

LUISS



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**“REVEALING THE NEXUS BETWEEN
ORGANIZATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL
IDENTITY IN ACADEMIA”**

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A.A. 2022-2023

*Ai miei genitori,
che hanno reso possibile tutto questo.*

*A mio fratello Mirko,
che mi sostiene e supporta da sempre.*

*Al mio ragazzo Marcello,
che mi è sempre stato accanto.*

*Alla mia migliore amica Alessia,
che ha creduto in me fin dall'inizio.*

A chi mi ha spinto a puntare in alto.

A me stessa, ad ogni mio successo, ai miei sogni.

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ABSTRACT

This master's thesis focuses on an exploratory study in the field of higher education in Italy, with the aim of understanding the impact of various factors on different academics, from full-time professors to assistants, Post-Doc, or PhD students. The study focuses on examining the influences on professional identity, organizational identity, managerialism, and academicism.

The research investigates how individuals within the academic environment have been shaped by these elements and how these, in turn, have contributed to the evolution of the higher education landscape. Furthermore, the analysis also considers the interaction between personality characteristics, as measured by the HEXACO personality scale, and sensitivity to the effects of these variables. By identifying patterns and correlations, the study aims to discern among academics these influences are shaped.

A questionnaire was used as a research instrument, collecting information based on the age, gender, job position, university location, and other relevant factors of the participants. By examining these different dimensions, the study not only uncovers general trends but also explores specific insights that highlight the interdependence between personality measures and the variables taken into consideration.

Ultimately, this research contributes to a deeper understanding of how the interaction between professional identity, organizational identity, managerialism and academicism has evolved in the context of Italian higher education, identifying influential variables and identifying personalities with varying degrees of sensitivity. The findings offer valuable insights for the academic institution to improve the academic experience and create a more supportive and effective educational environment.

CHAPTER 1. ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY THEORY

1.1. Definition of “Organizational identity”

Organizational identity has long become a field of strong interest within the social sciences, as it is seen as a multidisciplinary research topic: organizational identity has been defined as "*an enduring characteristic of an organization that contributes to the construction of the organization's pre-existing, distinctive, immutable, and unique features*" (Cultural et al., 2016).

The concept of organizational identity has spread since the publications of Albert and Whetten in 1985 and Ashforth & Mael in 1989. Thus, in general, organizational identity can be identified both at the macro level, understood as the context in which an organization operates, and down to the micro-level dynamics.

At the macro level, it consists of a set of values that distinguish organizations belonging to the same population (Hanna et al., 2005; Polos et al., 2022), meaning that organizational identity defines which organizations are part of a certain type of population and which are not.

At the micro level, however, Albert and Whetten consider organizational identity as a representation of characteristics that participants in an organization recognize as:

- *central*, in that the values of organizational identity represent the starting point on which external relations, decision-making processes and are linked to the nature and success of the enterprise itself are based;
- *distinctive*, since these values make the organization immediately distinguishable from others;
- *durable*, since such characteristics of the organization are certainly immutable, or at least stable in the long run.

Later, the two researchers introduced three new elements useful in defining organizational identity:

- *priorities*, because they are defined as key values for the company;
- *practices*, because they include new business procedures, products and services that are able to transform the company's philosophy and goals into strategic actions;
- *projections*, finally, because they represent the future and symbolic vision of the company's image.

Organizational identity can be seen as a symbolic and psychological association with significant outcomes for both organizations and their participants.

Studies show that organizational identity is a collective phenomenon where interactions between individual participants in the organization and those with the relevant social context play a key role. For this reason, two key elements are the individual's image of their organization, which is how the individual perceives the distinctive, enduring, and central characteristics of the organization (Dutton et al., 1994) and the perception of the external image, meaning how the members of the organization think that different groups outside the organization see the organization itself (Bergami, Bagozzi et al., 2000; Brown et al., 2006).

Obviously, the more identity perceptions are shared by the organization's participants, the stronger the identity and consequently the greater the potential for identification.

Cheney and Tompkins (1987) argue that it encompasses "*the development and maintenance of the 'identity' or 'substance' of an individual or group in a context of change and 'external' elements*". Identity is defined as attachment to a reference group in order to establish and maintain a worldview (Kronus et al., 1976). Obviously, neither the process nor the product of identity is immutable. Individuals play an active role as they identify with a reference group and as they reevaluate that identification based on messages about the group from other individuals and the group's actions. The expression of organizational identity is organizational commitment. Commitment is the form (Cheney & Tompkins et al., 1987). One of the most popular definitions of commitment is based on identification, as it is defined as "*the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization*" (Mowday, Porter, & Steers et al., 1982, p. 27). Commitment reflects an individual's orientation toward the organization, binds a person's identity to the organization, and reflects a biased affective attachment to an organization's goals and values, to one's role in relation to those goals and values, and to the organization "*for its own sake apart from its purely instrumental value*" (Buchanan et al., 1974, p. 533). The common element underlying these definitions is an individual's affective attachment to a particular group, a construct consistent with identity.

A widely accepted view of organizational identity is the alignment between individual and collective identities, resulting in the union between the people and their organization, and the description of the self and the collective in similar terms (Gutierrez et al., 2010). Among the narrower definitions of organizational identity, Ashforth (2008) constructs it as merely cognitive, that is "*the perception of uniqueness or belonging to some human door*" (Ashforth and Mael et al., 1989, p. 21; Dutton et al., 1994, p. 239; Pratt et al., 1998, pp. 172-174). More accepted versions, however, suggest that identification refers to the extent to which an organization defines the individual's self and worldview and implies the evaluation of the significance of organizational membership in which values and emotions appear (Tajfel et al., 1982, p. 2; Haslam et al., 2004; Oakes et al., 1994). These broader conceptions emphasize that

identifying with an organization means accepting a set of collective goals, beliefs and values, stereotypical traits, behaviors, knowledge, and abilities as one's own (Ashforth et al., 2008, p. 330) and embody them to become prototypes of it (Elsbach et al., 2004; Tajfel and Turner et al., 1979).

