

In this doctoral dissertation, several broad research areas that were only briefly considered would be highly interesting to explore further. The hybridism and connected professionals are some of the themes in this study that particularly needs further research to understand the phenomena more deeply especially in the academic context.

In this doctoral dissertation, the connected academic professionalism is characterised with three aspects; professional, organisational, and societal impact/entrepreneurial. In order to understand better how these three aspects coexist in academic work, roles, and identities, as well as at higher levels of the organisational and the system (Pekkola et al. forthcoming), they should be studied more. Is the 'new professionalism', that emphasise more managerial and market, than collegial, emerging, like Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas (1994, 29) addressed it already twenty-five years ago?

Furthermore, if the universities and academic professionals are becoming hybrid and their networks include increasingly actors of a different kind, what implications does this have to the academic profession that used to guard its borders very strictly? Are the academic values and research ethics in a danger in these new networks, or does the transdisciplinary collaboration strengthen the idea what is means to be academic? Are modern academics with wider tasks and networks challenging the traditional definition of the academic profession that is perceived to be existing only in the context of universities? Furthermore, are these new organisational and societal expectations towards the academic profession changing it, and is the change observable already in the organisational processes, for example in the recruitments of the future professors?

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Appendices

Survey 1
The position and role of the fixed-term university researchers in a knowledge-based economy

Survey 2
The evaluation of the four-stage career model in Finnish Universities

Appendix 1

Survey 1: The position and role of the fixed-term university researchers in a knowledge-based economy

Tämä kysely liittyy neliportaisen tutkijanuran arviointihankkeeseen, joka lähetetään kaikkiin suomalaisiin yliopistoihin. Hankkeen on rahoittanut opetus- ja kulttuuriminsteriö.

Toivomme, että vastaatte kaikkiin kyselyn kysymyksiin huolella sillä, kyselyn avulla saadaan arvokasta tietoa yliopistojen henkilöstöpolitiikasta ja neliportaisen tutkijanuran sekä tenure track -menettelyn käyttöönotoista yliopistoissa.

Tutkimuksen tulosten raportoinnin yhteydessä varmistetaan jokaisen vastaajan anonymiteetti hyvien tieteellisten käytäntöjen mukaisesti.

PAGE

K1

Yliopisto, jossa työskentelet:
- ◯ Aalto-yliopisto
- ◯ Helsingin yliopisto
- ◯ Itä-Suomen yliopisto
- ◯ Jyväskylän yliopisto
- ◯ Lapin yliopisto
- ◯ Lappeenrannan teknillinen yliopisto
- ◯ Oulun yliopisto
- ◯ Svenska handelshögskolan
- ◯ Taideyliopisto
- ◯ Tampereen teknillinen yliopisto
- ◯ Tampereen yliopisto
- ◯ Turun yliopisto
- ◯ Vaasan yliopisto
- ◯ Åbo Akademi

K2

Tieteenala:
- ◯ Luonnontieteet (esim. matematiikka, tilastotiede, tietojenkäsittely, fysiikka,ympäristötiede, ekologia)
- ◯ Tekniikka (esim. arkkitehtuuri, kone- ja valmistustekniikka, ympäristötekniikka, nanoteknologia)
- ◯ Lääke- ja terveystieteet (esim. biolääketieteet, kirurgia, terveystiede, liikuntatiede, farmasia, hoitotiede)
- ◯ Maatalous- ja metsätieteet (esim. maataloustiede, metsätiede, eläinlääketiede)
- ◯ Yhteiskuntatieteet (esim. kansantaloustiede, liiketaloustiede, oikeustiede,

sosiologia, valtio-oppi, kasvatustieteet, media- ja viestintätieteet)

○ Humanistiset tieteet (esim. filosofia, kielitieteet, kuvataide ja muotoilu, historia ja arkeologia)

○ Muu, mikä? : _____

Tehtävänimike:

○ Dekaani
○ Henkilöstöjohtaja
○ Henkilöstöpäällikkö
○ Hallintopäällikkö
○ Hallintojohtaja
○ Muu, mikä? : _____

1. Henkilöstöpolitiikka

	Täysin eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Ei saamaa eikä eri mieltä	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä	Eos
Yliopistossamme on linjakas henkilöstöpolitiikka	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopistossamme on kyky toimeenpanna henkilöstöpolitiikkalinjauksia	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikkömme esimiehet toimivat henkilöstöpoliittisten linjausten mukaisesti	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopistomme henkilöstöpolitiikka tukee strategisten tavoitteiden saavuttamista	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tutkijaurien kehittäminen on keskeinen osa yliopistomme henkilöstöpolitiikkaa	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopistomme henkilöstö on tietoinen keskeisistä heitä koskevista henkilöstöpoliittisista linjauksista	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopiston henkilöstöhallinto vaikuttaa merkittävästi akateemisten urien suunnitteluun	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopistossamme on selkeä neliportainen tutkijanuramalli	○	○	○	○	○	○

Yksikössämme tutkijat

	Täysin eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä	Eos
voivat omalla toiminnallaan taata urallaan etenemisen mikäli he toteuttavat yksikön strategiaa	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikössämme uralla eteneminen tapahtuu vapautuvien tehtävien avoimeksi julistamisen kautta	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikkömme tutkijan uramalli on tutkijan näkökulmasta ennakoitava	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

K5

2. Rekrytointi

	Täysin eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä	Eos
Yksikkömme rekrytoinnit ovat kansainvälisiä (hakuilmoitukset kansainvälisillä foorumeilla)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikkömme rekrytoinnit ovat kansallisia	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikkömme rekrytointikäytänteet ovat osa yliopistomme julkisuuskuvan hallintaa	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Rekrytoinnin valintakriteerit ilmoitetaan hakuilmoituksen yhteydessä	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yliopistossamme on kaikille akateemisille henkilöstöryhmille yhdenmukaiset rekrytointikäytänteet	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikössämme on kaikille akateemisille henkilöstöryhmille yhdenmukaiset rekrytointikäytänteet	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikkömme rekrytoinnissa huomioidaan myös muut kuin akateemiset ansiot (akateemiset ansiot: tutkimus ja opetus).	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Yksikkömme rekrytoinnissa painotetaan	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

hakijan dokumentoituja aikaansaannoksia						
Yksikkömme rekrytoinnissa painotetaan hakijoiden potentiaalia	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikkömme rekrytoinnissa painotetaan hakijoiden profiilin sopivuutta yksikön työyhteisöön	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikkömme rekrytoinneissa painotetaan spesifiä substanssiosaamista	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme pyritään rekrytointien avulla yliopistojen ja tutkimuslaitosten väliseen yhteistyöhön	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopiston strategia otetaan huomioon yksikkömme henkilöstövalinnoissa	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksiköllämme on henkilöstösuunnitelma	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikkömme noudattaa johdonmukaisesti omaa henkilöstösuunnitelmaansa	○	○	○	○	○	○

K6

3. Neliportaisen tutkijanuramallin toimeenpano

	Kyllä	Ei	Eos
Tehtävien vaatimustaso on sidottu nimikkeeseen	○	○	○
Yksikkömme henkilöstöpolitiikka kannustaa kansainväliseen liikkuvuuteen	○	○	○
Yksikköni henkilöstöpolitiikassa on huomioitu kansainvälisten akateemisten työmarkkinoiden vaatimukset	○	○	○
Yksikkömme henkilöstöpolitiikka tunnistaa erilliset opettajan ja tutkijan urat	○	○	○
Yksikössämme yksilön on mahdollista edetä suunnitelmallisesti uralla	○	○	○
Yksikössämme uralla eteneminen on	○	○	○

sattumanvaraista

Neliportainen tutkijanuramalli tukee tieteenalamme käytäntöjä	○	○	○

Yksikössämme seuraavia tehtäviä rahoitetaan yliopiston perusrahoituksella:

	Kyllä	Ei	Eos
Tohtorikoulutettava/nuorempi tutkija	○	○	○
Yliopistotutkija	○	○	○
Projektitutkija	○	○	○
Tutkijatohtori	○	○	○

Yksikössämme voidaan vakinaistaa saman tason tehtäviin määräaikaisesta tehtävästä ilman avointa tehtävän hakua.

○ Ei

○ Kyllä, millä neliportaisen uramallin portailla? :

_____

Yksikössämme tehtävä voidaan siirtää portaalta seuraavalle ilman avointa hakua.

○ Ei

○ Kyllä, mistä portaasta alkaen? :

_____

Valitse listasta ne nimikkeet, joita yksikössänne on käytössä neliportaisella tutkijanuralla.
Jos nimike on käytössä yksikössänne, mutta se ei sisälly neliportaiseen tutkijanuraan, älä valitse sitä.

❑ Assistentti
❑ Tutkimusavustaja
❑ Tohtorikoulutettava
❑ Nuorempi tutkija
❑ Tutkija
❑ Projektitutkija
❑ Tutkijatohtori
❑ Yliopisto-opettaja
❑ Tutkijaopettaja

- ❑ Yliopistonlehtori
- ❑ Lehtori
- ❑ Yliopistotutkija
- ❑ Akatemiatutkija
- ❑ Erikoistutkija
- ❑ Apulaisprofessori
- ❑ Professori
- ❑ Akatemiaprofessori
- ❑ Tutkimusjohtaja
- ❑ Muita, mitä? : _____

Mitä englanninkielisiä nimikkeitä yksikössänne on käytössä neliportaisella tutkijanuralla?

- ❑ Assistant
- ❑ Doctoral student
- ❑ Junior researcher
- ❑ Project researcher
- ❑ Researcher
- ❑ Postdoctoral researcher
- ❑ Lecturer
- ❑ University instructor
- ❑ University teacher
- ❑ University lecturer
- ❑ Academy researcher
- ❑ Assistant professor
- ❑ Associate professor
- ❑ Professor
- ❑ Academy professor
- ❑ Research professor
- ❑ Research director
- ❑ muita, mitä? : _____

Yksikössämme on pysyviä tehtäviä ensimmäisellä portaalla, joihin tehtävän hoitaja on palkattu toistaiseksi.

- ◯ Ei
- ◯ Kyllä, mitä? : _____

Yksikössämme on pysyviä tehtäviä toisella portaalla, joihin tehtävän hoitaja on palkattu toistaiseksi.

- ◯ Ei

○ Kyllä, mitä? : _____

Yksikössämme on yliopiston perusrahoituksella rahoitettuja määräaikaisia tehtäviä kolmannella portaalla.

○ Ei

○ Kyllä, mitä? : _____

Yksikössämme on yliopiston perusrahoituksella rahoitettuja määräaikaisia tehtäviä neljännellä portaalla.

○ Ei

○ Kyllä, mitä? : _____

Yksikössämme maisterin tutkinnon suorittaneet, projekteissa työskentelevät tutkijat sijoitetaan tutkijauran ensimmäiselle portaalle.

○ Kyllä. Millä nimikkeellä he toimivat? :

_____

○ Ei. Millä nimikkeellä he toimivat? :

_____

Sovelletaanko yksikössänne tenure track -menettelyä? Mitkä ovat menettelyssä sovellettavat nimikkeet (alimmasta ylimpään)?

_____

_____

_____

_____

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4. Tenure Track

	Kyllä	Ei	Ei käytössä yksikössämme
Tenure track -tehtävissä			

suoritetaan ulkopuolinen arviointi tehtävään haettaessa.	○	○	○
Tenure track -tehtävässä suoritetaan ulkopuolinen arviointi portaalta toiselle siirryttäessä.	○	○	○
Portaalta toiselle siirryttäessä arvioinnin kriteerit on ilmoitettu rekrytoinnin yhteydessä.	○	○	○
Tenure track -tehtävät ovat yksikössämme yhdenmukaisia arvioinniltaan (arvioinnin ajankohdat ja muut menettelyt).	○	○	○

K21

Tenure track -tehtävät ovat yksikössämme yhdenmukaisia kestoiltaan.

○ Ei

○ Kyllä. Mitkä ovat pätevöitymisjaksojen kestot tenure track -tehtävien eri portailla? : _____

○ Ei vastausta

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5. Rekrytointimenettelyjen avoimuudesta, läpinäkyvyydestä ja tasa-arvosta

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K22

Kuvaile haasteita, joita yksikkönne rekrytointimenettelyt aiheuttavat rekrytointien avoimuudelle.

_____

_____

_____

_____

K23

Kuvaile haasteita, joita yksikkönne rekrytointimenettelyt aiheuttavat rekrytointien läpinäkyvyydelle.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Kuvaile haasteita, joita yksikkönne rekrytointimenettelyt aiheuttavat rekrytointien tasa-arvoisuudelle (sukupuoli, kansallisuus, ikä).

_____

_____

_____

_____

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6. Suhtautuminen apurahoihin sekä apurahojen ja palkan yhdistämiseen.

Miten yksikössänne suhtaudutaan apuarahatutkijoihin?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Yksikkömme myöntää tutkimusapurahoja.
- ⭘ Ei
- ⭘ Kyllä. Mitä? : _____

Yksikössämme on mahdollista yhdistää apurahakausia ja palkkaus.
- ⭘ Ei
- ⭘ Kyllä. Miten? : _____

Yksikkömme tarjoaa apurahatutkijoille tilat ja tukipalvelut.
- ⭘ Ei.

○ Kyllä. Millä perusteella? : _____

---

7. Suhtautuminen ulkopuoliseen rahoitukseen

K29

	Kyllä	**Ei**
Yksikössämme poissuljetaan rahoituslähteitä, jotka eivät mahdollista pitkäjänteistä henkilöstösuunnittelua.	○	○
Yksikössämme poissuljetaan rahoitushakuja, jos ne eivät tue yksikkömme osaamisprofiilia.	○	○
Yksikössämme arvioidaan strategisesti yksikön henkilöstörakenteen näkökulmasta kaikki rahoitushakemukset ennen niiden lähettämistä.	○	○
Yksikössämme on pysyviä projektitutkijoita.	○	○

K30

Yksikössämme varaudutaan suunnitelmallisesti ulkopuolisen rahoituksen yksilöille aiheuttamaan epävarmuuteen.

○ Ei
○ Kyllä. Miten? : _____
○ Eos

K31

Yksikössämme projektitutkijat palkataan pääsääntöisesti

○ projektin rahoituskauden pituiseksi ajaksi.
○ projektin rahoituskautta lyhyemmäksi ajaksi.
○ projektin rahoituskautta pidemmäksi ajaksi.
○ toistaiseksi.

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8. Osa-aikaisuus, kokoaikaisuus ja kokonaistyöaika.

K32

Yksikössämme maksetaan työsuunnitelman ulkopuolisesta ja työsuunnitelman ylittävästä työajasta erillinen korvaus.

○ Kyllä
○ Ei
○ Eos

K33

	Täysin eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä	Eos
Yksikössämme käytetään työsuunnitelmia työtehtävien suunnittelemiseksi.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme työsuunnitelmat ovat urasuunnittelun väline.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme osa-aikainen työ on joustava tapa mahdollistaa perheen ja uran yhteensovittaminen.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme osa-aikainen työ on joustava tapa mahdollistaa yliopistotyön ja yliopiston ulkopuolisen työn yhteensovittaminen.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme osa-aikaiset työntekijät tekevät osa-aikaista työtä omasta tahdostaan.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme ulkopuolisin varoin palkatut henkilöt ovat sijoitettuja YPJ järjestelmään yliopiston henkilöstöpolitiikan, ei rahoituksen reunaehtojen mukaisesti.	○	○	○	○	○	○

9. Yliopistojen palkkausjärjestelmä YPJ.

	Täysin eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä	Eos
Yliopiston palkkausjärjestelmä tukee tutkimusorientoituneen henkilöstön urakehitystä.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopiston palkkausjärjestelmä tukee opetusorientoituneiden henkilöiden urakehitystä.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yliopiston pakkausjärjestelmä on oikeudenmukainen.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Kommentteja yliopistojen palkkausjärjestelmään liittyen?

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. Uralla eteneminen ja liikkuvuus

	Täysin eri	Jokseenkin	Ei samaa	Jokseenkin samaa	Täysin samaa	Eos

	mieltä	eri mieltä	eikä eri mieltä mieltä		mieltä	
Yksikössämme on palkitseva urajärjestelmä.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme työyhteisön eteen työtä tekeviä palkitaan.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Omasta mielestäni yksikkömme tukee lahjakkaimpia työntekijöitään etenemään uralla.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Yksikössämme hyvästä työstä palkitaan.	○	○	○	○	○	○

K36

Yksikössämme uralla etenemistä vauhdittavat näytöt seuraavilla osa-alueilla:

	Kyllä	Ei	Eos
Opetus	○	○	○
Tutkimus	○	○	○
Hallinnolliset tehtävät	○	○	○
Projektitehtävät	○	○	○
Kansallinen liikkuvuus	○	○	○
Kansainvälinen liikkuvuus	○	○	○
Yliopiston ulkopuolien työkokemus	○	○	○

K37

Yksikössämme uralla eteneminen perustuu puhtaasti akateemisiin meriitteihin tutkimuksessa ja opetuksessa.

- ○ Täysin eri mieltä
- ○ Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- ○ Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä
- ○ Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- ○ Täysin samaa mieltä
- ○ Eos

K38

Seuraavat kysymykset (10.1-10.10) ovat vain hallintopäälliköille. Mikäli et ole hallintopäällikkö, siirryt

automaattisesti kohtaan 12.

Huomio. Jos nimikkeesi ei ole hallintopäällikkö, mutta työtehtäväsi ovat hallintopäällikön tehtäviä, vastaa "muu" ja siirryt kohtaan 11.

- ⭕ Olen hallintopäällikkö.
- ⭕ Muu, työtehtäväni ovat hallintopäällikön tehtäviä
- ⭕ En ole hallintopäällikkö.

11. Kysymyspatterit päätöksenteosta rekrytoinneissa (vain hallintopäälliköille tai kyseisessä asemassa toimiville)

Huomio. Kysymyksissä käytetään neliportaisen tutkijanuran nimikkeitä: tohtorikoulutettava/nuorempi tutkija, tutkijatohtori, yliopistonlehtori, yliopistotutkija ja professori/tutkimusjohtaja. Vastatkaa kysymyksiin jos kyseiselle tutkijanuran portaalle ja kyseiseen tehtävään laitoksellanne rekrytoidaan, vaikka laitoksellanne käytettävät nimikkeet poikkeaisivat näistä nimikkeistä.

K39

11.1 Rekrytoinneissa tohtorikoulutettavan / nuoremman tutkijan tehtävään (1. porras) rekrytointiprosessien yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista käytännössä tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja/professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedeku monijäs elin
Tehtävän määrittely	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕
Hakijoiden vertailu	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕
Tehtävään esittäminen	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕
Tehtävään otto	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕
Suoriutumisen arviointi	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕	⭕

K39A

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

11.2 Rekrytoinneissa tutkijatohtorin tehtävään (2. porras) rekrytointiprosessien yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista käytännössä tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä elin
Tehtävän määrittely	○	○	○	○	○
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	○	○	○	○	○
Hakijoiden vertailu	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään esittäminen	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään otto	○	○	○	○	○
Suoriutumisen arviointi	○	○	○	○	○

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

11.3 Rekrytoinneissa yliopistonlehtorin tehtävään (3. porras) rekrytointiprosessien yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista käytännössä tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä elin
Tehtävän määrittely	○	○	○	○	○

Asiantuntijoiden valinta	○	○	○	○	○
Hakijoiden vertailu	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään esittäminen	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään otto	○	○	○	○	○
Suoriutumisen arviointi	○	○	○	○	○

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

11.4 Rekrytoinneissa yliopistotutkijan tehtävään (3. porras) rekrytointiprosessien yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista käytännössä tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek... monijä... elin
Tehtävän määrittely	○	○	○	○	○
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	○	○	○	○	○
Hakijoiden vertailu	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään esittäminen	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään otto	○	○	○	○	○
Suoriutumisen arviointi	○	○	○	○	○

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

11.5 Rekrytoinneissa professorin / tutkimusjohtajan tehtävään (4. porras) rekrytointiprosessien yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista käytännössä tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä elin
Tehtävän määrittely	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Hakijoiden vertailu	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tehtävään esittäminen	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tehtävään otto	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Suoriutumisen arviointi	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Sovelletaanko kutsumenettelyä yksikkönne rekrytoinneissa?

❍ Kyllä
❍ Ei

11.6 Kutsumenettelyn yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä elin
Tehtävän määrittely	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Asiantuntijoiden

valinta	○	○	○	○	○
Hakijoiden vertailu	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään esittäminen	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään otto	○	○	○	○	○
Suoriutumisen arviointi	○	○	○	○	○

K45A

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

K46O3

Sovelletaanko yksikkönne rekrytoinneissa tenure track - menettelyä?

○ Kyllä
○ Ei

K46

11.7 Tenure track -menettelyn yhteydessä päätökset seuraavista asioista tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä elin
Tehtävän määrittely	○	○	○	○	○
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	○	○	○	○	○
Hakijoiden vertailu	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään esittäminen	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään otto	○	○	○	○	○
Suoriutumisen arviointi	○	○	○	○	○

K46A

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

11.8 Rekrytoinneissa projektitutkijan tehtävään (alle vuoden pituinen sopimus) päätökset seuraavista asioista tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen elin	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä elin
Tehtävän määrittely	O	O	O	O	O
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	O	O	O	O	O
Hakijoiden vertailu	O	O	O	O	O
Tehtävään esittäminen	O	O	O	O	O
Tehtävään otto	O	O	O	O	O
Suoriutumisen arviointi	O	O	O	O	O

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

11.9 Rekrytoinneissa projektitutkijan tehtävään (yli vuoden pituinen sopimus) päätökset seuraavista asioista tekee:

	Tutkimusryhmän johtaja /professori	Laitoksen johtaja	Laitoksen monijäseninen	Dekaani	Tiedek monijä

			elin		elin
Tehtävän määrittely	○	○	○	○	○
Asiantuntijoiden valinta	○	○	○	○	○
Hakijoiden vertailu	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään esittäminen	○	○	○	○	○
Tehtävään otto	○	○	○	○	○
Suoriutumisen arviointi	○	○	○	○	○

Mikäli vastasit johonkin kohtaan "Muu", tarkenna mikä/kuka?

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. Neliportaisen tutkijanuramallin tavoite ja nykytila

Tutkijan uraa ja rekrytointeja ohjaavat selkeät tavoitteet
- ○ Täysin eri mieltä
- ○ Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- ○ Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä
- ○ Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- ○ Täysin samaa mieltä
- ○ Eos

Tutkijan neliportaisella urarakenteella pyritään yksikössämme (tavoite):

	Täysin eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä	Eos
Pätevöittämään						

professorin tehtävään	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lisäämään tutkimuksen tuottavuutta	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tukemaan pedagogisten taitojen kehittämistä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lisäämään kansainvälistä huippututkimusta	○	○	○	○	○	○
Vaikuttamaan suomalaisen yhteiskunnan kehitykseen	○	○	○	○	○	○
Vaikuttamaan suomalaisen liike-elämän kehittämiseen	○	○	○	○	○	○
Luomaan kestäviä työyhteisöjä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Kasvattamaan hyviä työyhteisön jäseniä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tukemaan globaalia vastuuta	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tekemään urarakenteista selkeämpiä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tekemään tutkijanurasta houkuttelevampia	○	○	○	○	○	○

K50A

Tutkijan neliportaisella urarakenteella pyritään yksikössäni johonkin muuhun, mihin?

_____

_____

_____

_____

QUEST74

Miten seuraavat pyrkimykset neliportaiseen tutkijanuraan liittyen toteutuvat yksikössänne?

	Täysin		Ei	Jokseenkin	Täysin

	eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	samaa eikä eri mieltä	samaa mieltä	samaa mieltä	Eos
Pätevöittämään professorin tehtävään	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lisäämään tutkimuksen tuottavuutta	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tukemaan pedagogisten taitojen kehittämistä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lisäämään kansainvälistä huipputkimusta	○	○	○	○	○	○
Vaikuttamaan suomalaisen yhteiskunnan kehitykseen	○	○	○	○	○	○
Vaikuttamaan suomalaisen liike-elämän kehittämiseen	○	○	○	○	○	○
Luomaan kestäviä työyhteisöjä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Kasvattamaan hyviä työyhteisön jäseniä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tukemaan globaalia vastuuta	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tekemään urarakenteista selkeämpiä	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tekemään tutkijanurasta houkuttelevampia	○	○	○	○	○	○

Muiden kuin ylläolevien pyrkimyksien toteutuminen yksikössänne tutkijanuriin liittyen:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Mitä kehittämistoimia yksikössänne on suunniteltu toteutettavaksi tutkijoiden urarakenteisiin liittyen?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_K522_

Muita kommentteja?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 2
Survey 2: The evaluation of the four-stage career model in Finnish Universities

Haastattelut

Haastateltava	Organisaatio	Aikataulu	Haastattelija
Eeva Rantala [1]*	TTL	ke 17.10.2012	Maria Ranta
Timo Lahti [2]*	SYTY ry	to 18.10.2012	Maria Ranta/Kari Kuoppala
Liisa Savunen [3] *	UNIFI ry	to 18.10.2012	Maria Ranta
Jorma Virkkala [4]*	Professoriliitto	ti 23.10.2012	Maria Ranta
Nina Pärssinen [5]*	Sivistystyönantajat	ti 23.10.2012	Maria Ranta
Teuvo Metsäpelto [6]*	Työmarkkinalaitos	ke 24.10.2012	Maria Ranta
Juhani Dammert [7]*	Opetusministeriö	to 25.10 2012	Maria Ranta
Hanna Rinne* [1]	TTY	ma 19.8.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Pirjo Hankala* [2]	TaY	ke 21.8.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Liisa Rossi [3]	OY	ma 26.8.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Jaana Sirkiä [4]	HY	ti 17.9.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Tiia Tuomi [5]	Aalto	ti 17.9.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Jouni Kekäle [6]	I-SY	ke 18.9.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Tom Riski [7]	TuY	ke 18.9.2013	Kari Kuoppala
Jouni Valjakka [8]	JY	ma 23.9.2013	Kari Kuoppala

(*Haastattelu kasvokkain. [1] Viittaa tekstissä käytettyyn koodaukseen.)

Kyselylomake

HENKILÖTIEDOT

1. Sukupuoli   mies   nainen

2. Syntymävuosi 19 _____

3. Siviilisääty
    1   Avio- tai avoliitossa/rekisteröidyssä parisuhteessa
    2   Naimaton
    3   Eronnut
    4   Leski

4. Kotona asuvien omien tai huollettavien alaikäisten lasten lukumäärä
    ei lapsia _____
    alle 6-vuotiaita _____ kpl
    7 – 17-vuotiaita _____ kpl

5. Työskenteleekö puolisosi korkeakoulussa opetus- tai tutkimustehtävissä?
    kyllä ☐   ei ☐

6. Mikä on vanhempiesi koulutustaso?
    1. vanhempi   2. vanhempi
      (äiti)   (isä)
                            ei tietoa
                            peruskoulu tai kansakoulu
                            ammattikoulu tai lukio
                            opisto
                            korkeakoulu tai yliopisto

7. Mikä on kansallisuutesi tällä hetkellä? suomalainen, pohjoismaalainen, muu EU:n kan-
    salaisuus, EU:n ulkopuolinen eurooppalainen, afrikkalainen, aasialainen, pohjoisamerik-
    kalainen, eteläamerikkalainen, australialainen, muu, mikä ___ (PUDOTUSVALIKKONA)

8. Mikä on äidinkielesi?

9. Mikä on työyksikkösi käyttökieli?

10. Mikä on korkein suorittamasi tutkinto? Milloin ja missä korkeakoulussa olet sen suoritta-nut?
    1   tohtorin tutkinto
    2   lisensiaatin tutkinto
    3   ylempi korkeakoulututkinto
    4   alempi korkeakoulututkinto
    5   muu tutkinto, mikä _____

Korkein tutkintosi on suoritettu vuonna _____

Korkein tutkintosi on suoritettu (korkeakoulu/yliopisto) _____ ssa

11. Mikä on korkeimman suorittamasi tutkinnon koulutusala?

1 teologinen	7 psykologia	13 teknistieteellinen
2 humanistinen	8 terveydenhuolto	14 lääketieteellinen
3 taideteollinen	9 oikeustieteellinen	15 hammaslääketieteellinen
4 kasvatustieteellinen	10 kauppatieteellinen	16 eläinlääketieteellinen
5 liikuntatieteellinen	11 luonnontieteellinen	17 farmasia
6 yhteiskuntatieteellinen	12 maatalous-metsätieteellinen	18 muu

12. Mikä on tämänhetkisen tutkimuksesi päätieteenala?
    1   Biotieteet, maantiede, ympäristötieteet, maatalous- ja metsätieteet
    2   Humanistiset tieteet
    3   Luonnontieteet
    4   Lääke- ja terveystieteet
    5   Tekniikka
    6   Yhteiskuntatieteet

13. Kuulutko johonkin ammattijärjestöön? kyllä ☐   en ☐   en halua sanoa ☐
    Mihin järjestöön? _____

14. Toimitko yliopistossasi tällä hetkellä hallinnollisissa luottamustehtävissä (varsinainen/varajäsen)?
    kyllä ☐   en ☐

TYÖPAIKKATIEDOT JA PALVELUSSUHDE

15. Missä yliopistossa tällä hetkellä työskentelet (mikäli et ole töissä, siirry kohtaan 35)
    1   Aalto-yliopisto
    2   Helsingin yliopisto
    3   Itä-Suomen yliopisto
    4   Jyväskylän yliopisto
    5   Oulun yliopisto
    6   Tampereen teknillinen yliopisto
    7   Tampereen yliopisto

8   Turun yliopisto
9   muu, mikä _____
10 en ole tällä hetkellä töissä yliopistossa

16. Millä nimikkeellä työskentelet tällä hetkellä? _____

17. Missä työyksikössä työskentelet tällä hetkellä? (Työyksiköllä tarkoitetaan joko virallista tai epävirallista yksikköä, jonka jäsen koet ensisijassa olevasi. Valitse seuraavista sopivin.) (Pudotusvalikkona.)
    –   tiedekunta tai vastaava
    –   laitos
    –   tutkimusyksikkö
    –   tutkimusryhmä
    –   oppiaine
    –   muu, mikä? _____
    Perustele valintasi. _____
    _____
    _____

18. Esimiehesi työyksikkö on (Valitse seuraavista sopivin.)
    (Pudotusvalikkona.)
    –   sama kuin omani
    –   tiedekunta tai vastaava
    –   laitos
    –   tutkimusyksikkö
    –   tutkimusryhmä
    –   oppiaine
    –   muu, mikä? _____

19. Mikä on oman työyksikkösi henkilöstömäärä tällä hetkellä?   _____ henkilöä

20. Onko palvelussuhteesi tällä hetkellä
    a) toistaiseksi voimassa oleva
    b) määräaikainen

21. Mikäli palvelussuhteesi on määräaikainen, kuinka pitkä tämänhetkinen työsopimuksesi on?   _____ v   ___ kk

22. Onko työsopimuksesi tutkimushankkeesi rahoituskauden mittainen?
    kyllä ☐   ei ☐

23. Onko Sinulla ollut mahdollisuus itse vaikuttaa nykyisen palvelussuhteesi pituuteen?
    kyllä ☐   ei ☐

24. Onko/Olisiko määräaikainen palvelussuhde elämäntilanteesi kannalta hyvä vaihtoehto?
kyllä ☐ ei ☐

25. Onko palvelussuhteesi tällä hetkellä
a) kokoaikainen
b) osa-aikainen ___ %

26. Onko Sinulla ollut mahdollisuus vaikuttaa palvelussuhteesi kokoaikaisuuteen?
kyllä ☐ ei ☐

27. Onko/Olisiko osa-aikainen palvelussuhde elämäntilanteesi kannalta hyvä vaihtoehto?
kyllä ☐ ei ☐

28. Mistä vuodesta lähtien olet ollut nykyisen työnantajan (yliopisto) palveluksessa (mukaan lukien työttömyysjaksot)? V. _____ lähtien

29. Kuinka monta erillistä päätoimista palvelussuhdetta Sinulla on ollut nykyisen työnantajan palveluksessa? _____ kpl

30. Mille vaativuustasolle tehtäväsi sijoittuu? Vaativuustason asteikolla tasolle
nro _____ en tiedä ☐

31. Minkä suoritustason perusteella henkilökohtainen palkanosasi määräytyy?
Suoritustason asteikolla tasolle nro _____ en tiedä ☐

32. Mikä on tämänhetkinen ansiosi päätoimesta ennen ennakonpidätystä (bruttopalkka)?
_____ €/kk

33. Onko yksikössäsi käytössä muita palkkaukseen vaikuttavia kannustinjärjestelmiä?
kyllä ☐ ei ☐

34. Miten arvioit palkkaustasi?

	täysin eri mieltä	osittain eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	osittain samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
Olen tyytyväinen tehtävieni vaati-vuustason perusteisiin.					
Olen tyytyväinen henkilökohtaisen palkanosani perusteisiin.					
Olen tyytyväinen ansiotasooni.					
Palkkaukseen liittyvät toimintatavat ovat organisaatiossani johdonmu-kaisia.					
Palkkani on oikeudenmukainen tehtäviini ja työssä suoriutumiseeni nähden.					
Koen, että minua palkitaan työssäni oikeudenmukaisesti suhteessa työni vastuullisuuteen.					
Koen, että minua palkitaan työssäni oikeudenmukaisesti suhteessa työkokemukseeni.					
Koen, että minua palkitaan työssäni oikeudenmukaisesti suhteessa työsuoritukseni laatuun.					

35. Mikäli et tällä hetkellä toimi palkkatyössä, oletko
    1   työtön
    2   lomautettu
    3   vuorotteluvapaalla
    4   äitiys-, isyys- tai vanhempainlomalla tai hoitovapaalla
    5   työttömyys- tai työkyvyttömyyseläkkeellä
    6   pitkäaikaisesti sairas
    7   apurahatutkija
    8   perustutkinto-opiskelija
    9   eläkkeellä iän tai työvuosien perusteella
   10 yrittäjä
   11 muu, mikä _____

TYÖURA

36. Milloin varsinainen työurasi mielestäsi alkoi? Olen ollut työelämässä vuodesta lähtien.

37. Luettele suomalaiset ja ulkomaiset yliopistot, joista olet saanut päätoimisuutta vastaavaa palkkaa tai apurahaa vähintään 6 kk:n ajan.

Maa	Yliopisto	Palkattuna	Apurahalla	Aika (v. – v.) (Jätä viimeinen vuosi tyhjäksi, jos päätoimisuus/ apuraha jatkuu edelleen.)
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

38. Kuinka monta erillistä päätoimista palvelussuhdetta yliopistoon työurallasi on ollut?
    _____kpl

39. Kuinka monta päätoimiseen työskentelyyn perustuvaa apurahaa olet urallasi saanut?
    _____kpl

40. Oletko työurallasi ollut nykyisen yliopistosi lisäksi (merkitse kaikki sopivat)

Aika vuosina
(Merkitse 0, mikäli vaihtoehto ei koske Sinua.)

		Aika vuosina
1	muun työnantajan palveluksessa kotimaassa	_____
2	muun työnantajan palveluksessa ulkomailla	_____
3	työttömänä	_____
4	äitiys- tai vanhempainlomalla	_____

41. Mistä asemasta/palvelussuhteesta (esim. opiskelija, työtön tai aiempi ammattinimikkeesi) siirryit nykyiseen palvelussuhteeseesi? _____

42. Kuinka varmana pidät tällä hetkellä työsuhteesi jatkumista?

erittäin epävarma	melko epävarma	ei varma eikä epävarma	melko varma	erittäin varma

43. Mitä tarkoittaa mielestäsi ryhmä "akateeminen pätkätyöläinen"?
    _____
    _____

44. Koetko olevasi "akateeminen pätkätyöläinen"?
    kyllä ☐   en ☐

45. Mikä seuraavista vaihtoehdoista kuvaa rekrytoitumistasi parhaiten?
    –   avoin haku
    –   itse hankittu oma rahoitus
    –   tutkimustyöhön siirtyminen tutkinto-opintojen aikana
    –   sijaisuuden tai avonaisen tehtävän aukeaminen omassa yksikössäni
    –   projektinjohtajan, professorin tai muun vastaavan henkilön pyyntö tehtävään
    –   rekrytoituminen sosiaalisen verkostoni avulla

46. Kuvaa tarkemmin, miten olet päätynyt nykyiseen tehtävääsi.
    _____
    _____
    _____

47. Oletko harkinnut siirtyväsi työskentelemään yliopiston ulkopuolelle?
    1   En ole
    2   Olen harkinnut siirtyväni työskentelemään muualle
    3   Olen tehnyt konkreettisia toimenpiteitä siirtyäkseni työskentelemään yliopiston ulko-
        puolelle

    Miksi olet harkinnut siirtyväsi työskentelemään muualle ja mitä toimenpiteitä olet tehnyt
    edistääksesi siirtymistäsi? (Mainitse myös kohteet, minne siirtymistä olet harkinnut.):
    _____
    _____
    _____

48. Miten arvioit seuraavia väittämiä suhteessa omaan urakehitykseesi?

	täysin eri mieltä	osittain eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	osittain samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
Minulla on urasuunnitelma					
Olen kiinnostunut tutkija-opettajan akateemisesta urasta yliopistossa					
Olen kiinnostunut tutkija-kehittäjän asiantuntijaurasta yliopistolla					
Urani yliopistolla perustuu lähinnä sattumiin					
Minulla on mahdollisuus osallistua urakehitystäni tukevaan henkilöstö-koulutukseen					
Keskustelen urastani yhdessä esimieheni kanssa					
Minun ja esimieheni näkemykset työurastani yliopistolla ovat yhte-neväiset					
Työurani jatkuminen yliopistolla on todennäköistä					
Koen itseni osaksi akateemista tiedeyhteisöä					
Koen itseni osaksi työyksikköäni					
Työyksikölläni on yhteisiä tavoitteita					
Olen hyvä työssäni					
Koen työni merkitykselliseksi itselleni					

49. Mieti tulevaisuuttasi noin viisi vuotta eteenpäin. Missä organisaatiossa ja työtehtävissä toivoisit silloin työskenteleväsi ja miksi?