Another vision is that of Olins, who in 1989 attributed the concept of organizational identity to that of personality, as the sum of all the behavioral and intellectual characteristics of an organization from which identity is generated.

It can be said that studying an organization's identity is important in understanding how its members respond to the question "*who are we as an organization?*" by using its elements to define their own identity. Indeed, as argued by social identity theory, a person's identity is based on an individual and a social dimension. The individual dimension is obviously the result of individual characteristics, while the second dimension is the result of a sense of belonging to social groups and has significant cognitive, emotional, and behavioral consequences. So, from this point of view, organizational identity plays an important role in influencing the attitudes and behaviors of its members.

Lutgen-Sandvik (2008 et al., p. 99) states that "*postmodernists criticize the vision of identity as stable and unified*". Rather, they see identity as an evolving task characterized by confusion and conflict, thus moving away from the search for "truth" in order to recognize that inconsistency, complexity, and ambiguity are one with the reflective design of the "self". This constructivist approach presents the social context as a lever for the formation of identity: in fact, the individual tries to obtain a better social identity thanks to belonging to a group held in high regard. By contrast, however, the organization embodies those social prototypes that the members themselves expect it to produce. Petriglieri (2010) stated that "*the concept of working identity describes the activities that individuals undertake to create, maintain and dispose of personal and social identities that support a concept of self that is desirable*".

This is because individuals are prototypes representing social categories, that is, groups that are distinguished from other groups by specific attitudes and behaviors that characterize them. Members who are part of the same social category obviously have similarities with each other, so it is called assimilation, and they have differences with members of other social groups, called contrast (Hogg & Reid et al., 2006, Tajfel et al., 1959).

1.2. Theoretical perspectives on organizational identity in organizations

Organization identity is a complex concept that has provoked enduring academic and practical debate. Several lines of thought have emerged that seek to define and explain the meaning and nature of organization identity. Some scholars argue that organization identity is a static and enduring characteristic,

while others see it as a dynamic construct that evolves over time in response to internal and external changes. Some theories focus on the cultural dimension of organizational identity, while others emphasize the importance of strategy and positioning in determining organizational identity. In this section, we will explore some of these lines of thought and their implications for organizational identity management.

1.2.1. The perspective of critical management studies

Scholars Tompkins and Cheney suggested the existence of a link between identification and decision-making processes, arguing that managerial decisions related to individual identities influence organizational action (Barker et al., 1998). These scholars draw attention to the fact that the concept of controlling power is central to the process of identity regulation, since power and identity are two reciprocal processes: power relations create certain identities that serve to cultivate, maintain, and consolidate those same relations (Jenkins et al., 1996). The concepts of power and identity are, moreover, linked by a level of interdependence, which manifests itself at different intensities in specific organizational contexts. In 2002, Alvesson and Willmott interpret organizational identity as the dimension of control by management to manage the various interests of the various actors who are part of the organization; for this reason, it encompasses the effects, intentional or unintentional, of social practices in the processes of identifying individual identities.

Following their line of thought, it becomes important to define and categorize different groups in the same organization, as to create ad hoc management in human resource management policies in the process of shaping individual identities, as feeling part of a broad category becomes a source of recognition in the process of self-perception and self-idea, which is fundamental to the regulation of organizational decisions and actions.

In this sense, the construction of social categories impacts on the regulation of organizational identity and this regulation is seen as a tool of managerial control.

In fact, from a managerial point of view, the division into categories represents an instrument of self-discipline and effective self-control, because it is able to empower and enhance the various individual identities to design the different models of action of the organizational actors to lower the level of uncertainty of organizational behavior.

The managerial concept, therefore, can be understood as a tool to create shared meanings in the definition of individual and collective identities, which unify organizations around a culture. Language is conceived as an authoritarian system of meanings that those in power present as a map to read reality and behave accordingly (Kunda et al., 1992); that is, a means to influence the processes of perception of the context,

learning and decision-making of actors, to attract and retain talented employees, to act on motivation at work, to encourage the alignment of individual objectives with organizational ones (Anteby et al., 2008; Delbridge and Ezzamel et al., 2005). In this logic, managerial discourses can be interpreted as levers of action and/or manipulation aimed at creating conditions and cognitive presuppositions that impact behavior (Sicca et al., 2009; Pezzillo Iacono et al., 2009) as instruments of governing the uncertainty and ambiguities linked to organizational differences.

1.2.2. The perspective of social actor: the functionalist view

The social actor perspective views organizations as social constructions (Whetten and Makey et al., 2002), which means that they are actors who change their identity when the recognized statements within them change. This view of organization corresponds with the functionalist view of organizational identity, considered by many scholars to be a radical perspective, but one that challenges organizational identity change with an adaptive orientation (Rindova et al., 1998).

Authors who share this perspective, assume that the link between past and future of institutionalized statements supports the organization's strategy; therefore, it is important to find some kind of consistency between past and future identities as to support a definite strategic change and not a temporary one, since it is necessary to make changes in individual identities accepted by all members of the organization.

Identity change is seen as fundamental to strategic change because of beliefs of organizational identity ignored, identity can act as a barrier to the implementation of planned organizational change that threatens it. However, "*if these implicit and taken-for-granted assumptions are surfaced and affiliated with change efforts, organizational identity can be a powerful source of leverage*" (Reger et al., 1994, p. 579).

Brown and Stakey argue that identity change is central to organizational strategy, in fact, "*the role of management is to foster mature, adaptive wisdom and action in pursuit of the collective organizational good [...] if skillfully managed, the result is a self-reflective and wise organization, secure in its ability to understand and accept its limitations and to negotiate identity change as part of its ongoing strategic development*" (Brown & Stakey et al., 2000, p. 114).

Based on these assumptions, studies have developed that emphasize the importance of conducting a thorough analysis of organizational identity at all levels. Evidence for this claim can be found in the studies of some authors, who consider that the acceptance of a change depends on the degree to which the new strategic direction integrates not only the organizational identity as strategically idealized by management, but also that perceived by all employees of the organization. Decreasing a difference between strategic projection and corporate reality results in a strategic direction that incorporates the organizational past and

avoids resistance to identity and organizational change (Rekom et al., 2022 and Fox-Wolfgramm, Boal & Hunt et al., 1998).