_____
_____
_____

TYÖNKUVA

50. Opiskeletko tällä hetkellä työsi ohella? (valitse tilannettasi vastaavat)
    1   En opiskele
    2   Perustutkinto-opiskelijana
    3   Jatko-opiskelijana
    4   Täydennys-/sivuaineopiskelijana

51. Kuinka paljon käytät työaikaasi opiskeluun?
    1   En opiskele lainkaan työajalla
    2   Alle 10 %
    3   10 – 30 %
    4   31 – 60 %
    5   61 – 100 %

52. Mikäli suoritat jatko-opintoja, rahoitatko opintosi tällä hetkellä (valitse tilannettasi vastaa-
    vat)
    1   Tutkijakoulupaikan palkkauksella
    2   Toimimalla yliopiston perusrahoitteisessa opetus- tai tutkimustehtävässä
    3   Suomen Akatemian tutkimusprojektissa
    4   Muun rahoittajan rahoittamassa tutkimusprojektissa
    5   Tutkimustehtävässä muualla kuin yliopistossa
    6   Apurahalla
    7   Opintotuella
    8   Päätoimen palkkauksella tehden jatko-opintoja työn ohessa vapaa-ajalla
    9   Muulla tavoin, miten? _____

53. Millaiset vaikutusmahdollisuudet Sinulla on työtehtäviäsi koskien?
    1   Saan itse suunnitella työtehtävieni jakautumisen eri tehtäväalueille
    2   Voin vaikuttaa työtehtävien jakautumiseen eri tehtäväalueille
    3   Minulla on jossain määrin mahdollisuuksia vaikuttaa työtehtävieni jakautumiseen
    4   En voi vaikuttaa työtehtävieni jakautumiseen lainkaan

54. Miten nykyiseen päätoimeesi kuuluvat työtehtävät jakautuvat eri tehtäväalueille ja mikä
    olisi mielestäsi ideaalitilanne?

		todellinen	ideaali
1	opetus	_____ %	_____ %
2	tutkimus	_____ %	_____ %
3	muut tehtävät	_____ %	_____ %

55. Arvioi, miten ensisijaiseen tutkimushankkeeseesi kuuluvat tehtävät jakautuvat työn eri osa-alueille ja mikä olisi mielestäsi ideaali tehtävien jakautumisen tilanne?

		todellinen	ideaali
1	tutkimushankkeen käytännön toteutukseen liittyvät tehtävät	___ %	___ %
2	tutkimushankkeiden johto- ja hallintotehtävät	___ %	___ %
3	verkostoitumiseen liittyvät tehtävät ja muut asiantuntijatehtävät	___ %	___ %

56. Mistä tämänhetkisen työsi pääasiallinen rahoitus tulee?
    1 yliopiston oma rahoitus
    2 ulkopuolinen rahoituslähde (Akatemia, projektirahoitus yms.)
    3 apuraha
    4 en osaa sanoa

    Nimeä nykyisen työsi ensisijainen ulkopuolinen rahoituslähde _____

57. Mistä seuraavista projektitoiminnan tukijärjestelyistä olet hyötynyt merkittävästi omassa työssäsi (valitse tunnistamasi)
    1 projektirahoituksen hankkimisen tukipalvelut
    2 hankkeiden välisten työjaksojen tukijärjestelyt
    3 hanketoiminnan jatkuvuuden tukijärjestelyt
    4 tutkijoiden urakehityksen tukijärjestelyt
    5 muu, mikä _____
    6 en mistään edellisistä

58. Miten tärkeinä pidät seuraavia tekijöitä oman työsi hallinnan kannalta?

		erittäin tärkeä	tärkeä	melko tärkeä	ei kovin tärkeä	ei lainkaan tärkeä
1	työsuunnitelma omaan työhön					
2	työajankohdennus-järjestelmä					
3	säännölliset (vuosittaiset) kehityskeskustelut esimiehen kanssa					

59. Kuinka monen tutkimushankkeen tehtäviä teet tällä hetkellä?
    _____ tutkimushankkeen

60. Monenko hankehakemuksen valmisteluun osallistut keskimäärin vuodessa?
    _____ hakemukseen

61. Kuinka moni edellä mainituista hankehakemuksista on keskimäärin onnistunut?
    _____ kpl

62. Kuvaa lyhyesti, miten työyksikössäsi on organisoitu hankkeiden omarahoitus.

_____
_____
_____

63. Kuvaa lyhyesti, miten tällä hetkellä toteuttamassasi päätutkimushankkeessa on järjestetty hankkeen johtaminen, työnjako ja vastuut.

_____
_____
_____

64. Määrittele tutkimusyhteistyötäsi

Työskentelen pääsääntöisesti yksin.	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Työskentelen pääsääntöisesti pienessä ryhmässä (2 – 10 henkilöä)	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Työskentelen pääsääntöisesti suuressa ryhmässä (yli 10 henkilöä)	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Ryhmäni jäsenet ovat samalta tieteenalalta	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Ryhmäni jäsenet edustavat useampaa tieteenalaa	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Ryhmäni jäsenet työskentelevät kanssani samassa työyksikössä	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Ryhmäni jäsenet ovat eri yksiköistä yliopistostani	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Ryhmäni jäsenet ovat eri yliopistoista/tutkimuslaitoksista	kyllä ☐	ei ☐
Pääosa ryhmäni jäsenistä on syntyperältään suomalaisia	kyllä ☐	ei ☐

65. Kenen intressit mielestäsi korostuvat oman tutkimustyösi tavoitteenasettelussa eniten? (Aseta kolme tärkeintä järjestykseen numeroimalla ne) Entä mikä olisi mielestäsi ideaali järjestys?

	todellisuus	ideaali
Julkinen valta	☐	☐
Elinkeinoelämä	☐	☐
Kolmas sektori	☐	☐
Yliopisto	☐	☐
Tutkija	☐	☐
Tieteenala	☐	☐
Rahoittajat	☐	☐

66. Palveleeko nykyinen tutkimustyösi hyvin omaa urakehitystäsi.
kyllä ☐   ei ☐
Perustele vastauksesi

_____
_____
_____

67. Johdatko tutkimusryhmää?
kyllä ☐   en ☐

68. Oletko esimiesasemassa?

kyllä ☐   en ☐   Alaistesi lukumäärä _____ henkilöä

69. Oman esimieheni nimeke on _____

70. Seuraavassa esitetään väittämiä omaa työtäsi ja työyksikköäsi koskien. Valitse jokaisesta väittämästä työhösi nähden sopivin vaihtoehto.

	täysin eri mieltä	osittain eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	osittain samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
OMAN TOIMINNAN TULOKSELLISUUS					
Olen organisoinut työni tehokkaasti.					
Saavutan sovitut työtavoitteet.					
Kykenen tekemään työtehtäväni pääsääntöisesti niille varatussa ajassa.					
OMA TYÖ JA SEN OSATEKIJÄT					
Koen työni merkitykselliseksi itselleni.					
Koen työni pakkotahtisena puurtamisena.					
Pystyn tekemään tutkimustyötäni riittävän pitkäjänteisesti.					
Tutkimus on minulle kutsumustyötä.					
Opetustyö ja siinä kehittyminen on minulle tärkeää työssäni.					
Tutkimustyö ja siinä kehittyminen on minulle tärkeää työssäni.					
VAIKUTUSMAHDOLLISUUDET OMAAN TYÖHÖN					
Pystyn riittävästi vaikuttamaan omaan työhöni.					
Minulla on työssäni hyvät mahdollisuudet kehittää itseäni.					
Minulla on riittävästi päätäntävaltaa työni tavoitteista ja sisällöstä.					
Työsuhteen pituudella ei ole merkitystä suhtautumiseeni työyksikköni kehittämiseen					

OMAN TYÖYKSIKÖN TOIMINTA

Esimieheni tukee ja antaa riittävästi palautetta työstäni.

Yksikössäni kilpaillaan hyvässä hengessä.

Yksikköni työilmapiiriä luonnehtii epävarmuus.

Yksiköllä on selkeät yhteiset tavoitteet.

Yksikössäni naisia ja miehiä kohdel-laan tasa-arvoisesti.

Yksikössäni korostuu oman edun tavoittelu.

Yksikköäni johdetaan hyvin.

Yksikössäni on toimivat perehdyttä-miskäytännöt

Yksikköni ilmapiiri on mukava ja leppoisa.

71. Kuinka tärkeinä pidät seuraavia tekijöitä <u>nykyisen tutkimushankkeesi</u> tutkimusaiheen valinnassa?

	erittäin tärkeä	tärkeä	melko tärkeä	ei kovin tärkeä	ei lainkaan tärkeä
Aiheen teoreettinen merkitys					
Aiheen kansallinen tieteellinen merkitys					
Aiheen kansainvälinen tieteellinen merkitys					
Aiheen yhteiskunnallinen merkitys					
Aiheen kaupallinen merkitys					
Tutkijan henkilökohtainen kiinnostus					
Yksikön tutkimustraditio					
Tutkimuksen yhteistyökumppanien intressit					
Yksikön asettamat tutkimuksen painopisteet					
Yliopiston asettamat tutkimuksen painopisteet					
Yleiset tiedepoliittiset tutkimuksen painopisteet					

Rahoittajien toiveet

Rahoituksen saatavuus (esim. tutkimusohjelmat)

Opetuksen kehittäminen

72. Miten tärkeänä pidät erilaisia julkaisutapoja nykyisen tutkimushankkeesi kannalta?

	erittäin tärkeä	tärkeä	melko tärkeä	ei kovin tärkeä	ei lainkaan tärkeä
Julkaiseminen kotimaisella kielellä					
Julkaiseminen englannin kielellä					
Julkaiseminen jollain muulla kielel-lä _____ ?					
Julkaiseminen kansainvälisesti					
Julkaiseminen kotimaassa					
Artikkelit tieteellisissä lehdissä					
Tieteelliset kirjat					
Kokoomateokset					
Laitossarjat					
Konferenssijulkaisut					
Oppikirjat ja -materiaalit					
Populaarijulkaisut suurelle yleisölle					
Avoimet verkkojulkaisut (open access)					
Tilaajan käyttöön tarkoitetut julkaisut					

73. Miten julkaiseminen on toteutettu tämänhetkisessä tutkimustyössäsi ja miten se palvelee omia tavoitteitasi?

_____

_____

_____

74. Miten tärkeänä pidät eri tekijöiden merkitystä oman tutkimustyösi näkökulmasta?

	erittäin tärkeä	tärkeä	melko tärkeä	ei kovin tärkeä	ei lainkaan tärkeä
Akateeminen vapaus					
Kansainvälinen tutkimusyhteistyö					
Laajat tutkijaverkostot					
Pitkäjänteinen tutkimusrahoitus					
Vertaisarviointi					
Tutkimusprojektien hyvä johtaminen					
Ammattimaisen tutkijanuran tukeminen					
Tiivis yritysyhteistyö					
Hyvät yhteydet rahoittajiin ja sidosryhmiin					
Tutkijakoulutuksen tehostaminen					
Suuri yksikkökoko					
Tutkijoiden oma tieteellinen uteliaisuus					
Riittävät yksikkökohtaiset määrärahat					
Riittävät tutkimuslaitteistot ja tilat					
Yliopistojen profiloituminen					
Rahoituksen suuntaaminen kärkihankkeille					
Tulostavoitteet					
Tutkimusrauha					
Palkkataso					

TYÖHYVINVOINTI

75. Minkälaisena koet elämäntilanteesi kokonaisuutena tällä hetkellä?

	täysin eri mieltä	osittain eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	osittain samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
Olen tyytyväinen elämääni.					
Olen tyytyväinen työhöni.					
Terveydentilani on ikäisiini verrattuna hyvä.					

76. Stressillä tarkoitetaan tilannetta, jossa ihminen tuntee itsensä jännittyneeksi, levotto-maksi, hermostuneeksi tai ahdistuneeksi tai hänen on vaikea nukkua asioiden vaivates-sa jatkuvasti mieltä.

	täysin eri mieltä	osittain eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	osittain samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
Tunnen työssäni stressioireita.					

77. Oletetaan, että työkykysi on parhaimmillaan saanut 10 pistettä. Minkä pistemäärän an-taisit nykyiselle työkyvyllesi? (0 tarkoittaa, että et tällä hetkellä pysty lainkaan työhön)

0 täysin työkyvytön
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10 työkykysi parhaimmillaan

78. Miten palvelussuhteen määräaikaisuus mielestäsi vaikuttaa muuhun elämään?

	täysin eri mieltä	osittain eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	osittain samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
Määräaikaisuus luo turvattomuutta					
Määräaikaisuus aiheuttaa taloudellista epävarmuutta					
Määräaikaisuuden vuoksi tulevaisuutta on hankala suunnitella					
Määräaikaisuuden vuoksi työt on tehtävä erityisen hyvin työsuhteen jatkuvuuden turvaamiseksi					
Määräaikaisuus rasittaa henkisesti					
Määräaikaisuuteen liittyy myönteinen vapauden tunne					
Määräaikaisuus hidastaa perheen perustamista					
Määräaikaiset työsuhteet vaikeuttavat tutkimushankkeeni tehokasta toteuttamista					
Määräaikaiset työsuhteet vaikeuttavat tieteellistä työtä					

ORIGINAL PAPERS

I

Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends

Reciprocal commitment in academic careers?
Finnish implications and international trends

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Abstract

This study explores the nature of reciprocal commitment in academic careers. The article is based on a survey conducted in autumn 2013 among fixed term employees at eight major universities in Finland (N=810). The analysis is focusing on researchers who have a doctoral degree and who are working on a fixed-term contract at their university (n=308). According to our study, researchers experience their working conditions are insecure and many of them have considered leaving their universities. Despite the fact that they find their work meaningful their uncertain and poor working conditions are related to their thoughts of leaving the university. In addition in many of the cases leaving the university is not a choice of the researcher – they wish they would not have to leave. Based on our findings, higher education institutions should carefully consider if both the benefits of fixed-term contracts and their transaction costs are related to academics' wellbeing and motivational issues. Our study highlights the importance of reciprocity and dialogue between employers and employees in the making of academic careers.

Keywords: academic career, academic work, reciprocity, commitment, trust.

1. Introduction

Working life and employment relations have become more uncertain, unpredictable, and riskier for employees. This development has been called the precarisation of work. Originally precarisation had its roots in the European social movement, where the workers felt they were left working and living without any stability or a safety net. The term and the phenomenon have now gained new content. Recent precarisation is caused, for instance, by the development of labour markets where the organisations are seeking more economic efficiency, causing substantial lay-offs, and increasing the use of temporary employment. In addition, precarious work has become pervasive, meaning that also professional and managerial jobs are becoming precarious in many sectors. (Kalleberg 2009.)

In Europe, careers in academia are considered precarious because short and fixed-term employment contracts, especially during the early stage of a career. In addition, funding is often competitive and it is common that individual academics have the responsibility to obtain their own funding. Acquiring funding and developing an academic career suggest that individual academics need to have persistence for their work

(Brechelmacher et al. 2015; Huisman et al. 2002; In Finland: Hakala 2009; Pekkola 2014; Kuoppala et al 2015.) This has created a situation in which the uncertainty at the beginning of an academic career has been said to decrease its attractiveness in Europe (Huisman et al. 2002; Aarrevaara et al. 2012, Pekkola 2010, European Commission 2008)).

The changes in higher education, higher education institutions (HEIs), and higher education systems, have changed the role of the academic profession as well (e.g. Hyde et al. 2013; Kogan & Teichler 2007). However, this is nothing new because the academic profession is responsive by its nature, and adopts to external changes. (Musselin 2007, 175). Yet, external factors changing the profession have varied over time. Currently, managerial ideology is becoming a dominant discourse and factor for defining universities and their problems – including the role of academics (Hyde et al. 2013; Slaughter and Leslie 1997). Neo-liberal policies have pushed universities to act more like enterprises, and university researchers are becoming more like state-supported entrepreneurs than traditional academics (Slaughter and Leslie 1997). In Finland, the new university act in 2009 strengthened the trend of managerialism. Consequently, universities have become autonomous financial entities and the status of the employees has changed from civil servants to employees. (Välimaa 2011.)

Regardless of the changes in policy environment, the universities continue to be both organisations and academic communities constituted by their members', i.e. individual academics. Thus, commitment is a key concept in our study due to its central importance for the academic communities and making of academic careers in new, precarious institutional environment. We use commitment in order to focus on the duality of the career process, the two sides of a career, namely the one of an employee and the one of an employer. We call this interplay and two-sided commitment 'reciprocal commitment'. Focusing on academics is important because most of the research on commitment falls under a broad category of work-life research, mainly within the disciplines of sociology, social psychology, psychology, and business economics (e.g. Baruch 1998; Cohen 2007; Feldt et al. 2016; Mamia and Lähteenmäki 2007; Meyer and Allen 1991). Commitment in academic work in the field of higher education studies is a much less problematised and studied topic.

Our empirical data was collected from university employees. Employers' commitment will therefore be analysed through employees' answers to the survey. This brings some limitations to the study. However, we would like to emphasise that the purpose of this article is not to measure the level of the employees' or employers' commitment. The aim of this article is to consider the nature of the commitment in academic careers from different perspectives, focusing more on the employees' point of view. The perceptions of the survey provide us an avenue to understand the phenomenon more in depth.

2. Careers in the context of academia

As a starting point for our working definition of an 'academic career', we adopt the classical definition of a career by van Maanen (1977, 8) because it combines all relevant factors: individuals, (higher education) institutions, and societal change. According to van Maanen:

Career reflects the relationship between people and the providers of official position, namely, institution or organisations, and how these relationships fluctuate over time. Seen in this way, the study of careers is the study of both individual and organisational change as well as of societal change.

The precarious working conditions of researchers in their early careers are well known. In addition, the fixed-term contracts and high competition for funding and available posts at every career stage are making academic careers insecure and difficult to obtain and pursue. Academic career needs ambition, persistence and willingness to take risks, for example. (Brechelmacher et al. 2015; see also Huisman et al. 2002; Pekkola et al. 2012).

There have been made attempts to restructure obscure academic career paths. The European Commission has launched the European Charter for Researchers and a Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers and later the Human Resources Strategy for Researchers (HRS4R) aiming to support it (European Commission 2015). The HRS4R policy has also been widely implemented in Finnish higher education (Siekkinen et al. 2015). In addition, the European Science Foundation and Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture have recommended universities a four-stage researcher career model with the hope of making academic careers more transparent (European Science Foundation 2009, 18; MEC 2008).