The functionalist perspective states that a company's organizational identity is composed of observable, identifiable and often tangible elements (Balmer et al., 2006; He et al., 2012). The functionalist approach seeks to categorize various organizational identities and explain their changes as a consequence of a series of changes that occur in the context and environment in which they operate (Rao et al., 2003). Whetten and Mackey (2002) attempt to outline a view of the organization as a social actor with a legal form, whose identity can be decomposed into its actions, duties, and obligations. Such a view has a *"high degree of validity, since it easily lends itself to model building, eventual hypothesis testing, and empirical measurement"* (Whetten et al., 2006). Indeed, this definition of organizational identity makes the concept less abstract by attributing tangible characteristics to it.

In sum, the functionalist perspective of organizational identity emphasizes the stability and coherence of an organization's identity over time. According to this perspective, organizational identity is a set of shared beliefs, values, and norms that guide the behavior and actions of organizational members and provide a sense of continuity and meaning to the organization.

Functionalists argue that a clear and well-defined organizational identity is essential for effective organizational performance, by providing a shared sense of purpose and direction, organizational identity helps to align the efforts of organizational members and enhance their motivation and commitment. In addition, a strong organizational identity can enhance an organization's reputation and legitimacy in the eyes of stakeholders, such as customers, employees, and investors.

From a functionalist perspective, managing organizational identity involves maintaining the stability and coherence of the identity over time. This can be achieved through a range of activities, such as clearly articulating the organization's mission and values, promoting a consistent organizational culture, and ensuring that organizational practices and behaviors are aligned with the organizational identity.

Critics of the functionalist perspective argue that it may oversimplify the complexity of organizational identity by treating it as a stable and fixed entity. They suggest that organizational identity is more fluid and dynamic and can be influenced by a range of internal and external factors. However, the functionalist perspective remains a widely influential and popular approach to understanding organizational identity.

1.2.3. The socio-constructivist perspective

The social-constructivist approach views organizational identity as the product of relationships existing at the collective level and as the individual construct about who the organization is (Harquail et al., 2006).

From a socio-constructivist perspective, managing organizational identity involves creating spaces for dialogue and collaboration among organizational members and stakeholders. This can involve facilitating conversations about organizational values and goals, encouraging diversity of perspectives, and promoting inclusivity and participation.

Pratt (2003) provides two points of view under which to analyze organizational identity:

- the first, aggregative, according to which collective identity resides within individuals and thus results as the sum of individual viewpoints;
- the second, called gestalt, according to which collective identity resides in the relationships and ties that connect and bind the various individuals within the organization.

Socio-constructivists argue that organizational identity is shaped by multiple voices and perspectives, reflecting the diversity and complexity of the organizational context. As such, organizational identity is not something that can be controlled or managed by a single individual or group, but rather emerges through ongoing social interactions and discourses. A view of the social-constructionist perspective considers constituent elements of organizational identity to be the way of dress, the attention paid by the media to the organization, the general state of mind, and so on (Kjaergaard et al., 2011).

It is easy to see how the definition of organizational identity provided by the socio-constructionist perspective is in principle less stable, more flexible, and more ambiguous than that described previously. The socio-constructivist perspective of organizational identity emphasizes the role of social interactions and processes in shaping and constructing organizational identity. According to this perspective, organizational identity is not a fixed and stable entity, but rather a dynamic and ongoing process of negotiation, interpretation, and meaning making among organizational members and stakeholders.

1.2.4. The psychodynamic perspective

Organizational identity can also be interpreted in the collective unconscious values, assumptions, and desires communicated through the projection of the world by members of the organization and its top leadership, so understanding the psychodynamics of organizational membership becomes critical to thoroughly understanding organizational identity (Allcorn et al., 1995; Diamond et al., 1993; Stein et al., 1994).

This is because participating in a group involves an intra-personal trade-off between individual demands for dependence and autonomy. Wilfred Bion assumes a defensive state of psychic regression of the members of the organization, as it involves the individual in a loss of their "individual instinctiveness"

(Bion et al., 1959).¹ For both Bion and Freud, psychic regression corresponds to group membership, so when individuals join an organization they may feel ascribed an infantile role, so it is important that individual uniqueness is reconciled with a group dependence and identity.

Thanks, of course, to the reflective thinking of organizational members, in-group processing and learning, and experience, membership in the group and thus in the organization can trigger democratic-type mechanisms, creating intra- and inter-personal trade-offs that satisfy individual needs for independence with the demands of belonging.

Indeed, Moore and Fine argue that the compromise created is "*the ideational, affective, and behavioral outcome of attempts to resolve the conflict between psychic instances and between them and the external world*" (Moore and Fine et al., 1990, p.43).

The formation of this compromise is necessary because becoming part of an organization implies adaptation and reorganization of the individual. A compromise is sought between the unconscious and irrational forces of personality and the rational demands of the organization.

The presence of a tension between psychological structures and social structures in the workplace is crucial to the democratic nature of the processes and outcomes of an organization. And, despite the regressive power of groups and organizations, members with individual and collective capacities for conflict resolution and consensus-building will be better placed to promote more mature group and organizational processes, supporting problem solving, policy implementation and service delivery. Individual psychic resilience (the strength and integrity of the ego) becomes a prerequisite for adaptation to the continuous changes and reconfigurations of the postmodern organization.

1.2.5. The post-modern perspective

So far, the concept of organizational identity has been considered a myth (Baudrillard et al., 1998), the post-modern strand provides theoretical descriptions. Joy (1998) argued that the post-modern perspective divides the identity of an organization to the point that "*identity no longer holds a distinct and persistent core of its own but becomes a reflection of the images of the present moment*". The present context in which the organization operates becomes fundamental. The post-modern perspective of organizational

¹ Bion wrote "*Substance is given to the fantasy of group existence by the fact that regression involves the individual in a loss of his 'individual distinctiveness' (Freud, 1921) It follows that if an observer judges that a group exists, then the individuals who comprise it must have experienced this regression*" (Bion, 1959, p. 142).

identity challenges the idea of a stable and coherent identity for organizations. Instead, it suggests that organizational identity is fragmented, heterogeneous, and subject to constant change and contestation.