According to a recent evaluation of the Finnish four-stage career model (Välimaa et al. 2016), the four-stage career model is based on the presumption that academic careers should follow a linear upward progress. However, the reality does not respect the model because there is a large group of researchers in academia, mainly project researchers, who are not included in the model. Their careers are quite fragmented because they consist of various fixed-term, project-based contracts (Välimaa et al. 2016). In addition, many European and increasingly also Finnish universities have introduced different kinds of tenure-track systems in order offer a clearer career path towards permanent, tenured employment (Brechelmacher et al. 2015, 23; Välimaa et al. 2016; Pietilä 2015). However, despite the fact that tenure track models are strategically important they are often more or less insignificant for vast majority of academics and their career progression. In Finnish universities only 5 % of all open positions are tenure track positions in general (Välimaa et al. 2016).

In contemporary working life, careers are often described as boundaryless and employees more as entrepreneurs than traditional workers. Stahl et al. (2002) found out that employees prioritised more their personal professional development than the stable career prospects in their current working organisation. (Stahl et al 2002.) It seems that academic careers might also follow this trend (Kaulisch and Enders 2002) because of the increasing mobility of faculty members, the growing amount of part-time and adjunct staff, and the decreasing use of alternative contracts for permanent positions. At the same time, however, academics may be increasingly bound to their organisations. Recent university policies and practices emphasise the shift from collegial and professional models of governance to management models that entwine the activities of academics' more closely to the interests and needs of their organisations (Kaulisch and Enders 2005, 139; Harley et al. 2004, Farnham 1999).

The increased output-based steering and evaluation (Musselin 2013; Pekkola 2014; Kallio & Kallio 2014) have also strengthened the increased importance of the organisations in steering academic work, careers and performances. In addition, academics working in universities have been described more as individual entrepreneurs as they are increasingly responsible for finding the funding for their research. This development is connected with the trends of academic capitalism (Slaughter & Leslie 1997) and related to the entrepreneurial ethos that is becoming common in universities and thus to the construction of the entrepreneurial university (Clark 1998, 2004; Etzkowitz 2013).

We argue that academic careers have two main components which need to be analysed simultaneously: organisational and individual. Following the definition by Baruch (2004, 3), careers are made by individuals but an individual's work and career is planned and managed by an organisation. The organisation provides the positions and sets the qualifications for them, as well as establishes interrelationships between positions and mechanisms for how employees can navigate in them (Baruch 2013). Musselin (2013, 26) notes that academics always have developed their activities within organisational structures, that is, in universities. Therefore, in the career domain, the distinction between the organisational and individual dimensions is not clear-cut. In academic careers, for example, the individual and organisational goals more or less overlap when career success and proceeding in a career are discussed.

Herriot and Pemberton (1996, 760–764) describe several types of relationships between individuals, organisations, and organisational environments in their contractual model of careers (Figure 1 below illustrates only a few of the many relationships in the actual model).
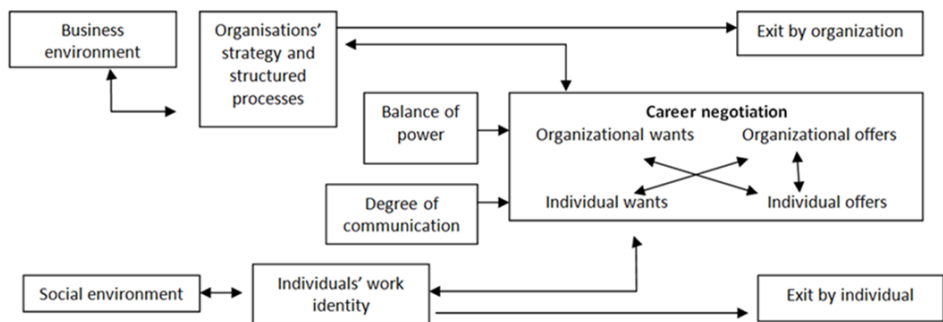
Figure 1. Herriot and Pemberton's contractual model of careers (part of the model) (Herriot and Pemberton 1996, 760)

For this study, the most interesting relationships in the context of academic careers are those between the employees and the organisation and, the one between the organisation and its strategy, structure, processes, and environment, as well as the relationship between individuals and their social environment and work identity. In 'career negotiation', there are four relationships: 'organisational wants', 'organisational offers', 'individual wants', and 'individual offers'. Changes in wants and/or offers will change the whole negotiation process. In addition, changes in the business environment will lead to changes in the 'wants' and/or 'offers' of an organisation. Moreover, changes in

the social environment or work identity will lead to changes in the 'wants' and/or 'offers' of an individual.

In the academic context, the career negotiation during the recruitment process from the employer's side means finding the right person for the specific position. Departments emphasise documented achievements that mainly indicate the research but also teaching outputs of the candidate. That indicates offers from the employees' side. However, being a good researcher is not enough, although employers' wants mostly are related to them; the candidate should be a good colleague and they should be able to integrate into the department. (Musselin 2010, 112; Välimaa et al. 2016.) The career negotiation is not taking place only in the recruitment process, it consists of repeated discussions that take into consideration the changing contexts (Herriot and Pemberton 1996, 764). In addition, the "wants" of both sides can be too demanding and that can be a reason for ending the employee – employer relationship. Job demands in academia are often considered high and many academics have difficulties to balance between their work and family duties (e.g. Kinman and Jones 2008).

3. Commitment

Commitment is a widely studied phenomenon and a commonly used concept in work-life research because a number of studies have shown that commitment is related to many factors of well-being at work (e.g. Meyer and Allen 1991; Hakanen and Koivumäki 2014). Commitment is considered to be a stabilising force that gives a direction to one's actions; that is, it binds individuals to a course of action (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, 301). However, regarding commitment, there are several different concepts that refer to the same or almost same phenomenon – though with different aspects. For example, 'job involvement', 'work engagement', and 'occupational/career commitment' refer to the employees' commitment to their work or career (Meyer and Allen 1991; Cohen 2003; Hakanen, Schaufeli, and Ahola 2008; Meyer and Herscovitch 2001). Perhaps the most studied aspect is 'organisational commitment' (e.g. Baruch 1998; Cohen 2007; Meyer and Allen 1991).

In principle, the nature of organisational commitment is that a person has a sense of commitment to her or his working organisation. It can "involve identification with, tendency to stay in, and willingness to exert efforts for the organisation" (Baruch 1998). However, Baruch emphasises that commitment is a dual type phenomenon, reciprocity in relationships where trust is a significant basis. Organisations are complex systems, which are operating towards a common goal, and organisational commitment is actually making this goal common. If organisations succeed to create and maintain the reciprocal commitment, it benefits both sides: the organisations (more loyalty, improved moral, stronger loyalty) and the employee (higher job satisfaction, a better quality of working life) and these outcomes can lead to a higher level of performance and effectiveness. (Baruch 1998.)

However, organisational commitment has been and is still changing. According to Baruch (1998), organisations have forsaken their commitment towards their employees and because of that there is no stable basis for reciprocal commitment. Today, organisations are in a competition which means focusing more on efficiency rather than on employee relationships. "It is no longer 'people are our most important asset', but

'fewer people are our most important asset'". As a conclusion Baruch states that the decision-makers in organisations should acknowledge that the level of organisational commitment will collapse if they prioritise only economic matters above all else. (Baruch 1998.)

4. Commitment and academic careers

In the context of academic careers, the organisational commitment that is reciprocal by its nature (Baruch 1998) is a rather challenging topic to study. First of all, it is often unclear what the common goal of a university is as an organisation that is porously loosely coupled (Birnbaum 1988) and in which the work is structured clearly according to two principles: disciplinary (or scientific) fields and organisations (enterprises) (Clark 1983). European academics have traditionally defined their academic identities in relation to their disciplinary traditions and (international) academic communities, rather than in relation to their universities, as seems to be the case in North America (Välimaa 1998). Therefore, their commitment to academic work is related more to their scientific communities than to universities as organisations. In addition, the rewards that academics find noteworthy are usually not organisational but instead they value scientific merits and reputation (Kaulisch and Enders 2005).

The second possible form of organisational commitment, according to Baruch, is the tendency to stay in the organisation (Baruch 1998). However, the career prospects in academia are commonly insecure and the working contracts are very short and fixed-term, at least in the beginning of an academic career (Brechelmacher 2015; In Finland: Kuoppala et al 2015). Academic researchers have different kinds of motives to continue working at certain universities; some are related to the work itself, some to the organisation, and some to private reasons. Although the academic staff members are encouraged to be mobile, staying in a faculty after attaining a doctoral degree ('academic inbreeding') is rather common, especially in smaller European nation states (e.g. Horta, Veloso, and Grediaga 2010). The third possible dimension of organisational commitment Baruch mentions is the willingness to exert efforts for the organisation. Academic work usually contains working extra hours (Kinman and Jones 2008) and what is needed is persistence and ambition, for example, in order to obtain and proceed in an academic career (Brechelmacher et al 2015).

Employers' commitment to their employees is a less studied topic. It is possible to examine empirically through the length of employment contracts and the salary levels. However, these two factors illustrate the phenomenon only narrowly, whereas the real commitment of an employer is more challenging to measure. In the context of academia, the employers' commitment is strong when the employer invests a great deal to an individual researcher or research group. In universities, employees are increasingly seen as a strategic resource, for example in the form of tenure track recruitments, which are also a means for profiling in universities (Pietilä 2014). In universities, the employees are particularly important: they hold and use the special knowledge (Rasmussen 2015) and they are connected to all central activities in universities (Baruch 2013; Kogan et al 1994.)

In the context of academic career, the question of employers' commitment is a challenging one. First of all, it is often unclear who the employer in academia is? In Finland, the university as an organisation is officially the employer but, concerning the

reciprocal relationship, the actual employer representative situates in lower-level academic units. Often it is the faculty dean who represents the employer but not in all universities and not always for all employees. However, inside the faculty there can be many persons who are in the position of a manager: dean, head of department, professor, or research group head. According to a recent study on academic careers in Finland (Välimaa et al. 2016), for project researchers the employer often is represented by the recruiting professor whereas for lecturers and senior researchers it is represented by a dean or head of department. It is also possible that, in the university context, employees consider their employer to be a faceless unit located in the central administration.

Another important notion is that there can be many "employers" in universities as loosely coupled and open systems. Professors may be very committed to her/his employees. The head of department or the dean may be acting more as an official employer. On the other hand, an individual researcher can be directly responsible for a funding agency and only loosely coupled with a university or a unit. The commitments of these "representatives of employers" commitments, motivations, and interests may differ, overlap and conflict. Therefore, one meets a challenging question when commitment is operationalised into a research question.

Kaulisch and Enders (2005) have emphasised the complexity and the dynamic nature of academic careers, which relates to the nature of academic work: academics act simultaneously in different social contexts. In addition, there are features that affect academic careers and characterise them: Firstly, the institutional embeddedness in the science system and the susceptibility to academic discipline; secondly, the different national settings and their various cultural contexts; thirdly, changing organisational contexts of academic work and the implications of global trends towards managerialism and marketization of academic careers (Kaulisch and Enders 2005). In this article, we presume that an individual's career forms and proceeds in relation to those aspects. However, we emphasise the interaction and reciprocal commitment between the individual and the organisation, taking into account the cultural context and global trends as well.

5. Data and methods

The data for this study comes from on an electronic survey conducted in 2013 (see Kuoppala et al. 2015). The survey comprised many quantitative but also a few qualitative questions related to academic work and careers. The target group of the survey were academic staff working at eight Finnish universities, mainly on fixed-term contracts. The survey had overall 810 respondents, with a response rate of 23 per cent. Regardless of the rather moderate response rate, the respondents represented all scientific fields, both genders, and different age groups. In this study we explore only the doctoral students, project researchers, postdoctoral researchers, university researchers and lecturers in the data (n=658) (see Table 1.).

Table 1. Survey respondents.

		n	%
		658	100 %
Title	University researcher / lecturer PhD	104	16 %
	Postdoctoral researcher/ researcher / project researcher PhD	204	31 %
	Doctoral student / project researcher M.A	350	53 %
Age	25-30	135	21 %
	31-40	354	54 %
	41-50	116	18 %
	51-67	53	8 %
Gender	Female	342	52 %
	Male	313	48 %
Field	Bioscience, geography, ecology, agriculture and forestry	81	13 %
	Humanities	76	12 %
	Natural sciences	116	18 %
	Medical and health science	81	13 %
	Technology	161	25 %
	Social sciences	131	20 %

Our main interest focuses on researchers who have a doctoral degree and who are working on a fixed-term contract, mainly as postdoctoral researchers (n=204, 30 %) and university researchers and lecturers (n=104, 16%). These groups are central to our study because they have gained doctoral degrees and accomplished university employment; however, they have still not attained a permanent position. To study this group, it is good to compare them with the group of doctoral students and project researchers who were 53 % of all respondents (n= 350). In our quantitative analysis, we will compare these three groups using cross tabulation.

We also explore one qualitative question and eight quantitative questions from the survey related to the researchers' working conditions (Table 2). Through these questions we explore the data on reciprocal commitment experienced by researchers.

Table 2. *Survey questions.*

Claim	Response / scale	Measuring
Length of the current working contract	Respondents marked the length of their current working contract: years and months.	The commitment of the employer**
The continuation of my career at the university is likely	1–5*	The reciprocal commitment**
My salary is justified in relation to my tasks and my personal work performance	1–5*	The commitment of the employer**
I feel my work is meaningful	1–5*	The commitment of the employee
I feel my work as a vocation	1–5*	The commitment of the employee
I identify myself as a member of the scientific community	1–5*	The commitment of the employee**
I identify myself as a member of my work unit	1–5*	The reciprocal commitment**
1. Have you considered working elsewhere than at a university?	a. No, I have not b. Yes, I have considered working elsewhere c. Yes, I have made concrete actions to work outside the university	The commitment of the employee.
2. Why have you considered working elsewhere?	Open question	The reciprocal commitment**

* Completely disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, completely agree.
** All the questions were asked from the employees, the answers are their perceptions of the questions.

Our data analysis is a secondary analysis and therefore we used it for a different purpose than for what it was initially commissioned (Dale et al. 2009). The data were collected by a project to exploring fixed-term researchers' working conditions (Kuoppala et al. 2015). Thus, originally it was not intended for a study on commitment. Regardless of these challenges, typical with secondary data, the analysis can be done in a reliable way because we know the context and the data in depth and can reliably assess the validity of the indicators.

Moreover, we studied how confident the researchers were considering the continuation of their careers at the university and how these perceptions were related to how meaningful they find their work. Two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (see table 4) made the analysis. "Meaningfulness of work" was formed with an aggregated variable (Cronbach's Alpha .702) that contained three questions from the survey:
- I find my work is meaningful (*M* 4,17, *SD* 0,915)
- I consider my work as a vocation (*M* 3,73, *SD* 1,161*)
- Research and improving my research skills are important to me in my work (*M* 4,52, *SD* 0,722)

6. Findings

6.1 Working conditions and reciprocal commitment of fixed-term researchers

We considered the working conditions and the reciprocal commitment of Finnish fixed-term academics in the data through six claims that can be seen in Table 3 below.

Table 3. The commitment and the working conditions of the employees in the survey data.

	Mean	Std. Dev.
The continuation of my career at the university is likely (n=600, p>.05)		
University researcher / lecturer (PhD)	3,07	1,32
Postdoctoral researcher	2,81	1,26
Doctoral student, project researcher (M.A)	2,78	1,18
My salary is justified in relation to my work tasks and my personal work performance (n= 637, p<.05)		
University researcher / lecturer (PhD)	3,55	1,38
Postdoctoral researcher	2,99	1,37
Doctoral student, project researcher (M.A)	2,91	1,34
I feel my work is meaningful (n= 643, p<.05)		
University researcher / lecturer (PhD)	4,42	0,64
Postdoctoral researcher	4,19	0,96
Doctoral student, project researcher (M.A)	4,08	0,94
I feel my work as a vocation (n=625, p<.001)		
University researcher / lecturer (PhD)	3,99	1,06
Postdoctoral researcher	3,98	1,1
Doctoral student, project researcher (M.A)	3,53	1,19
I identify myself as a member of the scientific community (n= 648, p<.001)		
University researcher / lecturer (PhD)	4,31	1,05
Postdoctoral researcher	4,02	1,03
Doctoral student, project researcher (M.A)	3,71	1,11
I identify myself as a member of my work unit (n= 646, p>.05)		
University researcher / lecturer (PhD)	4,22	1,12
Postdoctoral researcher	3,97	1,05
Doctoral student, project researcher (M.A)	4,04	1,02

In Table 3, it can be seen that fixed-term researchers found their work meaningful and considered it as a vocation. Furthermore, they identified themselves as a member of the scientific community as well as of their work unit. However, they felt that the continuation of their career at university was rather unsure and some of them were unsatisfied with their salaries.

There found also differences between the employee groups. Younger academics found the continuation of their careers at the university more insecure than senior academics. As many as 40 per cent of all fixed-term postdoctoral researchers and university researchers/lecturers found the continuation of their university careers unlikely. We also asked in the survey what the length of their current working contract was. Among survey respondents, fixed-term researchers' contracts varied between a few months and over five years. Postdocs had shorter contracts, from a couple of months to two years, with only five per cent having contracts for more than five years, whereas compared with university researchers / lecturers, nearly one third of whom had a contract lasting for over five years. Both before and soon after attaining their doctoral degrees, researchers usually work with short fixed-term employment contracts and with external funding aiming to stabilise their positions within their university (Brechelmacher et al. 2015, In Finland: Välimaa et al 2016; Kuoppala et al 2015.)

Doctoral students were most unsatisfied with their salaries, whereas university researchers/lecturers were most satisfied. Almost 20 per cent of the postdocs and one

third of the university researchers/lecturers completely agreed that their salaries were justified in relation to their tasks and their personal work performance. However, it is remarkable that the salary level of early-career researchers is low compared to the salaries earned in private business companies, which may be one of the facts decreasing the attractiveness of an academic career (Huisman et al. 2002).

Almost a half of all fixed-term researchers with a doctoral degree completely agreed with the claim about the meaningfulness of their work. In spite of some of its negative features, the employees' perceptions about the meaningfulness of their work and their feelings it as a vocation shows that work can be seen as personally significant. Indeed, 76 per cent of all fixed-term PhD researchers/lecturers in the data partially or completely agreed with the claim that 'research is my vocation'. Senior academics found their work more often as a vocation than younger academics.

The majority of the researchers identified themselves as members of the scientific community. Of the university researchers/lecturers 55 per cent and of postdoctoral researchers 37 per cent completely agreed with the claim. It is no surprise that in later career stages identification with the scientific community is greater: the collaboration with colleagues has lasted longer and networks with scientific communities have been built over a long time.

The majority of the researchers identified themselves also as a member of their work unit. Of postdoctoral researchers 34 per cent and of the university researchers/lecturers 53 per cent completely agreed with the claim. Interestingly, there are no major differences between the numbers of respondents identifying themselves with the scientific communities and with working units, considering the fact that especially postdocs' working contracts are often short and fixed-term. As was discussed before, researchers' commitments can focus on the scientific community and/or the university. These commitments are not mutually exclusive but rather coexisting feelings. The object of their commitment can also change during their academic career depending on their work tasks and responsibilities in their university or their working unit, and in the scientific communities.

6.2 How do the employees' perceptions about continuation of their career influence how meaningful they find their work?

We studied employees' perceptions about the continuation of their career at the university, and weather it had an effect on how meaningful they find their work.

Table 4. How the employees' perceptions about the continuation of their career at the university is related to how meaningful they found their work. Two-way analysis on variances (ANOVA).

The continuation of my career at the university is likely			
	Doctoral student / Project Researcher (M.A) n=314	Postdoctoral Researcher n=184	University Researcher / Lecturer (PhD) n=98
Mean	2,78	2,81	3,07
Std. Deviation	1,181	1,262	1,318
Meaningfulness of work			
Mean	4,01	4,26	4,33
Std. Deviation	0,775	0,739	0,65
Two-way Analysis of Variance		df (error)	Sig
The meaningfulness of work * employee category		2 (581)	p<.05
The meaningfulness of work * the continuation of my career at the university is likely		4 (581)	p<.001
The continuation of my career at the university is likely* the meaningfulness of work * employee category		8 (581)	p>.05

Based on the analysis we found out that researchers' perceptions on how meaningful they found their work differs by groups (p<.05). All three groups considered work highly meaningful. In addition, researchers' perceptions considering the continuation of their career in university was related to the meaningfulness of work (p<.001). However, there was no significant relation between the meaningfulness of work and employees' groups and their perceptions about continuation of one's career in the university (p>.05).

6.3 How many have considered leaving the university and why?

All the employee respondents analysed in the data were working with a fixed-term contract. In their situation, the importance of having a 'plan B' is often needed or at least recognised. In the context of precarious academic work, it is not surprising that in the survey data 48 per cent of respondents had considered working elsewhere than at a university and 27 per cent had taken concrete actions towards working somewhere else. Still, 25 per cent of the respondents said they had not considered leaving the university. In spite of their short fixed-term contracts, some researchers may strongly believe their contract will continue, and that is why they had not considered leaving their university. In their study, Kinman and Jones (2008) found out that academics in the UK were moderately satisfied with their work. However, the satisfaction towards the working hours and salaries, for example, were lower. In their study, 48 per cent of the respondents stated that they had seriously considered leaving the university. (Kinman and Jones, 2008).

We asked the respondents to specify in open question section why they had considered leaving the university. Almost all the answers included reasons related to precarious working conditions (135 researchers provided answers: 96 postdocs, 32 university researchers, 7 university teachers/lecturers). These included both short fixed-term contracts and continuous competition for research funding and for few positions. Some researchers, however, also mentioned poor salaries and career progression opportunities, bad management, the need for change, or increasing institutional bureaucracy. We classified answers into four categories (researchers often mentioned reasons from more than one category): (1) precariousness (n=101), (2) poor appreciation and low salaries (n=17), (3) career progression/need for change (n=12) and (4) bad personnel policy and leadership, increasing bureaucracy and the change in the employment status of university employees (n=7). We translated the original Finnish answers into English.

According to the most of the open answers the employees described why precariousness would be the reason for leaving the university.

> My life situation is changing and I feel I can't work on short fixed-term contracts. It is exhausting to wonder continuously whether the work will continue and what will happen to my family and I. If the university can't commit to me, I'm not ready or I can't even commit to the university as my employer. I am a highly educated woman, and my point of view is that my employer can't afford to act like this. As I'm aging, I'm starting to value or actually demand that my employer offers me some kind of continuity and vision for the future. I see the system, not the people, as the problem. Everyone working in a university understands what the problem is, but the system seems to be so inflexible and unworkable from the perspective of personnel management. My opinion is that the university can't afford this kind of personnel policy. (Senior researcher, female, 36)

Writing funding applications and proving one's skills constantly causes extra workload. Applying for external funding is based on very hard competition and not everyone considers it worth of doing because of the bad odds of being successful. In the open question, most of the respondents mentioned dissatisfaction with uncertain future prospects, the workload, and the stress caused by strong competition and the need to seek funding.

> The [problem is the] difficulties of predicting what is happening next and the workload. The workload comes from the need to prove your skills to apply for the next bit of contract. [I've taken] no concrete actions yet. (Postdoctoral researcher, male, 35)

> [T]he continuation of the working contract is so precarious, and just right now it seems that it's not going to continue next year. To receive external funding is impossible due to the full-cost model. Only the Finnish Academy applications are 'worth it', but there's too much competition and that's why it's too uncertain to count your whole future on that. (Researcher, female, 35)

> I've considered moving to teaching at a university of applied sciences due to a permanent employment contract and a better salary. (Postdoctoral researcher, female, 35)

Most of the researchers seem to be committed to their work and therefore the option of leaving university is possible only for them who have no other option. Many of the researchers have considered leaving the university, but the problem seems to be where to go. When researchers have invested in their careers and the hopes for proceeding in academia have been high, it might be a bitter choice to leave a university. The following quote describes the desperate feelings some researchers might have after having noticed that there is no place for them in academia.

> [I would leave] out of desperation, really. I do believe my place is the university. I want to teach and do research – this is what I have been trained to do for more than a decade. It's very hard for me to picture myself outside academia. But I think it's rather likely that in the end there is no future for me here. (Postdoctoral researcher, 39, female)

7. Discussion and conclusions

In this article, we have considered the reciprocal commitment in academic careers because of the reciprocal nature of academic careers where both dimensions are significant: organisational and individual. Furthermore, when studying academic

careers, the influence of discipline, cultural context, and global trends must be taken into account as well (Kaulisch and Enders 2005). In academia, the researcher's career success is a win-win situation: it benefits the researcher's own career as well as the organisation. As Baruch emphasises, the organisational commitment benefits both sides (1998).

The precarious working conditions specifically of junior academics might affect how attractive the academic career is seen (Huisman et al 2002). However, the short fixed-term contracts have always been a common way of becoming an academic and most of the PhD graduates should in fact find a job outside the academia after their graduation. Still the precarious working conditions and competition for funding in universities have accelerated due to overall development at a global and national level, such as due to the changes in the funding of higher education. This might have a negative effect on higher education, the quality of research and teaching, and the motivation of the researchers.

According to our empirical data, the university employees did not consider the nature of commitment as reciprocal. The offers of the organisations' do not meet the wants of employees in universities in many cases. Academic researchers in the data found their work meaningful in spite of some of its negative characteristics and they felt their work as vocation. However, over one third of our respondents in both categories felt unsure about the possibility to continue their careers in academia. Many of them had short fixed-term contracts that were in many cases shorter than one year. In addition, we found out that as many as about 40 percent of them had considered leaving their university. This research result is in line with the study of Kinman and Jones (2008). Also we found out that fixed-term researchers' perceptions about the continuation of their career at their university were connected to how meaningful they found their work. That indicates the importance of reciprocal commitment and how the precarious working conditions may decrease the working motivation of the employees.

Our study raises new avenues for future research in order to better understand the reciprocity and the interaction in an academic career and academic work. We would like to suggest that future research focuses more on reflecting on what is an academic career and what kind of an employer is the university? We would also like to propose that the nature of reciprocity and interaction taking between the university and academics should be researched in more details. We hope that our research has managed to show that reciprocity is an important new perspective to study topics related to academic work, academic careers and to the relationships between academics and universities.

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II

Recruitments in Finnish universities: Practicing strategic or pathetic HRM?

WORK AND LIFE IN ACADEMIA

Recruitments in Finnish universities: practicing strategic or pathetic HRM?

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Recruitment is a core instrument in the academic labour market. This article takes the perspective of the organisation — here, the university — on recruitment. Universities' personnel policies and practises are shifting from legally oriented personnel administration to more strategic human resource management (HRM). In Nordic countries, this shift is partly driven by the changing status of higher education institutions from state-governed bureaus to more autonomous institutions. This article provides insight into this transition, using Finland as a case example of higher education systems that have undergone drastic reform, moving from a civil servant model to autonomous personnel policy. Data were collected in 2015 for the Evaluation of the Four-Stage Career Model in Finnish Universities project. Based on the analysis of the evaluation data, it can be concluded that, despite the legal reform, old practices continue to matter in the personnel policies and management of universities. Permanent positions (formerly public posts) and the funding sources for academic work still define the nature of the HRM practices aimed towards individuals in the new universities. Some groups might call these HRM practices *strategic*, while for others, the better word would be *pathetic*.

Keywords: *Academic staff*; *managerialism*; *higher education institutions*; *recruiting academics*; *university strategy*

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Recruitment processes are a key dimension of the academic labour market. Academic recruitment is important not only as it organises academic inflow but also lays the ground for the career structure in higher education and links the academic labour market to the wider context of national economies. To study academic recruitment, the perspectives and roles of many actors (e.g. public authorities, higher education institutions, disciplinary communities and individual academics) are often considered in the broader context of national and international labour markets (Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015).

In contrast to many other professions, the standard academic recruitment process, especially for permanent professorial positions, is often long, includes several phases and is influenced by many actors and features. Differences in national traditions and specialities further increase the complexity, making it challenging to compare academic recruitment between countries (cf. Musselin, 2010). University recruitment processes can be described as two dimensional, including both informal and formal modes of recruitment (Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015). Depending on the institutional context and the open position, either official procedures or unofficial practises and traditions can dominate or direct the recruitment process. Välimaa (2005)

has conceptualised the two dimensions of academic recruitment in the context of Finnish universities. According to Välimaa (2005), in the early stages of an academic career (e.g. doctoral students and project researchers), recruitment is handled primarily by professors, and new recruits are often identified and found through the help of existing academic networks. Project researchers (representing approx. half of the academic staff) typically are recruited through informal modes and offered short-term contracts (typically from 6 to 24 months). In contrast, recruitment in higher career stages takes place through more formal processes: announcing calls for open positions, reviewing applications and interviewing the best candidates from the larger pool of applicants. As well, recruitment decisions are made by collective decision-making bodies, not individual professors (Välimaa, 2005; see also Kuoppala, Pekkola, Kivistö, Siekkinen, & Hölttä, 2015; Välimaa et al., 2016). The most important condition leading to formal or information procedures identified by Välimaa (2005) is the type of position (fixed-term/permanent).

Many European countries have revised the legal frameworks regulating academic employment, which has influenced academic recruitment procedures. In many countries, the status of academic staff members has been changed from civil servants regulated by public law to

(private) employment relationships. At the same time, universities have introduced regulations permitting taking continuous, fixed-term contracts (Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015). In addition, the career structures in universities across Europe have been harmonised with the aim to clarify the academic career path and increase mobility in the European Research Area. Accordingly, academic institutions and public funding agencies in most European countries have adopted and supported the four-stage career structure: doctoral training (stage 1), postdoctoral work (stage 2), independent researcher (stage 3) and established researchers (stage 4), including professors, research professors, directors and senior scientists. The European Science Foundation (2009) has also recommended that European universities adopt the four-stage career model.

The Finnish university system has undergone a recent series of reforms very much in line with these broader international trends. Most notable has been the revision of national legislation, particularly the 2010 Universities Act. Organisationally, Finnish universities were an organic part of the overall government body until the enactment of the Universities Act, which changed the status of university employees from civil servants to private employees (Välimaa, 2011). The four-stage career model has been endorsed by the Finnish Ministry of Education (MoE, 2008) and subsequently adopted by Finnish universities. Along with the four-stage career model, Finnish universities have introduced the tenure-track models, again following wider European trends (see, e.g., Brechelmacher, Park, Ates, & Campbell, 2015). There are many variations of the tenure-track model, but they share a basic idea: an individual researcher is promised opportunities to proceed into the final career stage — professorship — given that periodic performance reviews warrant it. With the tenure-track model, Finnish universities have aimed to attract international researchers and profile the universities. However, at the moment, tenure-track recruitment does not play a major role in academic recruitment in Finland, although the number of tenure-track positions has been increasing (Pietilä, 2015; Välimaa et al., 2016).

In this article, we focus on academic recruitment in Finnish universities from the organisational perspective. The aim is to determine whether recruitment practices still follow the previously described dual structure of informal and formal recruitments. As well, we examine whether the new legal status of universities and recently introduced managerial practices (such as strategic human resource management) have changed the structure and practices and promoted a more holistic approach towards human resources (HR) in Finnish higher education institutions. In doing so, we draw on insights from recent studies on the application of recruitment practices at different career stages to better understand their emergence in Finnish universities (see Kuoppala et al., 2015; Välimaa et al.,

2016). As well, we employ empirical survey data collected for the Evaluation of the Four-Stage Career Model in Finnish Universities project commissioned by the Finnish Ministry of Culture and Education (MoEC) in 2015.

This article is structured as follows. First, we explore staff positions at universities and whether they are considered to be strategic resources for universities. Then, we describe the trends and context in which human resource management (HRM) has developed in Finnish universities and in what ways it has developed. Next, we examine the strategic HRM and recruitment practices at Finnish universities. Lastly, we discuss the implications of the findings and conclude with observations regarding whether university recruitment practices and staff follow the basic principles of holistic strategic HRM or whether the assumption of the two dimensions of academic recruitment remains valid.

Staff as a strategic resource in universities

European universities' decision-making and governance systems have been the subject of numerous reforms. Managerialism, in particular, has become a dominant discourse and practice in contemporary universities as business management techniques, such as strategic management, have adopted in a shift from collective decision-making to more individualised forms of leadership (Hyde, Clark, & Drennan, 2013; Mora, 2001; Välimaa, 2011). The managerial techniques used by universities have often created internal tensions due to differences with the self-understanding of the institutions. As Mora (2001) explains, there is a general agreement in higher education that management techniques should be used more, but there is also a consensus that universities should not be governed like private enterprises. Mora stresses that universities should not be pushed beyond their 'natural limits' (2001, p. 107) and that universities have various organisational features which large-scale governance reforms should take into account. One such special feature is the presence of multiple — and sometimes conflicting — goals and interests (e.g. Mora, 2001; Patterson, 2001).

Strategic management has created the need to think of staff as strategic assets. This is hardly surprising as in general, human talent can be considered to be among the most important prerequisites for organisational success. To maintain competitiveness in a knowledge-based economy, organisations have to seek, attract and recruit talented people (Tung, 2008). An increased emphasis on strategic HRM in universities has become a reality. According to Shah (2013), strategic planning is important to all higher education institutions, especially amid the current unstable economic landscape of reduced public funding and a rapidly changing external operating environment.

Although strategic HRM, a familiar management style in private enterprises, has not yet fully penetrated the

governance of universities, university staff are increasingly seen as strategic resources. This development is unsurprising as the role of staff in universities is especially important, connected to all the central activities of a university: teaching, research and service (Baruch, 2013; Kogan, Moses, & El-Khawas, 1994). The key value of academic professionals is that they possess special skills and knowledge that are necessary preconditions for creating and transmitting new knowledge (Mora, 2001; Rasmussen, 2015). Therefore, strategic thinking whenever it deals directly with university staff should first consider what the main purpose of the institution is and, based on that purpose, what kind of people should work for it (Baruch, 2013). Tenure-track professors are regarded especially key strategic resources as they are also a means of strategic positioning in universities (Pietilä, 2015). Project researchers with short, fixed-term contracts are seen as a more peripheral workforce than staff in higher career stages, who usually have permanent or longer fixed-term contracts and are more responsible for putting strategy into practice (see e.g. Brechelmacher et al., 2015; Välimaa, 2005; Välimaa et al., 2016).

Contextual background of HRM at Finnish universities

Through the 1950s, Finnish universities were mostly elite institutions (see Trow, 1973). In the early 1960s, the university system entered the period of massification as new regional universities were established to fulfil the aims of regional policy and social and geographical equality. In the late 1980s, universities' shifted their attention to science and technology policies and eventually to knowledge-based economies and competitiveness (e.g. Hakala, 2009; Heiskala, 2011; Kivinen, Rinne, & Ketonen, 1993; Tirronen, 2007). In the late 1990s, this approach began to focus more on a managerial-professional model with performance-based funding. These changes were all related to a broader, more general shift in state administration from regulative steering to more performance-based steering policy in line with the ideals of new public management (NPM) (Lehtinen, Kuoppala, & Pekkola, 2013; cf. Ojala, 2003). NPM is a new-managerialistic trend, which aims to raise the level of effectiveness in public sector services (Evetts, 2009; Parsons, 1995).

These changes had enormous impacts on universities' recruitment practices. Even in the early 1990s, university personnel policy was based merely on vacancies set by the Finnish Parliament based on proposals from the Finnish Ministry of Education. In 1993, universities (along with other 'performance units' within state administrative bodies) gained the right to make their own decisions to establish, change and close vacancies within their budget framework. It should be mentioned that professors were appointed by the president of the Republic of Finland until 1998 and that the qualifications for these positions were

regulated by legislation, first in the statutes for each university and later in the common statute for all universities. Universities' authority to decide their own HR, however, was expanded in the 1990s and early 2000s as personnel policy was gradually removed from state authority (Lehtinen, Kuoppala, & Pekkola, 2015; Pekkola, 2014).

In 2010, the Universities Act came into effect, changing the legal status of universities and granting them a higher level of financial autonomy. Formerly, public positions were transferred to the domain of private employment contracts, and consequently, universities became independent employers in judicial terms (Välimaa, 2011). The only soft-law policy instrument that still has direct effects on universities' personnel policies is the four-stage career model, which provides guidelines for categorising academic positions and titles (MoE, 2008; Pekkola, 2014; Välimaa et al., 2016). Another guiding principle grounded in Nordic labour market tradition is a collective employment agreement in which all Finnish universities, except Aalto University, have agreed to participate.

HRM and current policy reforms

HRM is the most widely recognised term referring to the management of people in organisations and encompasses all management-related activities regarding work and people in formal organisations (Boxall & Purcell, 2008) In the public sector, the managerial technique of HRM can be linked to NPM. NPM can be considered to be a business-based managerial practice applied in public organisations to increase their efficiency and ensure the effective implementation of public policies (Evetts, 2009; Parsons, 1995). Strategic HRM, whose aim is to integrate HRM with organisational strategies, is a new phenomenon in Finland as it requires at least partial independence from the government and autonomous decision-making powers in staff issues, as well as established HR practices aimed at increasing work performance and efficiency. As Järvalt (2012) observes:

> The use of strategic HRM in the public service is related to changes in the administrative systems on a larger scale. . . . The emergence of HRM as a specific label in the public service coincided with the rise of New Public Management (NPM) in the 1980s. NPM has been characterised by the considerable decentralisation of public-service management, emphasising administrative efficiency and flexibility. (p. 6)

Järvalt (2012, p. 7) compares the basic assumptions of HRM and NPM (see Table 1). Although somewhat simplistic, this comparison provides a good starting point for analysing HRM in Finnish universities as the links between HRM and NPM are, in many respects, quite obvious. Within the context of administrative reforms, the resource dimension of HRM often takes precedence over the human dimension. The classical distinction between

Table 1. New public management and human resource management.