Seidl in 2005 offers a different analysis: organizations are formed for autopoiesis², and the same autopoietic processes define the boundaries of the organization and the distinctive features with respect to all the others.

According to Czarniawska-Joerges (1994), organizational identities are built through continuous narrative processes, where *"both the narrator and the audience formulated, edit, applaud, and refuse various elements of the ever-produced narrative"*. This means that organizational identity is a continually evolving process.

According to Harrison (2000) each organization has as many identities as its members. Although Whetten (2006) has said that the field of organizational identity is going through a period of identity crisis, it is not said that analyzing it unambiguously is the most appropriate choice. For the part of the literature that believes in sharing knowledge between different strands of research, a varied approach to organizational identity is seen as something positive and constructive. Conversely, those who do not believe in sharing ideas and theories between different research strands will agree with Whetten's thinking.

From a practical perspective, managing organizational identity from a post-modern perspective involves embracing the diversity and complexity of the organizational context and promoting inclusive and participatory practices that allow for multiple voices and perspectives to be heard. This can involve facilitating dialogue and collaboration among organizational members and stakeholders, promoting diversity and inclusivity, and encouraging critical reflection on the discourses and practices that shape organizational identity.

² Autopoiesis is a term used in systems theory to describe the self-organizing and self-reproducing processes of living systems. The term autopoiesis comes from the Greek words "auto" meaning self and "poiesis" meaning creation or production. According to the theory of autopoiesis, living systems are self-producing and self-maintaining systems that continuously generate and regenerate their own organization and structure. Autopoiesis is characterized by a closed and circular organization of processes, where the components of the system interact with each other in ways that enable the system to maintain its own boundaries and identity. The system is seen as a network of processes that continuously generate and regenerate themselves, while remaining structurally coupled with the environment.

1.3. Factors that shape organizational identity

The identification construct becomes salient in reference to the dynamics of differentiation and competition that generally characterize the relations between social groups. In situations where social identity is made salient, and therefore belonging to a particular group, the subjects tend to define the self in relation to their belonging to the group. In this sense, therefore, there would be a direct correlation between the force of identification and the degree of favoritism expressed towards the group in the contexts of intergroup comparison: the higher the level of identification the greater the tendency of the subjects to discriminate their group from the other, adopting favoritism behaviors.

In a strictly organizational context, Simon, considering it a powerful tool of influence and management of human resources in the hands of the organization, defines it as a process of «*internalization by the individual of the objectives of the organization*» (Simon et al., 1947, p. 278). According to the author, this process takes place gradually and allows the individual to acquire «*an attachment and a feeling of loyalty to the organization*» (Simon et al., 1947, p. 278) which, in fact, are reflected in the motivation and dedication shown to it. Therefore, from a purely organizational point of view, identification takes on an instrumental value: the more workers identify with the organization, the greater their commitment and therefore the better the results of their performance.

Then March and Simon (1958) who, in addition to reaffirming the strategic role of identification in allowing an alignment between individual values and objectives and those of the organization, identify the factors responsible for the identification process. The authors attach particular importance to the individual's perception of the level of goal-sharing within the group, the frequency of interactions with the group, the number of individual needs satisfied through the group, the prestige and reputation enjoyed by the group and the level of competition within the group. The theory of March and Simon is certainly complete from the theoretical point of view; however, it is lacking as regards the empirical validation of the proposed theses. This gap has been filled by subsequent research which, however, is criticized for confusing identification with similar but different organizational phenomena (Bergami et al., 1996; Ashforth and Mael et al., 1989). Two of the most significant and comprehensive contributions were those offered by Mael and Ashforth (Ashforth and Mael et al., 1989; Mael et al., 1988; Mael and Ashforth et al., 1992) and by Ellemers (Ellemers, van Knippenberg, de Vries and Wilke et al., 1988; Ellemers et al., 1993; Ellemers, Spears and doojse et al., 1997; Ellemers, Kortekaas and outwork et al., 1999).

The merit of having examined the identification in the organizational context, providing important thought also on the measurement of the construct. Starting from this work, numerous studies have further investigated the process of organizational identification, proposing theoretical models supported by

empirical evidence (Bergami et al., 1996; Bergami and Bragozzi et al., 2000; Dutton and Dukerich et al., 1991; Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail et al., 1994).

Simon introduces the topic of identification by studying its impact on organizational decisions, as he argues that a person identifies with the group when, in making a decision, he weighs different choice alternatives according to their consequences for that particular group.

Although the goals of the organization are imposed on the member through a degree of authority, over time these are "*internalized*", meaning that they become an integral part of the psychology and attitudes/behaviors of the individual member of the organization.

According to the author, thus, organizational identification is that process by which individuals replace their own goals with organizational goals, understood as service and conservation goals, as values that determine their decisions. The stronger the individual's identification with the organization of which they are members, the more likely it is that their goals will fit the rules of the group.

Simon and March, in 1996, identify four objects of identification:

- extra-organizational identification, understood as organizations outside one's own organization, such as professional associations or unions.
- organizational identification: according to the authors, the factors that most influence identification with one's own organization are length of service in that organization, the possibility of achieving personal goals in that organization, meritocracy, and participation in line decision-making.
- identification with the task: by which is meant the work activity performed by the member of the organization.
- identification with the subgroup: the authors point out that a group is the more attractive the more likely the individuals see their personal needs met within it.

In addition, the authors identify some conditions that influence the level of identification with the group. The greater the prestige of the group to which an individual belongs, the degree to which goals are shared, and the frequency of interactions among group members, the greater will be the individual's level of identification with their group membership. The lower the extent of competition between group members and the individual, the stronger will be the individual's tendency to identify with the group.