Area	Elements in new public management	Elements in human resource management	Implications for the Finnish university setting
External environment	– Driven by external pressure, changing environment and neoliberal ideas – Market orientation, competition in the provision of public services – Stakeholder (e.g. customer) orientation – Focus on organisational efficiency, effectiveness and productivity – Emphasis on cost reduction, outsourcing and privatisation	– Driven by external pressure, changing environments and neoliberal ideas – Market and customer orientation – Individualist, flexible and competitive notion of employment relationship – Focus on HR advantages; consequently, integration of HRM with organisational strategy	– Close connection of HRM practices and recruitment to external funding sources – Increasing responsiveness of support services to the research grant market – Researchers as individual entrepreneurs with fixed-term contracts – Push from the MoEC to integrate HRM practices and organisational strategy
Organisational structures and processes	– Decentralisation, de-bureaucratisation, agencification and flexibility of structures – Devolution of responsibility – Emphasis shifted from input and process to output and outcome	– Organisational flexibility – Decentralisation, flat structures – Devolution of responsibility for HR	– High number of fixed-term contracts – Research work force primarily coordinated in research groups – New HR departments in central administration (opposed to development)
Performance management and measurement system	– Performance-driven, productivity- and efficiency-enhancing measures – Systematic assessment of performance through targets, standards, indicators, measurement and control systems	– Emphasis on employees' contribution to the bottom line, productivity- and commitment-enhancing measures – Systematic performance assessment	– Performance-based funding for universities – Performance-based salary system – Performance evaluation and output measurements for academic work – Increasing performance evaluation in the new career models, especially in tenure tracks; promotion based on performance
Role of management and managers	– Emphasis on letting the managers manage, managerial discretion and accountability – Primacy of the management function	– Overall integration of HRM into line management – Emphasis on the role of top management and its strategic partnership with HR professionals	– Electronic systems used for working time allocation, work planning, development discussions and salary negotiations with line managers – Inclusion of HR managers in rectors' management group
Employees and organisational culture	– Employee empowerment, emphasis on business-like attitudes of public servants – Focus on leadership	– Importance of building employee trust, common values and commitment to jobs and the organisation – Focus on leadership	– Increasing competition – Entrepreneurial ethos

Adapted from Järvalt (2012, p. 7).

hard and soft HRM (Guest, 1987; Storey, 1992) describes this duality in HRM practices. The connections between administrative reforms and HRM are shown in Table 1. The implications for Finnish universities are presented in the right-most column.

The changing policy context, especially since the introduction of performance-based steering (*tulosohjaus*), the Finnish version of NPM, has also influenced the personnel policy structures and processes of Finnish universities. Traditional, central-government-driven, normative personnel administration has developed into a corporatist personnel policy involving labour market participation and internal, tripartite university politics. This transformation has led to the university management of HR and, since the enactment of the Universities Act, strategic HRM closely connected to the state performance-based steering system (Lehtinen et al., 2015).

Strategic HRM and higher education recruitment

Recent years have seen a growth in institutional autonomy throughout Europe, with universities gaining greater responsibility for managing their own staff. This change is in line with broader developments as universities have gradually become more goal-oriented, accountable organisational actors with a unified mission and strategy characterised by stronger central coordination and control (Pietilä, 2015). Slowly but steadily, European universities are ending the traditional practice of giving much of the actual leadership to the collegial professorial body and instead favouring institutional management (Kogan et al., 1994).

These developments have led to judicial and practical expectations that universities act as real employers, in the sense that they have comprehensive strategies or processes in place for managing their HR. By definition, HRM in universities encompasses all the administrative and coordinative tasks related to personnel planning, as well as recruitment processes, performance reviews, compensation and salary schemes, staff retention policies (i.e. maintaining motivation and job satisfaction) and the development of HR (e.g. staff training) (Pellert, 2007).

In many cases, however, this transition has not yet resulted in comprehensive changes to HRM practices and processes. Universities are often still constrained by their traditional organisational characteristics and function as fragmented, loosely coupled organisations (Pekkola & Kivistö, 2016; Weick, 1976). Much of this loose coupling arises from the central influence of academic disciplines on the organisational dynamics of universities. Disciplines have differing cultures, values and means of collegial recognition, which all have implications for various dimensions of HRM (see Becher & Trowler, 2001). The full development of HR strategies appears to be a difficult task for universities, which are, by nature, made of a traditionally decentralised staff of specialised experts who have resource policies oriented towards their specific disciplines and logics, not towards the whole university and its overall goals, strategies and profile (Clark, 1983; Pellert, 2007).

As Pellert (2007, p. 109) eloquently concludes, a university, as an institution, is 'characterised by its status as a subordinate entity with little or no authority to shape its own culture … [which] is now required to manage its human resources instead of simply administering its staff'. This situation presents an urgent need for universities and their HRM departments to ensure that comprehensive staffing policies are consistently and explicitly linked to institutional and performance-unit-level strategies. Recruitment processes, in particular, can be considered to be the key instruments which universities can use strategically to set the future direction of their research and teaching profiles and productivity (Pietilä, 2015).

Data and analysis methods

The data analysed in this article were gathered from a survey sent to the deans and heads of the administration of faculties and to personnel managers and administrators responsible for personnel in the central administration of Finnish universities. The survey was administered during the summer of 2015 as part of the Evaluation of the Finnish Four-Stage Career Model project. The survey was accompanied with a reference letter from the Ministry of Education and Culture, which partly explains the high response rate of 77% ($N = 131$) (see Table 2). The survey questions were related to universities' strategic HRM, four-stage career model, recruitment and tenure-track model.

Table 2. Survey respondents.

	N	%
Area of position		
Natural sciences	17	13
Technology	16	12
Medicine and health sciences	19	15
Agriculture and forestry	2	2
Social sciences	47	36
Humanities	14	11
Other	3	2
University administration	13	10
Position title		
Dean/other academic leader	47	36
Personnel manager	9	7
Chief administrator	9	7
Head of administration	58	44
Other	3	2
Total	131	100

The data were analysed descriptively to gain insight into the respondents' perceptions of the recruitment practices in their units. Data from two questions on the specific responsibility of defining job descriptions and the roles and responsibilities in selection procedures in different career stages were collected only from the respondents who were the heads of administration in a faculty (or an equivalent unit) ($n = 58$).

Findings

Strategicness of human resource policies

According to the survey respondents, Finnish universities' recruitment processes appeared to be very positive and streamlined (see Figure 1). Universities' personnel policy was perceived as supporting the goals set in universities' strategy (73% of respondents completely or partially agreed), and most performance units took these goals into consideration in their personnel selection procedures (85% of respondents completely or partially agreed). Almost all the respondents (93%) completely or partially agreed with the claim that their units had a personnel plan, and the vast majority indicated that the personnel plan was consistently followed (86% of respondents completely or partially agreed). Recruitment in respondents' units was mostly international in reach (77% of respondents completely or partially agreed), and national in reach for only 33% of the respondents. At the unit level, recruitment practices were seen as a means for controlling the university's public image (86% of respondents completely or partially agreed), while most respondents (94%) completely or partially agreed with the claim that the selection criteria were well informed and related to the job descriptions. Two-thirds of the respondents (67%)

partially or completely agreed with the claim that, in their universities, recruitment practices were applied consistently across all academic disciplines (Figure 1).

The survey responses suggest that university strategies have successfully steered the personnel policies and recruitment practices of universities and performance units. Also, according to the data, recruitment practices were viewed as a means to control universities' public image. The respondents reported that nearly all the units had a personnel plan which was followed at the performance-unit level.

However, some respondents described the university recruitment practices as inconsistent for all academics. As well, more than 33% of the respondents thought that recruitments were nationally oriented. These results could indicate contradictions between recruitment practices and Finnish university strategies, which emphasises the importance of internationality in university recruitment. However, both results could also be explained by the application of different recruitment practices (informal and formal) at different career stages. As well, recruitment practices could also vary considerably within staff groups. The standardisation of recruitment strategies and practices is a new effort in Finnish universities, and various practices persist even within a single one unit (Välimaa et al., 2016). Overall, according to middle managers and administrators, the strategic discourse in the context of recruitment seems to be widely accepted in Finnish universities.

Recruitment and stratification of academic workforce

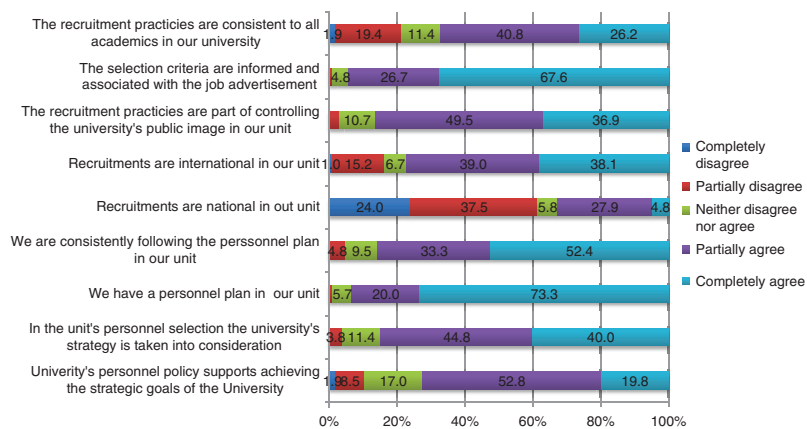The survey was intended to identify the primary influence on defining job descriptions and the positions in charge

Fig. 1.   Recruitment claims by percentage of respondents.

of making the final selections in the recruitment processes in the respondents' performance units. The positions in charge included deans, professors, research team leaders, heads of departments, faculty and departmental administration, recruitment committees, external reviewers, rectors and collective bodies at the departmental level (department councils) and the faculty level (faculty councils).

The positions and bodies with the primary influence on defining job descriptions are shown in Figure 2. In the recruitment processes for earlier career stages, the authority of professors and research team leaders was perceived to be significant, especially when determining the job requirements of project researchers. When the job descriptions of postdoctoral researchers, lecturers and senior researchers were defined, the authority of the head of department and the department council and the recruitment committee increased. In the recruitment of professors and the invitation procedures (a specific person is appointed to a position without an open call) and tenure track candidates, the authority of the head of department and the recruitment committee were dominant (Figure 2).

Figure 2 reveals some patterns in job descriptions. For instance, project researchers' job descriptions were decided by professors or other research team leaders, but these individuals' role decreased when defining doctoral students' and postdoctoral researchers' job descriptions. For the positions of lecturers and senior researcher whose work was more closely bound to the mission of and work conducted by faculties (teaching with wider course and program responsibilities, research activities and possible project responsibilities), decisions on job descriptions were usually made by the heads of departments. In the case of the most important and prestigious positions (tenure-track positions and professorships), recruitment committees were perceived to have the most significant authority in defining job descriptions.

Recruitment decisions in early career stages, most often for project researchers and doctoral students, were mostly influenced by deans and heads of departments (Figure 3). In the case of lecturers and senior researchers, the situation was almost the same, but in some institutions, faculty councils and rectors might play a role and have the primary influence in decision-making. The picture changed radically when exploring recruitment practices concerning professors, invitation procedures and tenure-track candidates. In those groups, recruitment committees and external reviewers held the most significant authority (Figure 3).

In actual recruitment decisions in middle and lower career stages, the authority remained in the hands of line managers. The authority of the professor or research team leader did not seem to be influential even in recruiting decisions regarding early career stages. Deans' authority, however, was again significant. Surprisingly, the authority when recruiting the postdoctoral researchers postdoctoral researchers, lecturers and senior researchers did not differ much in the recruitment decisions for doctoral students and project researchers. The only major difference in senior researcher and lecturer recruitment decisions was rectors' higher level of influence. Recruitment committees and external reviewers also had considerable significance in the recruitment decisions for professors and tenure-track candidates. Recruitment committees also held an authoritative position when the invitation procedure was used in recruitment. However, selection of professors by invitation was quite rare, used in only 10 − 15% of cases (Välimaa et al., 2016).
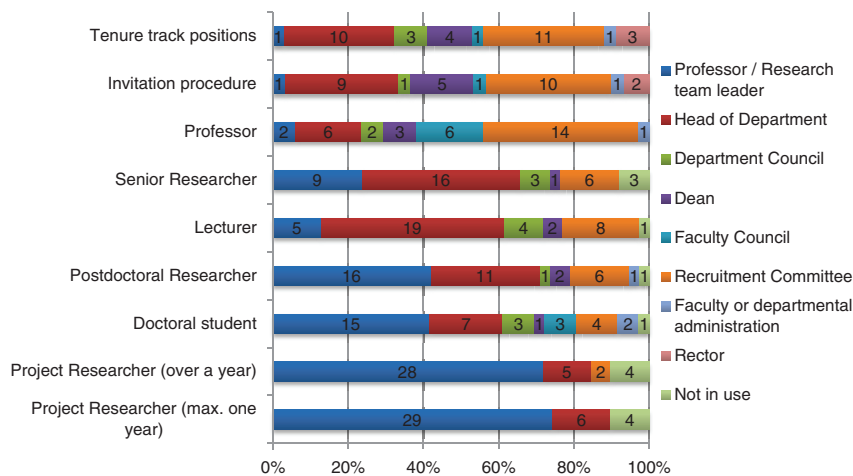

Fig. 2. Positions or bodies in charge of defining job descriptions (number of cases).
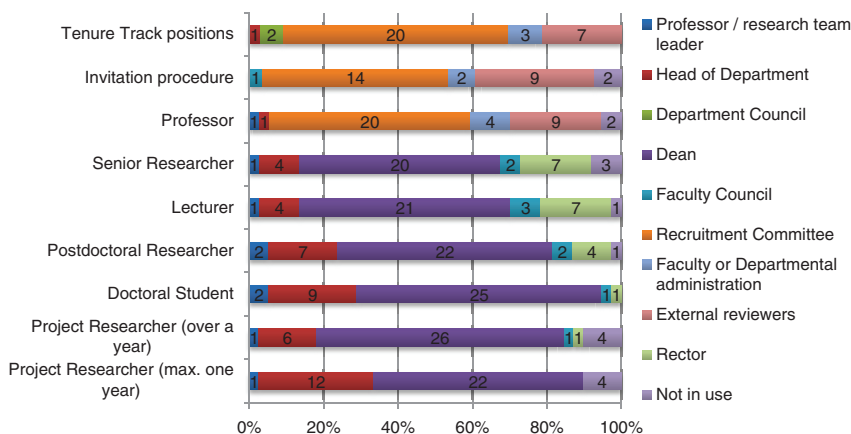
Fig. 3. Influence of positions and bodies in recruitment decisions (number of cases).

The hierarchy of early and higher career stages can be viewed as having substantial influence in both the definitions of job description and the making of actual recruitment decisions. The same conclusions were also reached by Välimaa (2005); see also Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015). However, interestingly, in the present study, the recruitment practices can be divided into three groups:

- **Group 1:** professors (including those recruited through invitation) and tenure-track candidates
- **Group 2:** doctoral students, postdoctoral researchers (i.e. qualifying positions), lecturers and senior researchers (i.e. departmental positions)
- **Group 3**: project researchers

These groups of different academic staff also emerged in the statistical data collected for the Evaluation on Four-Stage Career Model project. According to the data on all open positions ($N = 3720$), 29% ($n = 1085$) were permanent, and 71% ($n = 2635$) were for fixed terms. In first and second career stages, most open positions were for fixed terms, while in the third and fourth career stages, most open positions were permanent (Välimaa et al., 2016).

Discussion

It seems that, regardless of policy changes and the implementation of strategic HRM in the management practices of Finnish universities, the stratification of the management of academic workforce is still evident in daily practices, as described by Välimaa (2005); for European universities, see Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015). However, the empirical evidence shows that there are three, rather than two, stratified groups that are subjected to different HRM measures and consequently have different strategic status.

In Table 3, the findings are presented in the context of strategic HRM recruitment practices. University jobs can be categorised into three distinct groups based on recruitment practices: (1) professors and tenure-track positions; (2) so-called departmental positions (university lecturers and senior researchers) and qualifying positions (postdoctoral researchers and doctoral students); and (3) contingent or precarious positions (project researchers). Recruitment practices vary substantially among these groups. Candidates in the first group are recruited according to professional principles and evaluated by their academic peers. The strategic component is usually the strongest influence in defining positions as recruitment is also a means of profiling universities (Pietilä, 2015). The departmental and qualifying positions are more strictly controlled by organisational strategic steering, and thus, their job description and selection include strategic components. However, the most significant differences can be found between the third group and the other two groups as more informal recruitment practices are applied in the third group. The connection to strategic personnel planning is also weak in the third group as it is considered to be a supportive labour force for strategy implementation, not a group that constructs or implements strategies itself. Whereas the recruitment of the first and second groups can be called *strategic*, the recruitment procedures for the third group are, from the managerial perspective, rather *pathetic*.

Conclusions

Recruitment is an important area for research as it considers organisations' (universities') needs and strategies and individuals' (researchers') motives and personal strategies. Studying recruitment should take into account the role of public authorities, academic disciplines and the

Table 3. Three groups of university staff by recruitment, strategic resources and human resource management.

Group	Job titles	Recruitment practices
Group 1 Professional recruitment	Professorial positions: professors and tenure-track positions	– Open call (excluding those invited) – International recruitment – Definition of job descriptions by recruitment committees, deans, heads of departments – Recruitment decisions by recruitment committees, external reviewers
Group 2 Organisational recruitment	Qualifying positions: doctoral students and postdoctoral researchers Departmental positions: lecturers and senior researchers in the third career stage	– Open-call recruitment – Mostly international in reach – Fixed-term or permanent contracts – Definition of job descriptions by heads of departments, professors, recruitment committees – Recruitment decisions by deans, heads of departments, rectors
Group 3 Unofficial and local recruitment	Externally funded positions: project researchers	– Informal recruitment – Local recruitment – Finding of potential candidates through networks – Fixed-term contracts – Definition of job descriptions by professors – Recruitment decisions by deans, heads of departments

broader labour market context (Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015). Changes within and outside universities influence their recruitment. For example, state recommendations to the academic career structure (e.g. recommendation of the four-stage career model), increasing demand for international mobility and use of the tenure-track model have changed the HRM strategies and recruitment in Finnish universities. In line with this, interconnections between NPM and HRM, as categorised by Järvalt (2012), can be seen in several dimensions of recruitment processes, including but not limited to a high number of fixed-term contracts in early career stages and greater performance orientation, particularly in the establishment of tenure-track positions.

In this research, we explored the recruitment practices in Finnish universities from the organisational perspective to determine whether the application of different recruitment practices at different career stages has created different groups. We also sought to reveal the potential connections between recruitment and university strategies. Based on the data analysis, we found that recruitment in universities was connected to university strategies, which seemed to be quite consistent and streamlined. There were differences, however, which might be partly related to the different recruitment practices used in the early and higher career stages (reported in Finland by Välimaa, 2005, and in European universities by Fumasoli & Goastellec, 2015); as acknowledged, two-sided, formal and informal recruitment processes existed. From the responses to the survey questions specifically addressed to

faculty-level heads of administration, it can be concluded that different recruitment practices indeed have been applied in different career stages. Based on this observation and the findings in earlier studies (see Kuoppala et al., 2015; Välimaa et al., 2016), we established three groups that differ according to the type of recruitment practices applied to them. These groups also differed in how strongly universities saw them as strategic resources.

Universities' growing autonomy has generated new thinking about how academics can be more managed. Rules and principles for managing academics, including more standardised recruitment processes, have become significant issues in higher education. The age distribution in universities has also influenced the importance of recruitment and will continue to do so in the near future (Musselin, 2010). It is crucial that universities think strategically about their needs and goals, how they should be accomplished and who should be assigned to accomplish them (Baruch, 2013; Shah, 2013).

We would like to emphasise that there are both different groups in academic staff and, at the same time, different kinds of recruitment practices applied. It is important that universities recognise these different groups and stages in academic recruitment and careers, so that they can implement different HRM practices for these groups and think more strategically about the composition of staff. This study provides only a limited picture of the subject; more research is needed to better understand the process and role of different actors in academic recruitment in Finland and abroad.

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III

Change and continuity in the academic profession – Finnish universities as living labs

Change and continuity in the academic profession: Finnish universities as living labs

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Abstract

The academic profession is challenged by the changing environment. Global trends, such as managerialism and new public management, have been influencing all public organizations, including universities. The academic profession is dynamic by its nature; it reflects any changes in its environment. However, the academic profession is also characterized by continuity. In this study, we describe the current changes and continuities of the academic profession in Finland, as perceived by top and middle managers employed in Finnish Universities. We found out that logics and values by organizational professionalism are emphasized; however, occupational professionalism is also deeply rooted in the practices of Finnish universities. Additionally, we found out that changes are often associated with managerial values, such as control and evaluation, and in contrast, the continuities of academic work are commonly related to professorial authority and academic identity. These two aspects of the profession and organization are not opposite, they occur simultaneously; however, there are tensions between them. In this article, we would like to emphasize that change of the academic profession is a hybrid, there exists both, changes and continuities in the logics and values related to the profession and the organization.

Keywords Academic profession · Managerialism · New public management · Change · Universities

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Introduction

All professions are challenged by the changing environment (Carvalho 2014). The academic profession is of no exception; it is dynamic by nature and therefore reflects any changes in its environment (Musselin 2007). However, professional groups and professionalism are also characterized by continuity. To foster a deeper understanding of the academic profession and its dynamic nature, we need to explore how it is changing, adapting, and/or resisting (Evetts 2010; Pekkola 2009).

The work of academic professionals has become increasingly managed, evaluated, and measured using techniques derived from profit organizations, aiming to maximize their performance. Many authors worry about the deteriorating impact of these new structures and practices and the organizational values they impose, which can also threaten the identity of academics and decrease the quality of academic work (e.g., Kallio and Kallio 2014; Martin-Sardesai and Guthrie 2018; Ylijoki and Ursin 2015). However, changes are not always "bad", and continuities are not always "good"; for instance, a growing number of university employees are asking for transparency, clear reward structures, and equity while opposing managerial and bureaucratic practices, but hail collegial practices that can be exclusive and oligarchic by nature (cf. Pekkola 2014).

Academics working in universities are situated in an interface of professional and organizational values, practices, and logics. In this article, we study the perceptions of top and middle university managers on how organizational and occupational professionalism (Evetts 2009) coexist in Finnish universities. These aspects are approached by applying Evetts' (2009) framework of the changes and continuities in professional values. We emphasize that these logics are not entirely independent nor conflicting, but intertwined and parallel, thus creating a hybrid. However, to identify the different aspects of the hybridity, it is useful to examine the development of this dichotomy.

The article is organized as follows. First, we will describe the global trends that have an influence on the work and working environment of academics, such as new public management (NPM) and managerialism. Second, we will address the general features of the changing profession, introducing the ideal types of organizational and occupational professionalism (Evetts 2009) as well as the hybrid model (e.g., Noordegraaf 2015), and also the changes and continuities in professional values (Evetts 2009). Third, we will discuss the changing academic profession and fourth, the Finnish context. Fifth, we will describe the qualitative data used in this study, and sixth, we will analyse our data using Evetts' (2009) theoretical framework on changes and continuities in professionalism. At the end, we will discuss the results and identify the changes and continuities, as well as the hybrid nature of academic profession.

Global policy trends influencing the academic profession

Direct and indirect economic pressures on higher education compel universities to build more entrepreneurial and corporate structures into their activities (Carvalho and Santiago 2010). Additionally, universities have adapted more "market-like" behavior (Slaughter and Leslie 1997). Two overlapping global trends in public policy and administration have had a significant influence on the academic profession: NPM and managerialism. Although these trends are interconnected, NPM emphasizes more efficient public organizations whereas managerialism describes an ideology of management (Deem and Brehony 2005).

NPM emerged from the UK in the 1980s, in response to the peoples' demands for a cheaper and more efficient public sector during times of economic recession (Evetts 2009; Ferlie et al. 2008). NPM has influenced the implementation of numerous reforms in European higher education, which aimed to increase productivity and efficiency. To accomplish these goals, institutes of higher education began implementing performance evaluations and monitoring their research and teaching activities. In addition, as institutional governance held a central position in this change, academic leaders were expected to take on a managerial role. The power of collegial bodies in universities therefore shrunk while the power of managers and other non-academic leaders expanded (Bleiklie et al. 2011; Deem 1998, 2004). Marginson (2008, p. 270) described NPM techniques in universities, which can include the following:

– Funding-based economic incentives,
– User-driven production,
– Product formats,
– The pricing and sale of outputs,
– Entrepreneurial production,
– Output monitoring and measurements,
– Competitive ranking of personnel and of institutions,
– Performance management,
– Performance pay,
– Contracts with and incentives to partner with industry and commercialize research motivations and products,
– Systems of accountability audit including contracts with government that implement external controls.

All listed techniques can be seen as more or less formal ways of controlling and counting academic work and outputs. This has a direct or indirect impact on the coordination and values of academic work.

Managerialism (or new managerialism [cf. Deem 2004; Deem and Brehony 2005]) is an ideology born from the earlier and narrower concept of "management". Under this ideology, managers believe that they have advanced knowledge and the know-how to run an organization efficiently. Recently, managerialism has spread from applications in business to those in public institutions, as well as to society at large (Deem and Brehony 2005; Klikauer 2015). Managerialism emphasizes competition, the marketization of public sector services, and monitoring efficiency through performance evaluations and outcome measurements (Deem 1998). Its influence is greatest when "professionality is replaced by accountability; collegiality by competition and interpersonal performative comparison" (Ball 1997, p. 261).

In today's universities, management is seen as a central tool for answering the needs of the changing external environment (Kogan and Teichler 2007; Shah 2013, p. 28; Shah and Sid Nair 2014). This tool has taken up a significant role in universities, thus increasing the power of managers and especially deans (Deem and Brehony 2005). University managers constitute a group of their own, and the division between them and academics who do not hold a managerial role is rather large (Deem 2004; Pekkola et al. 2018). However, there also exists an opposite trend in which the roles of academics are increasingly hybridized as the activities of higher education change (Kogan and Teichler 2007; Musselin 2007; Whitchurch 2008).

The changing concept of professionalism in academic work

NPM and managerialism are important factors in the development of the academic profession. Evetts (2009) has been studying the influence of NPM on professional groups and professionalism. She argues that professionalism is changing and distinguished two (ideal, heuristic) types of professionalism (see Table 1):

1. Organizational professionalism is manifested by a discourse of control used by the organizations' managers. It involves rational-legal forms of authority, standardized work procedures and practices, and hierarchical structures of decision-making and authority, as well as accountability and performance review. These all are related to managerialism, which is supported and emphasized by these practices and principles.
2. Occupational professionalism is manifested by discourse constructed in professional groups, involving collegial authority. This authority is based on practitioner autonomy, assessment, and discretionary judgement. The relations between the practitioners and employers (as well as the clients) are based on trust. Control is operationalized by the practitioners themselves, which are guided by the codes of their professional ethics (Evetts 2009, p. 251).

These two concepts describe the ideal, heuristic types of organizational and occupational professionalism. While the newer concept of organizational professionalism is exposed to and integrated with the values and principles of NPM and managerialism, occupational professionalism is based on professional values and ethics (Evetts 2009). In practice, however, these concepts are blurred; they occur simultaneously and as a hybrid (Noordegraaf 2015). Tight (2014) has stated that in higher education, these two aspects are not dichotomous, and they both are important for the future of higher education.

Hybridism has been studied especially in the area of the public administration and organizational research (see e.g., Johanson and Vakkuri 2018). There are also recent attempts to understand the hybridity in the context of professional work (Noordegraaf 2015) and management positions in professional work (Mcgivern et al. 2015; Hendrikx and van Gestel 2017). In higher education research, it has recently gained an increasing amount of attention (Brückmann and Carvalho 2018; Lepori 2016). However, already Clark stated that in higher

Table 1 Two ideal types of professionalism in knowledge-based work (adapted from Evetts 2009)

Organizational professionalism	Occupational professionalism
Discourse of control used increasingly by managers in work organizations	Discourse constructed within professional groups
Rational-legal forms of authority	Collegial authority
Standardized procedures	Discretion and occupational control of the work
Hierarchical structures of authority and decision-making	Practitioner trust by both clients and employers
Managerialism	Controls operationalized by practitioners
Accountability and externalized forms of regulation, target setting, and performance review	Professional ethics monitored by institutions and associations
Linked to Weberian models of organization	Located in Durkheim's model of occupations as moral communities

education, hybrid principles exist (Clark 1983). Noordegraaf described how two aspects, managerial and professional, come together (2015, 6):

> "Professional work becomes a matter of combining professional and managerial principles, which do not so much create 'controlled professionalism' but more ambivalent, balanced, and subtle forms of 'managed professionalism'—professional action is positioned within managed and organized surroundings that both respect and restrain professional spaces."

In universities, hybridity has many implications. The roles of academics are increasingly mixed. Not only they become part of conducting the organizational control but also they become part of the control; the power of "manager-academics" in these new institutional frames has been increased (Deem 2004; see also Tight 2014). One example of implications of hybridism in universities can be found in the issues arising on the concrete level of activities; for example, the performance evaluations. In hybrid universities, the performance is redefined when it should meet not only the requirements of the scientific community but simultaneously other stakeholders as well, and questions such as "how is the performativity of universities produced?" arises (Johanson and Vakkuri 2018, 135–138).

However, in addition to aspects of change in the academic profession, there are continuities, which are those parts of professionalism that remain in the possession of the professional group itself and resist the change (Evetts 2009, 245). In Evetts' framework of changes and continuities in professionalism (2009, 257) (see Table 2 below), "Changes" include characteristics describing the nature of organizational professionalism influenced by NPM, such as control, evaluation, and competition. "Continuities", in turn, include characteristics which describe the nature of traditional occupational professionalism, such as identity, knowledge, and collegial relations.

Table 2 Changes and continuities in professionalism and in the academic profession (adapted and developed by the present authors based on Evetts 2009, p. 257). Analytical categories by current authors

Changes	Continuities	Analytical categories of change in the academic profession	Analytical categories of continuity in the academic profession
Governance of multiple stakeholders	Authority of professionals	Policies on academic work and management	Power and authority of academic professionals
Management based on hierarchy	Legitimacy based on esoteric knowledge		
Introduction of external forms of regulation	Maintaining prestige, status, power, dominance		
Possible range of solutions/procedures defined by the organization	Procedures and solutions discussed and agreed within specialist teams		
Financial control	Respect, trust	Control and evaluation	Trust, competence, identity, and work culture
Audit and measurement	Competence, knowledge		
Targets and performance indicators	Identity and work culture		
Organizational control of work priorities	Gender differences in careers and strategies		
Work standardization	Discretion to deal with complex cases	Standardization and competition	Diversity and collegial relations
Competition, individualism	Collegial relations and jurisdictional strategies		

Table 2 is developed by the authors by combining Evetts' categories (some of them are developed by authors as well) into three analytical categories, which more clearly describe the changes and continuities in the academic profession. As seen in Table 2, the three analytical categories of change in the academic profession are "policies on academic work and management", "control and evaluation", and "standardisation and competition". From the aspect of continuity, these three analytical categories are "power and authority of academic professionals", "trust, competence, identity, and working culture", and "diversity and collegial relations".

The changing academic profession

The academic profession differs from many other professions in that it carries and shapes the knowledge exploited by other professions (Höhle and Teichler 2013). This role of academics as knowledge producers who determine the knowledge needed to generate professional skills and practices has led to its classification as a "meta-profession" (Perking 1969; Carvalho 2017).

The academic profession is heterogeneous, including different kind of subgroups (Teichler 2010; Carvalho 2017), which can also be defined by the discipline (Becher 1989; Välimaa 1998), institutional type (emphasis on research and/or teaching), and career stage (juniors versus seniors). One key aspect that characterizes the work of academic professionals is the autonomy regarding their work. This autonomy, which is especially enjoyed by professors, makes the profession hard to steer from the outside (Carvalho & Diogo 2018; Evetts 2009).

Academic identity is one unifying aspect of this group, which is structured in the social processes of strong and stable communities (Henkel 2005). Identity is not stable but constantly reshaping and a reflexive project (Giddens 1991). Academic identities are increasingly differentiated and being polarized in Finnish universities. Some academics feel that they have won and some that they have lost in a new, more competitive environment (Ylijoki and Ursin 2015). In the new institutional environment, academic work and roles are getting more blurred and diversified (Musselin 2007; Whitchurch 2008), and therefore, the identities and roles of academics are becoming more mixed as well.

Academics' performance is increasingly evaluated by the organization (Kallio et al. 2015). One central area in which evaluations are implemented is recruitment and advancement. Traditionally, academic careers have been integrated into a hierarchical structure which maintains social closure (Weber 1978) while allowing for the recruitment of junior academics, thus ensuring the quality of their professional work (Goode 1957). However, currently, the academics and therefore recruitments are more bound to universities, when the staff are seen more as their strategic assets; human resources and recruitment are targeted more in to universities' strategic areas (Rasmussen 2015; Siekkinen et al. 2016a).

The Finnish context

Finnish universities follow the global trends when higher education has become more market-oriented in recent years. In Finland, a new salary system based on performance was introduced in 2005, and the funding formula for universities has changed many times since the late 1990s, placing greater emphasis on efficiency and amount of degrees and journal publications. Since the mid-2000s, the Finnish government has implemented many reforms, labelled as "the

Structural Development of the Finnish Higher Education System" with an aim to make the Finnish Higher Education system more reactive to global changes. Part of these reforms, in 2010, the new Universities Act came into effect, which made universities operate as employers. This meant that university employees began working with a working contract, instead of working in a public office, and universities began functioning as economic entities. These reforms made significant strides towards the adoption of a managerialistic culture in Finnish universities. After the reforms were implemented, Finnish universities began to enact their own human resource management (HRM) policies in a stronger and more visible manner (Kallio et al. 2015; Siekkinen et al. 2016a; Välimaa 2012; Ylijoki and Ursin 2015; Välimaa et al. 2014).

In addition, as part of those reforms, many university mergers have been conducted in recent decades in Finland. The biggest and the most famous one was the merger of the Aalto University in 2010, and 3 years after that, the merger of the Tampere University. These mergers have changed the field of higher education in Finland, as well as had an influence on the identities on many levels: organizational, disciplinary, and individual (Ylijoki and Ursin 2015; Vellamo et al. forthcoming; Välimaa et al. 2014).

The organizational structures in Finnish universities have been developed to be more standardized, e.g., in doctoral education (Kivistö et al. 2017) and academic careers, as well as recruitments (Pietilä 2015; Välimaa et al. 2016). The four-stage career model that is rather well implemented across universities follows the recommendations of the European model (e.g., The Ministry of Education and Culture [MEC] 2008; European Science Foundation 2009). In the four-stage career model, in the first career stage there are PhD students, in the second stage postdoctoral researchers, in the third stage the university teachers and lecturers, and finally in the fourth stage the professors and research directors. In concrete, this career structure is more a description of different career stages rather than a promise for a career progression in the individual level. Tenure tracks comprise of, depending on the university, three to five stages through which an individual proceeds via evaluation (stages are commonly: assistant/associate/full professor) (Pietilä 2015; Siekkinen et al. 2016a). Both of these career models have faced criticism, according to which the evaluations concentrate too much on research outputs and understate the teaching experience (Välimaa et al. 2016, see also Naidoo 2016 the negative influences on the competition).

Before the new career structures were introduced in Finnish universities, academic careers were more obscure, including many different job titles, and often only presented random opportunities for a career progression. Regardless of the formal introduction of departmental model in Finnish higher education, which took place already in 1960s, the chair system has been influential until today. The recruitments have been based on open vacancies and the strong influence of professional evaluation and professors (Kivistö et al. 2019).

In Finnish academia, the level of internationalization has been rather low compared with many other countries. International students are regarded in national policies as potentially highly skilled labor and as a means to be globally competitive. However, international students often face challenges in a Finnish society, where the Finnish language skills are important (Välimaa and Weimer 2014). The same kind of challenges are experienced by the international staff in Finnish universities. To compare, in 2015, 27% of all doctoral students in Finland were international, whereas with the professors the percentage was only 8 (Vipunen 2018).

Data and analysis

This article includes an empirical analysis of semi-structured interviews, which were conducted in a research project, titled "The evaluation of the four-stage career model in Finnish universities" (Välimaa et al. 2016). During the project, academics and managers working in four Finnish, middle-sized, and multidisciplinary universities were interviewed in groups whose members were selected by their expertise regarding the new academic career structures. In each university, there were four interviews conducted. In this article, we will examine the responses of top and middle management, including rectors, vice rectors and provosts ($n = 3$); deans ($n = 7$); chief administrators ($n = 2$); personnel managers ($n = 5$); and heads of administration (i.e., faculty managers) ($n = 5$). The interviews included questions regarding the implementation and objectives of the four-stage career model and the tenure-track models in Finnish universities (Välimaa et al. 2016).

The interviews were conducted in Finnish and they were transcribed afterwards. The data analysis was performed by using two methods: thinking the interview data with a theory (Jackson and Mazzei 2013) and direct content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon 2005). In both, the researcher is familiar with a prior research and theory regarding the subject and the data is analysed by discussing with them. The data analysis started with reading carefully all the interviews, then selecting passages in which the interviewees described academic work or careers in universities, especially regarding change and continuity; professional and organizational activities. Subsequently, these passages were categorized with a help of code words and compared with analytical categories (see Table 2). The condensed results of this analysis are provided in Table 3 (see the Supplementary Material).