Simon and March (1966) support some hypotheses, taken up and developed later by other scholars, regarding the relationship between organizational identification and the factors that make the organization attractive to the individual, namely, the perceived prestige of the organization. The authors state that an

individual is more likely to identify with that organization whose prestige is perceived by the same individual as high. Prestige may belong to sub-units, rather than to the organization as a whole, and therefore may favor identification with the sub-group rather than with the organization, but in many situations' identification with the organization as a whole will be a function of generalized prestige.

Ellemer's contribution is a point of reference in the study of organizational identification. The author is credited with having taken up and applied the assumptions of the theory of social identity to the study of organizational identification with particular attention to group dynamics (Ellemer et al., 1993; Ellemer et al., 1999).

According to Ellemer, the organizational identification construct cannot be separated from the group identification construct, since the latter represents an important aspect of «*affective commitment*» (Ellemer et al., 1999, p. 372) shown to the organization and able to influence the more general identification process.

The term commitment refers to the identification with the organization and its objectives as well as the strong desire to maintain belonging to this reality (Mowday, Porter, and Steers et al., 1982). It is characterized by adherence to the norms and values proposed by the work organization and active participation, by the effort to contribute personally to its development and growth. The commitment consists of three dimensions:

- emotional attachment, consists in adherence to the values proposed by the organization, the sense of participation in its problems and the commitment to contribute with their own efforts and resources to the success of the organization, regulatory commitment, and desire for continuity.
- Regulatory commitment, on the other hand, concerns the sense of loyalty and responsibility that the individual has towards the work organization.
- A desire for continuity linked to the desire to maintain over time the relationship with the organization with regard to the assessment of the costs and benefits associated with a possible break (Allen and Meyer et al., 1996; Meyer and Allen et al., 1991; Pierro et al., 1992).

In essence, according to the author, identification, involvement, and commitment to the work are closely linked and mutually reinforcing. This means that a strong commitment leads to a strong involvement, although we cannot speak of an automatic relationship because obviously the involvement depends also and above all on the feedback that the organization addresses to its workers.

1.3.1. Dimensions and measures of organizational identity

Most studies conducted in the organizational field seem to agree that organizational identification consists of three dimensions: a cognitive (i.e., individuals perceive themselves as members of a specific organizational category) an evaluative (i.e., individuals attribute a value to this organizational category in relation to other groups), and finally an affective one (i.e., the meaning that individuals attribute to this evaluation assumes positive connotations). Alongside these components, studies of ethnic identities (Phinney et al., 1991) have suggested the possibility of considering a fourth component labelled as behavioral, which would reflect the participation of subjects in activities that are characteristic and central to the life of a group.

The three-dimensional structure of organizational identification is also shared by Ellemers (1999) who define the three components: affective commitment (affective component), group self-esteem (valuative component), self-categorization (cognitive component). Similarly, Hinkle, Taylor, Fox-Cardamone and Crook (1989) highlight the centrality of the group suggesting a structuring of the construct based on the cognitive, emotional, and individual/group components, reflecting with the latter the opposition that is generated in the process of identification between individual needs and the dynamics within the group. The authors recorded a correlation between the three components and the evaluation of the group, but only the emotional component was correlated with the differentiation scores shown by the subjects against the intergroup. A further structure is that found by Karasawa (1991) that combines the affective and cognitive dimension with that related to identification with the members of the group. In this way, not only those relating to the group as a whole but also those referring to individual members with whom it is possible that identification phenomena linked to perceived similarities may be created by virtue of common belonging.

In parallel with the attempts to give shape to the construct, in the last fifteen years many tools have been built to measure organizational identification in the international arena, the validity of which is witnessed by a large number of empirical research. A critical review of these instruments proposes to distinguish global measures, which consider identity as a unitary construct, from multi-component measures, oriented to investigate different aspects of the same construct, entrusting the choice of the type of scale to be adopted exclusively to the theoretical premises and research objectives. In some cases, literature suggests using both to investigate the complex mechanisms of the organizational identification process (Haslam et al., 2001). With reference to the theoretical models considered, it is possible to classify the instrument developed by Mael and Ashforth as global and the one proposed by Ellemers as multi-component.

1.4. Relevant studies on organizational identity in academics

Having come this far, it can be said that organizational identity corresponds to what members of the organization perceive, bristle, and think about the organization, that is, a sharing of values and special characteristics of the organization (Minh Tuyen Pham et al., 2020). In summary, it can be said that organizational identity is a psychological structure that unites employees of an organization, and if they identify with the attributes of the organization in which they work, positive work attitudes will be promoted (Davila and Garcia et al., 2012) and the intention to leave the company will be reduced (Mehtap and Kokalan et al., 2014).

In other words, organizational identity reflects employees' own awareness of and involvement with the organization's standards, values, and goals (Van Dick et al., 2004).

1.4.1. Managerialism

It turns out to be important to understand what the relationship between values and organizational identity within universities and academia is, as they underlie all aspects of academic and university life since they serve as guiding principles of the members of the university organization by shaping the preferences and choices of individuals and shaping their thinking (Beyer et al., 1981, Sproull et al., 1981). In addition to shaping the preferences and long-term behaviors of each member of the organization, they are fundamental, as already mentioned, to define the identity of a person (Kluckhohn et al., 1951) and the organization (Albert & Whetten et al., 1985).

These values turn out to be fundamental in making the individuals who are part of them understand their role in the relevant context and, with particular reference to university academic staff, these values help shape their behavior and the identity of academics and the institution (Henkel et al., 2005). Especially in universities, which are the institutions “*most value-laden institutions in modern society*” (Scott et al., 2004, p. 439): the values of which we speak are the autonomy institutional, collegiate governance, and academic freedom which are essential elements of academic and university identities.

A conception of organizational identity in the academies is based on a system of managerial, thus economic-private, and academic, called liberal-social, values, particularly within public universities, since they are hybrid structures organized into distinct professional groups of academic disciplines (Becher & Trowler et al., 2011; Winter et al., 2009) and each group is distinct from its own set of "*managerial-utilitarian*" and "*professional-normative*" values and goals (Deem et al., 2008). Managerialism, also called new public management in the public sector, has changed all aspects of academic work and identity around an idealized image of efficiency, strong managerial culture, entrepreneurship, and ideals of profit

(Diefenbach & Klarner et al., 2008; Chandler, Barry & Clark et al., 2002; Deem, Hillyard & Reed et al., 2008).

The goal is to align values and goals into a single corporate entity, but it is obviously difficult because academic staff, academics, and members in general of these organizations tend to identify more with their own subcultures, i.e., the values that characterize the subgroups of the organization and not the organization itself (Lewicki, Greenberger & Coyne et al., 2007). In this context, it is suggested that managerialism is an important mechanism of identity formation since it includes ideology, discourses, and axioms from the tried sector (Kolsaker et al., 2008, p. 514). Managerialism, in fact, has led to the creation of conditions based on the values with which academics align themselves with the university as an organization (organizational identity) (Winter et al., 2009). In fact, academics who are influenced by managerialism seem to be able to link values and interests to student learning management (Henkel et al., 1997, p.138) increasing student satisfaction as important clients with a strong real interest in their learning (Barnett et al., 2011).

It is argued that managerialism has led to a break in the academic world between "academic manager", which is reflected in the managerial concept, and "managed academic", which is not reflected in the managerial context (Table 1).

The academic manager is the one who has internalized the values and based on them has formed objectives that reflect the imperatives of an academic organization understood as a strong hierarchical management, income maximization, and performance management indicators and marketing (Deem, Hillyard & Reed et al., 2008). An academic manger is best identified in the corporate managerial context, that is, it accepts and acts in such a way as to manage other academics as subordinate employees in the interest of organizational efficiency and productivity improvement and considers the success of the institution based on corporate values (Henkel et al., 2005).

The managed academic, however, is the one who defended and promoted values of self-regulation, practice, collegial and educational standards that are not reflected in academic organizational identity (Brown & Humphreys et al., 2006; Churchman et al., 2006, Randle & Brady et al., 1997).

Academic identity	Dominant ideology	Values in use	Relationship to organization	Values fit to organization
Academic manager	Managerialism Unitary control	Utilitarian Universal	Assimilated/connected	Values congruence – person –

				organization fit
Managed academic	Professionalism Professional autonomy	Normative Distinctive	Subservient/disconnected	Values incongruence – person – organization misfit

Table 1: Academic manager and managed academic identities in the context of corporate managerialism

Because universities have numerous or hybrid identities, executives must express diverse interpretations and understandings of organizational difficulties rather than viewing all issues from a unified or enterprise-centric perspective. This type of "complex understanding" (Bartunek, Gordon, and Weathersby et al., 1983, p. 273) has been described as a feature of learning organizations in which employees build skills to confront and modify established behaviors (Kofman & Senge et al., 1993). This is likely to occur when university administrators collaborate with academic centers to match corporate policies and practices with academic normative ideals and the institution's instructional needs. Deans, as academic administrators, are at a critical point in terms of academic influence (Ramsden et al., 1998). Their position enables them to promote innovation and economic activity (managerial values) while maintaining academic autonomy, professionalism, and collegiality (normative values). Striking this balance reduces value conflicts if the dean can manage the stress and strain of attempting to be an effective manager while protecting academic staff and operations' autonomy and independence. Management training programs can assist department heads in navigating these competing needs and directions (Contractor et al., 2008). It is critical for university leaders to comprehend academic principles through words and actions. An important leadership tactic is to create an institutional vision that is acceptable and meaningful to both the institution's administrators and the academic institutions that it governs. This entails taking a principled stance on science's essential values while contextualizing teaching and research operations considering present realities, such as a shortage of financing (Henkel et al., 2005). It also encourages academic, administrative, and general staff to participate fully in broad, values-based declarations about what the institution and its members stand for, as well as what values will shape the institution's identity in the future (Maskell & Robinson et al., 2002). This can be more likely when leaders recognize differences in values and talk about higher education as a collective community rather than as a homogenous group united by corporate values and goals.

"The emphasis on the primacy of management over all other activities" (Deem and Brehony et al., 2005, p.220) is considered the distinctive feature of managerialism. According to Deem, the three main features of the new managerialism in higher education are efficiency, effectiveness, and excellence, since it as a management style involves quality assurance, decentralization, and accountability (Deem et al., 1998; Verhoeven et al., 2010).

The literature demonstrates how managerialism has transformed educational institutions into "customer-centric" organizations that consider students as customers rather than pupils. According to Kalfa and Taksa (2017), institutions are implementing new management techniques and focusing on strengthening relationships with stakeholders such as industry players who have specific skill requirements for employment.

The nature of organizational identity and its development allows us to consider the academics as a sub-identity of the academic (Trautwein et al., 2018) and to identify a professional identity (Kaasila et al., 2021; Ajayan, Balasubramanian et al., 2020; Yang, Shu, Yin et al., 2021).

Understanding the relationship between university professors and universities requires a knowledge of organizational identity (Lindebaum & Pugh et al., 2015). It represents the sense of belonging to and sharing the organization's values and goals that individuals build through their work experience. Several elements can influence teachers' organizational identity in the university context, including academic culture, university values and goals, the organization's mission and vision, organizational structure, and institutional policy. These variables can have an impact on academics' motivation and dedication, as well as their job satisfaction and sense of success (Asgary & Talebi et al., 2015). Organizational identity can also influence academics' interactions with colleagues and students, as well as their participation in university events and involvement in the organization's academic life (Gray & Wimbush et al., 1991).

CHAPTER 2: PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY THEORY

2.1 Definition of “Professional identity”

Professional identification is a kind of social awareness toward a profession and the consequent extent to which an individual identifies himself as a member of the profession (Pratt et al., 1998). Professional identity includes responsibility, values, ethical standards, and the association of individuals with their professional practice.

Professional identity formation is a complex process in which individuals deal with the development, difficulties, and balance between personal identity and professional identity. Professional identity is formed during the process of personal training and education for the profession.