From Evetts' typology, we formed six analytical categories to describe the changes and continuities in the academic profession of Finland, as shown below:

a) *Changes*: policies on academic work and management; control and evaluation; standardization and competition.
b) *Continuities*: power and authority of academic professionals; trust, competence, identity, and work culture; diversity and collegial relations.

Next, we will describe how both the changes and continuities of the academic profession, as well as its analytical categories, manifested in the interviews.

Changes

Policies on academic work and management

In Finnish universities, middle management and especially deans are perceived to have more power, as they make many of the decisions related to recruitments and finance. According to top management representative:

> In the old system, the faculty council dealt with management, whereas now such tasks related to faculty work are under the control of the dean. If the dean is active and aware of the situation, the dean can do a lot. (Academic top management)

According to interviews, depending on the competences of the dean, the new managerial ethos offers much more power in controlling faculty affairs, especially concerning finance. In

addition, academic leadership is now seen as a comparable career choice to a purely academic career or working in administration, as one dean said:

> …And I think that, little by little, in Finland we are also going in the direction of considering the duties of the rector, dean and maybe even faculty heads as careers of their own. (Dean)

In some universities, deans can also be professional managers coming from the private sector, rather than academics who have their professional roots in the university and are familiar with academic values and practices. These changes can influence the management culture in universities.

According to interviews, due to the increased emphasis of efficiency in academic work, structured practices, and new career models in universities, there needs to be a greater emphasis on HRM, as suggested by one middle manager:

> The implementation of a four-stage career model requires strict management, maybe first in the faculties but also in each unit. (middle management - administrator)

University managers are responsible for the processes inside universities, such as HRM and finance, as well as some external processes, such as branding. These tasks have been emphasized since universities face requirements to be more efficient and competitive.

However, some strategic decisions made by top managers are not fully compatible with the operations of faculties in which teaching and research take place, as noted by one dean:

> So [strategic decisions] should be conducted according to the Universities Act, which says that the university has three missions: research, teaching and societal impact; these missions should be in [the tenure-track] criteria. Nothing else can be considered sustainable, but now we have to take them "from the kitchen door". The reason why I have been emphasising research is related to the most important strategic goal of the university and the number-one priority of the rector: to strengthen our [status] as a research university. (Dean)

Funding drives universities to emphasize research (funding formula for Finnish universities: MEC 2018). As a consequence, the priorities of top management can be seen as problematic at the faculty level, regarding the ability to secure sufficient resources for teaching, as one interviewee stated.

Control and evaluation

Universities emphasize strong HRM while striving for greater output, as can be seen in their adoption of new career models, which reward good performance, especially in research. This phenomenon was also evident in the interviews:

> We see [the early phase of a tenure-track career] as a qualification. We have a strong commitment to [the person whom]… we have chosen [for this] career path. And [this person's] qualification is up to her/his own personal performance. (Academic top management)
> From the beginning of next year, we will shift this kind of personal salary negotiation [system] where… deans and a rector go through all the professors and… agree [to the terms] "face to face". (Dean)

In today's universities, the discussion of career promotion is related more to employee performance in terms of meeting organizational needs rather than a part of an academic's professional process of occupational development. The culture of meritocracy is increasing the competition between academics; the career progression is dependent increasingly on the performance of an individual. Personal salary negotiations can provide more flexibility in remuneration; however, policies regarding the equal treatment of academics are challenged in such negotiations (e.g., the case in Finland in which male deans, by negotiating higher salaries for themselves, raised each other's salaries; Siekkinen et al. 2017).

Standardization and competition

In Finnish higher education, competition can be found from every level in universities; individual and organizational. Several interviewees recognized the downsides of competition in their universities:

> So we have to compete in international labor markets, which is not easy… And we have to deal with these kinds of things so that we will be attractive in some way and be competitive in the long run. (Academic top management)
>
> But what is perhaps more [worrying] in this current system is that [through] your own merits and that sort of [thing], you have to have competitive funding and have to have more proof; the previous path was more closed. So, this is more open and creates more anxiety because there is a pressure to [secure] that funding. (Middle management - administrator)

Universities are competing to recruit the "best brains" in international labor markets, while academics are competing for posts and research funding. Under the "old system", resources were readily available to those employed by the university; now, academics must constantly and increasingly compete in an insecure environment; produce more outputs; and apply for funding if they wish to pursue an academic career. This creates stress and anxiety.

To measure outputs and plan operations more efficiently, universities must standardize their practices and structures related to academic work and careers. New career structures are a clear example of this process. In Finnish universities, the current career model has been divided into four stages and the tenure-track model has been divided into two to five stages, depending on the university, whereas before, those structures were more obscure and individuals' perceptions on how to progress in a career was unclear. The current recruitment system is also more standardized, now professionally implemented by each university's HRM. One interviewee described their university's career structure as follows:

> Overall, there are five [career stages] at the moment, considering that we have "assistant one", "assistant two", "fixed-term associate"… so, six [positions] all together, because we have a "five-year associate", a "permanent associate" and a "full professor", and then we have this "distinguished professor". (Dean)

As one dean in a previous quote described, career stages can be rather standardized. It can lead to simplification; positions and titles are put into concrete, fixed categories to make them easier to assign and use, thus helping HRM manage academic staff in universities more efficiently. The following quote extrapolates further on this subject:

> We have quite inflexible [time] limits written [in the tenure-track model, such as under] three years and ten years, [but] most of the lecturers have already [been working for over] ten years. So, when our "TT" [tenure-track] positions are opened, [our most experienced lecturers] can't even apply to them; they can't proceed in [their careers]. (Dean)

According to a dean, standardization can also lead to inflexible practices, such as "academic age limits" (e.g., a lecturer is entitled to apply to a tenure-track position no later than 10 years from the date they obtained their doctoral degree). These practices can lead to an unequal treatment between academics, based on their work experience. Interviewees also mentioned the new mobility requirements for post-doctoral careers (i.e., a recent graduate must work in a different university, preferably outside Finland, after obtaining their doctoral degree), which are considered challenging for academics with families.

Several positive developments were mentioned as well; increasing standardized practices in universities has led to more predictable careers and salary progression for academics, like one dean said:

> Yes, this has made evaluations clearer… [as well as] salary development. Before, it was way more unclear. Now we have clear criteria. (Dean)

Managers stated that current developments in evaluation criteria, salaries, and career progression are leading to more standardized structures, which allows academics to visualize their university careers in a more clear way.

Regarding Evetts' (2009) theoretical framework, the interviews gave the strong impression that Finnish universities are increasingly adopting organizational professionalism. A greater emphasis has been placed on management due to a complex, changing environment that values global and individual competitiveness. Additionally, academic staff and their work is increasingly controlled and evaluated, and internal practices and processes are now more standardized, having both positive and negative effects on academic work and career progression in universities.

Continuities

Power and authority of academic professionals

Despite the increasing managerial control in universities and the decreasing power of collegial bodies, the power has remained within the academic profession as well. This is especially the case for professors and deans, whose power and authority in university is rather stable. However, many of them are holding the management position as well. Additionally, especially professors enjoy academic autonomy, which is why they are sometimes hard to manage as a group. The interviewees described this phenomenon as follows:

> When I was a dean [at my university], I did what I wanted and apologised afterwards. (Academic top management)
> But then, when a professor holds that position and begins to do research, she/he has the constitutional right to freedom in his/her research, and that is challenging to manage. (Academic top management)

According to interviews, it may be that the academic content and traditions of universities are still tightly controlled by academic professionals, especially deans and professors, while their

operational processes are more in the hands of administrators, to make organizational processes more efficient.

Trust, competence, identity, and work culture

Salaries in universities are commonly at the lower level than in other sectors, and grants especially. Academic work is still regarded partly as "vocation", meaning that in academic work, prestige is highly valued, sometimes over monetary rewards. One middle manager said in the interview:

> …Everyone who comes to the university has to [accept a] decreased salary. But it is understandable, so [their] motives have to come from somewhere else, other than salary. (Middle management - administrator)

The discourse of "vocation" can also be related to the means of neglecting higher salaries by managers in universities, and therefore exploitation of especially young researchers. However, academics' identities are not homogenous; some might find their working motivation from the monetary rewards.

Diverse identities can emerge also from the academics' attitude towards competition. Some might be satisfied with their current work tasks and position, which can be rather stable. In addition, academic work is diverse and some tasks need more continuity than others, like teaching and taking care of the teaching and research infrastructures.

> When we think [about] the tasks of a university, part of those tasks are long term [and carry] a big responsibility, where stability and continuation are really important aspects. (Academic top management)

In a current university environment, that is changing by nature, some rather stable aspects like "traditional" academic identity (related to roles in teaching and research), and a somewhat stable work culture can bring continuity and stability to a university environment. In addition, the constant presence of competition can generate anxiety for those academics who are rather satisfied with their work tasks and salaries already, and does not have great ambitions regarding their career progression.

However, some aspects of academic work and careers should change, so that they would be more modern despite the reliance on old traditions. Academic work culture has discriminated women, keeping them from having the same opportunities to proceed in their university careers as men. One dean reflects this issue in the interview:

> Young women are not willing to come to this 'mill' that I just described [i.e. Finnish universities]. It's a hard choice because, at the same time, you should start a family and everything, and have children. (Dean)

For an early career researcher who wishes to have a family, and especially for women, the choice of whether to concentrate solely on a career or have children is difficult to make in a situation where the working culture does not support the work-life balance of mothers. Some managers might feel that it is purely a woman's individual choice, not a structural drawback, which creates indirect discrimination of women, and leads to excluding women from academic careers. However, this old-fashioned belief that women must choose between having a career or a family is slowly changing.

Diversity and collegial relations

Sometimes, faculty decisions are not only based on strict rules and official policies; rather, they take the broader context into account as well as the needs of the faculty. The following quotes support this:

> So, if I have 15 post-PhD, tenured positions [available], I will make a choice that I can't officially make: 10 [will be recruited from internal] staff and 5 from outsiders. (Dean)
> I wish that we, in this case, will also move into more flexible thinking: that departments will [recruit new staff while keeping] in mind that, if there is some person who clearly shows [a] willing[ness] and [the] potential to, for example, [engage in] teaching development as a broad sense… So, for her/him, it is seen as valuable for developing the research. (Academic top management)

According to interviews, inside faculties, deans, and professors are sometimes supporting the career progression of their "own" staff, despite the official policy for open and international recruitment. Teaching also can be supported more in the faculty level instead of just supporting research. In addition, collegial relations are sometimes just as significant as the candidate's merits in recruitments, as indicated in the following quote:

> Of course, it is written in the [career] model that… you can come from outside, but… because there are these people who have started here and gone forward in their career in this university… [if] someone tries to come there [from outside], [they] require good personal relationships with the supervisors and others [to] succeed. (Academic top management)

Progression in an academic career also might require strong networks, as one manager stated in the interview. Depending on the manager, this way of actions might have either negative or positive consequences for women's careers, as for other minorities as well. In addition, standardization in universities' processes may support more equal treatment of academics regarding salaries, access to research infrastructure, and occupational health care, as well as providing better opportunities to career progression. However, when standardized practices should guarantee the same treatment for all, these benefits may be only available for those who "fits in the box". Those, who are left outside, can be researchers who work with a grant funding without an employment contract to university, for example. In this case, professors and deans who have power within a faculty can support these academics and their career progression, if they will.

Comparing our analysis with Evetts's (2009) theoretical framework, it seems that occupational professionalism, in addition to organizational professionalism that was considered previously, is widely practised in Finnish universities even if it has been challenged by many reforms that emphasize organizational values and practices. Academics in high positions, such as professors and deans, exercise their powers in many ways, for example, when bolstering the work and careers of their "own staff". In such an environment, motivation and competence are highly valued, and networks and collegial relations hold great significance in the progression of academic work and careers.

Discussion and conclusions

Global management trends have been influencing all public organizations, including universities. In addition to changes resulting from the transforming environment, the academic profession is undergoing several internal alterations. Considering that it has been confined to opaque and obscure career paths, which have had a negative impact on opportunities to proceed in academic careers, the academic profession is in great need of change. However, new practices, such as the implementation of one-size-fits-all structures, have caused much criticism among academics, as they can be considered good for some but bad for many.

In this study, the empirical data was collected from Finnish universities. However, both, our theoretical discussion and empirical data shows that the trends are similar in national and international levels. Based on interview data gathered from the top and middle managers of four Finnish universities, it seems that the academic profession in Finland has been changing in many different ways, but it has also maintained a degree of continuity (Evetts 2009). While change and continuity are not opposite by nature, several contradictions and tensions exist between them, as well as simultaneousness.

Regarding organizational professionalism, we found that management is increasingly emphasized in Finnish universities, as evidenced by the growing power of manager-academics. One clear evidence of growing emphasis of managers is the "management careers" that are available also to professional managers from the private sector, creating tension in academic environment when they lack understanding of the academic work. In addition, academic work is increasingly managed and monitored, which is reinforced by new career models that link promotion straight to performance. New career structures, recruitment processes, and other practices have become standardized, leading to the criticism that the diverse needs of academics are not acknowledged. However, top and middle managers also perceive that standardization has clarified academic career structures and salary development. This aspect was brought up also by Evetts (2018), as she stated that human resource management (HRM) procedures in organizations have improved diversity and equal opportunities for professionals, since they have replaced old practices based on social networking. However, she thinks that career inequalities continue to exist in many ways. It has to also be taken into consideration that the massification process has diversified the group of academic professionals that used to be a rather small, elite group of professors. The increasing amount of researchers has also lead to more competitive environment. The competition occurs in all levels in higher education, and its negative influences in the system in general have not been still completely acknowledged (Naidoo 2016).

Occupational professionalism (Evetts 2009) is also deeply rooted in the practices of Finnish universities. From the interviews, it is clear that the authority has remained also within the academic profession; for example, professors and deans have the power in recruitments and manage financial matters at the faculty level (however, some are holding also the management position). There is also a strong emphasis placed on competence and motivation in academic work and careers. However, some old practices that exist should be renewed, such as a traditional work culture that places women at a disadvantaged position in academia (e.g., Huopalainen and Satama 2018; Nokkala et al. forthcoming). In addition to these characteristics, academic work is often referred to as a "vocation", which emphasizes an inner calling to science and motivations other than monetary rewards. Considering the low salary and rather poor working conditions that junior-level academics must bear for many years before they can (perhaps) be promoted, this still holds true in many universities (e.g., Brechelmacher et al.

2015; Siekkinen et al. 2016b; Aarnikoivu et al. 2019). This perspective represents the other example of poor working culture that should be renewed so that academic career would be a more attractive career choice.

In this article, our analytical framework was based on the duality between professional and organizational values. However, the idea of hybridism was also introduced, which "arises when professional and managerial principles come together" (Noordegraaf 2015, pp. 2–3; see also Brückmann & Carvalho 2018). We emphasize that the transformation of the academic profession is a hybrid process that includes both organizational and professional values and practices. It is also evident that it would be an over simplification to categorize the change related to the organizational and continuity only to the professional. In higher learning and work of academic profession, organizational values and processes have always played an important role. University as an organization has always been an organizational frame for academics (Musselin 2013). On the other hand, also professional values and identities are changing and continuing not only because they reflect on organizational changes but also because of changing values and norms of academic work and science that are progressive by their nature. Change can be internal or/and external by its nature (Saarinen and Välimaa 2012). Thus, hybridization of academic work is caused by an interplay between changes and continuities in both spheres.

Changes in professional values and practices include the causalisation of professional work; internal requirements for equality, transparency and fairness, and requirements for efficiency, control, and increasing competition, which are caused by pressures coming from outside the profession. Continuities in professional values and practices include the significance of inner calling; motivation and competence; work culture; the disciplinary differences; the power and authority of professors; prestige; competition (which is also a traditional feature of academic work), and traditional academic identity and roles in teaching and research. Changes in
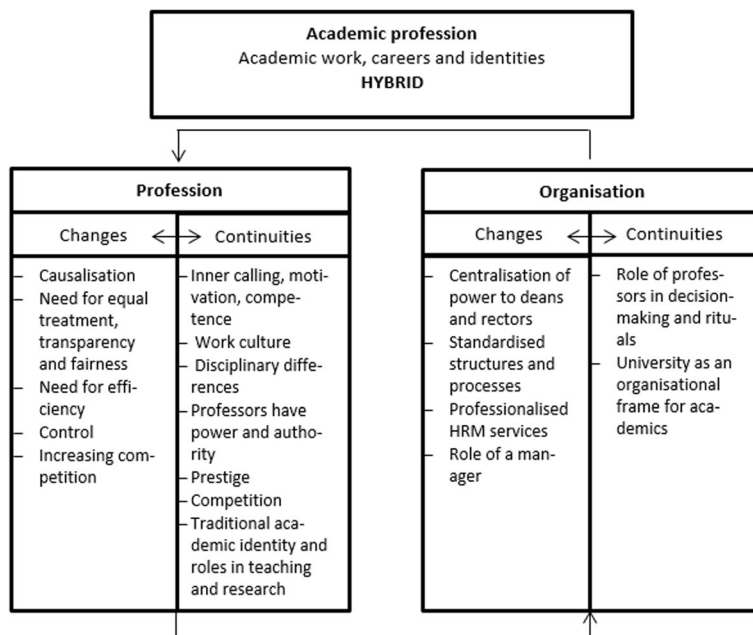

Fig. 1 Organizational and professional dimensions of the hybrid academic profession

organizational values and practices include the centralization of power towards deans and rectors and the development of standardized structures and processes, professionalized HRM services and new roles (and careers) related to management, while its continuities include the power of professors and the university's role as an organizational frame for academics (Fig. 1).

In spite of their hybrid nature, tensions occur when academics are pursuing to integrate these both aspects in their work to be able to perform in a changing environment with varying expectations. To be able to achieve the competitive edge in a global competition, universities have to have both; good management and excellent scientific quality (see Tight 2014). When universities are becoming hybrids, meaning that they are operating in a different environments with diversified functions (Johanson and Vakkuri 2018), academic profession is reflecting this change (Musselin 2007), and become as hybrid as well by creating new, blurred roles and identities. To determine how these two logics could co-exist in universities, as well as how universities could provide more "meaningfully managed professional work" (Noordegraaf 2015), the preconditions and implications of hybrid academic professionalism and hybrid academic work should be studied more.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN the academic profession and universities has commonly been described as tense. The academic profession is a powerful professional group that protects its traditional practices, values, and autonomy. Universities, in turn, have developed as organisations and started to control their employers in a stricter manner. In addition, many changes in their operational environment and new expectations coming from the society have influenced them both and changed their relationship as well.

This doctoral dissertation suggests that the power of the academic profession has been challenged in universities, as the power of the collegial decision-making structures has been diminishing. However, academics still have power in universities that occurs many ways. As a consequence of the societal expectations towards higher education and new organisational demands towards academics, the academic profession is changing. A new kind of connected academic professionalism is emerging, as the professional, organisational, and societal impact/entrepreneurial roles and identities are being blended in the work of academics.