This term has been defined as a "*relatively stable and enduring constellation of attributes, beliefs, values, motivations and experiences by which people define themselves in a professional role*" (Ibarra et al., 1999, p. 764).

Understanding what professional identity stands for is important because it defines how we perceive ourselves. Author Schein in his book "*Career dynamics: matching individual and organizational needs to explain the concept of professional identity*" refers to a number of self-concepts, characterized as "career anchors", reflecting motivations, values, talents, and skills perceived by individuals and acquired through work experiences. The author further explains that these concepts continually evolve over the course of an individual's career, building and shaping the person's "self."

The career anchors Schein refers to are three (Schein et al., 1978) (Figure 1):

- *talents and abilities*, achieving a series of successes in different work settings;
- *motivations and needs*, shaped both by opportunities for self-testing and self-diagnosis in real situations and by feedback from others;
- *attitudes and values*, reconciling the individual himself with the norms and values of the organization and work environment of which he is a part.

In other words, professional identity can be said to consist in the set of values and motivations workers possess, the skills they acquire and the contributions they make in the course of being a professional, understood as an individual making a profession. In fact, another definition of professional identity can be "*the ongoing critical reflection of the sum total of the professional's values, motivations, skills, and contributions within his or her community of practice*" (Backhouse et al., 2021).



Figure 1: Self-concept career anchors of professional identity

Professional identity is the concept that describes how we perceive ourselves in our professional context and how we communicate it to others. There are different academic definitions of professional identity. Ibarra (1999) suggests that it evolves through the socialization of work and the observation of our colleagues and Larson (1977) argues that it is based on shared skills (Siobhan et al., 2014).

A consistent component of the definitions of profession is work autonomy, that is a broad freedom in the performance of professional tasks or responsibilities (Beam et al., 1990; Hall et al., 1968; Morrow & Goetz et al., 1988). Another more material manifestation of professionalism is membership or participation in professional groups or societies (Johnstone et al., 1976). Johnstone (1976) first examined attitudes that reflect professionalism. One aspect of the work they addressed was job autonomy, as the researchers thought that the increasing bureaucratization and specialization, they saw in media organizations could reduce workers' perceived autonomy (Callaway Russo et al., 1998). In addition to examining work autonomy, the authors argued that interaction with other professionals would increase a sense of belonging to the profession and reinforce professional values (Callaway Russo et al., 1998).

Many scholars have defined professional identity differently for different study objects. Brott and Myers (1999), for example, feel that professional identity evolves through time, describing it as a cognitive frame of reference through which they perform their professional roles and obligations.

According to Puglia (2008), professional identity consists of three components: the philosophy of the profession, accreditation or certification of competence, and involvement in professional organizations and activities. According to Woo and Henfield (2015), the current popular concept of professional identity is

diverse, and each study on professional identity focuses on a specific group. According to Mahmoudi (2016), professional identity is associated with an individual's attitude and sense of commitment to a specific employment, which is shown in the individual's desire and love for the profession's ongoing work. Professional identity is a crucial driver of employees' motivation, contentment, and job dedication, all of which help to retention, whereas a lack of these elements can quickly lead to stress and burnout. As a result, professional identity has become an increasingly essential component in academic research, attracting increased attention. Van Der Wal (2019), for example, integrated professional identity with emotional assessment and investigated how professional identity tension can lead to behavioral responses.

2.2. Theoretical perspectives on professional identity in organizations

A fundamental prerequisite for adopting a professional identity is a complete understanding of one's personal identity, thus enabling the integration of personal and professional.

Professional identity is defined as a unified set of professional and personal selves that may be studied from two angles. The first group of researchers investigated how an individual, as part of a social framework, may impact identity construction. The alternative viewpoint considers how an individual, as a group leader, might influence the evolution of social systems. Stryker and Burke (2000) attempted to explain how these two approaches of identity theory relate over 20 years ago, recognizing that they are equally crucial for understanding the professional self, interactions, and institutions. Although professional identity is the most commonly used concept, some scholars discuss professional identity (X. Li, Hou, & Jia et al., 2015) or career identity (Lysova, Richardson, Khapova, & Jansen et al., 2015) by identifying them with professional identity and using these three different terms interchangeably. Scholars in the social sciences, medicine, business and management, and communication and information sciences have all conducted substantial research on professional identity. Identity aspects such as race, culture, class, religion, gender, and sexual orientation have been explained and empirically based (Jones & McEwen et al., 2000). Employees' occupational roles in various professions are scientifically investigated as part of professional identity. For example, Akkerman and Meijer (2011) defined professional identity as unitary and multiple, continuous and discontinuous, and individual and societal, all at the same time. The authors discovered that a coherent and consistent feeling of a professional self-inside the professional identity can be maintained throughout the professional career through a variety of individual and group participations and self-investments (Akkerman & Meijer et al., 2011). Hong, Greene, and Lowery (2017) identified three elements of professional identity building in their longitudinal qualitative study of professional identity development: multiplicity against unity, social against individual, and discontinuity against continuity.

Using the Akkerman and Meijer (2011) framework, Hong (2017) investigated dimensions of professional identity development related to the unity of self, the way the social environment is negotiated, and the

shifting or continuing pattern over time. These dimensions describe the process of becoming a professional in many social circumstances, although this process cannot be generalized. Hong (2017) defines the process of becoming as the construction, development, creation, or formation of professional identity. Regardless of how these many notions are applied, they are all linked by the process of social construction, which is a necessary component of professional identity formation (Leeds-Hurwitz et al., 2009).

2.2.1 Social identity theory

This perspective is reinforced by social identity theory, which contends that people categorize themselves and others into various social categories (Tajfel and Turner et al., 1985). This theory proposes that individuals are motivated to identify with their professions because it reduces uncertainty and provides self-validation (Hogg and Terry et al., 2000). Individuals can attain and sustain a positive self-image by identifying with a valuable career (Haslam et al., 2001). Identity theorists and social identity theorists both agree that when professional workers identify with their profession, they will incorporate distinct professional values and attitudes into their personal identity as a result of that affiliation and will enact the role expectations of their profession.

Henri Tajfel argues with his definition of "Social Identity Theory" (SIC) that strong identification with members of the professional group to which an individual belongs and identifies can be considered advantageous, as a professional is expected to think, act, and behave in accordance with the norms and values of the profession. However, from the perspective of interprofessional collaboration and learning, a strong single-professional identity formation may not be advantageous because it follows that professionals with a strong professional identity may show less willingness for interprofessional collaboration and learning, as they will strongly use the perspective of their own professional group (Van Den Broek et al., 2021). This may mean, for example, that they will not consider other professionals' feedback on their work valuable. In addition, interprofessional collaboration and learning may be impeded by disregard for the outside group.

Regardless, group procedures can be beneficial for interprofessional collaboration and learning: for example, in an interprofessional team, professionals may come to define their identity as members of a wider team, including members of diverse professions as simply members of the group. Some authors recommend encouraging team identities as a strategy to bridge professional gaps, but others are cautious due to the complexities of professional dynamics and status inequalities between groups. Strong identification has been linked to better outcomes in general. Internalized professional ideals become positively self-defining for professional employees, according to the literature on professionalism (Caplow et al., 1966; Morrow and Goetz et al., 1988). In addition, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) defined identification strength as a type of "*cognitive commitment*," which is a precursor to affective commitment.

As a result, the more cognitively dedicated people are to their jobs, the more affectively committed they will be. Individuals' self-esteem is also positively associated to identification (Ashforth and Mael et al., 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). Furthermore, high degrees of professional identity are linked to happier employees and extra-role supportive activities.

Researchers have been interested in understanding the antecedents of professional identification because it is often helpful to individuals and their work organizations. Socialization, defined as the social learning process through which a person obtains specific information and abilities required by a professional function (Hall et al., 1987), is vital in the formation of identity. Individuals begin to identify with their job throughout the phase of socialization, as they adopt the norms, beliefs, behaviors, and attitudes required of their new role. Socialization, from the standpoint of role identity, enables individuals to learn and practice the behavioral demands of their new professional positions. Socialization, from the standpoint of social identity, offers a foundation for attachment to the new professional group and maintains it through social bonds among group members.

In conclusion, much of the existing professional identification literature assumes that people differ in terms of how important and salient their profession is to their overall self-concept, and that quantifying this attachment in terms of its strength can help us understand individual attitudes and behaviors at work. According to the research on professional identification, socialization techniques have a significant impact on how strongly individuals identify with their job. However, there are additional antecedents that influence identification, such as professional qualities. Finally, professional identification is linked to a number of significant organizational outcomes, including affective commitment and job satisfaction.

2.2.2 Role theory

The role theory of Robert L. Kahn is concerned with the tendency of human behaviors to establish recognizable patterns that may be expected if the social circumstances in which those behaviors arise are known. He explains these behavior patterns or positions by assuming that persons in a specific setting seem as members of known social identities (or roles), and that these people and others around them have thoughts or expectations about their conduct in that context. Nonetheless, disagreements have developed regarding the usage of role words and the focus of role theory, and many versions of the theory have emerged among groups of authors who appear to be unaware of alternate versions. Role theory has also been undermined by its affiliation with contentious sociological theories (Callero et al., 2018).

Historically, anthropologist Ralph Linton used role theory to analyze social systems, and roles were defined as "*the dynamic aspects*" of recognized social positions, the status. In contrast, philosopher George Herbert Mead saw roles as coping techniques that individuals develop while interacting with others, and

he emphasized the importance of understanding others' viewpoints, *role taking*, as a requirement for good social interaction (Joas et al., 1993). Finally, psychologist Jacob Moreno defined roles as regular, sometimes detrimental, methods used by people in primary interactions and suggested that imitative conduct, *role playing*, was an effective strategy for acquiring new roles.

For some authors, the term "*role*" relates merely to the concept of social position; for others, it defines the typical behaviors of the members of the social position; and for yet others, it denotes the common expectations for the members of the position's actions (Mead et al., 1934). Furthermore, some authors believe that roles are always related to functions, whereas others see roles as behaviors: conforming to expectations, being directed toward others in the system, being volitional, validating the actor's status, or projecting a self-image. These discrepancies in position reflect both intellectual history and the reality that role theorists have grappled with various social systems.

An early perspective on role theory reflected Talcott Parsons' functionalism (Parsons et al., 1951). Stable but differentiated behaviors were expected to survive within social systems because they fulfilled functions and because players in those systems shared expectations about behaviors, functionalist theory was preoccupied with the problem of explaining social order. These mutual expectations, known as roles, formed norms of behavior, and players' adherence to the norms was driven either by other actors in the system imposing sanctions on the actor or by the actor internalizing them. Furthermore, system members were assumed to be aware of the norms they held and could be relied on to teach them to newcomers as they entered the system.

The work of Neal Gross, Robert Kahn, and their collaborators sparked interest in organizational role theory by challenging the premise that consensual norms are required for social stability. Instead, these authors proposed that formal organizations were frequently characterized by role conflicts, which caused challenges for both the actors and the organizations in which they arose, and that ways for dealing with or "resolving" role conflict might be explored (Turner et al., 2001).

In essence, role theory, developed by social psychologists such as Robert L. Kahn and Theodore Caplow, focuses on the social expectations and behaviors associated with specific roles. In organizations, individuals occupy various professional roles that involve a range of expectations, responsibilities, and behaviors. Professional identity is shaped by the roles individuals assume and the socialization processes they undergo within the organization. Individuals internalize the expectations and norms associated with their roles, which contribute to the development and maintenance of their professional identity.

2.3 Factors that shape professional identity

Professional identity creation is the study of how people construct a subjective perception of themselves in their professional roles. Individuals are rarely passive recipients of the identification process, according to research on identity construction, and socialization is not a unilateral process of conformity, but rather a negotiated adaptation of individuals to their professional environment (Schein, 1978; Nicholson et al., 1984; Ashford and Taylor et al., 1990). Individuals take a more active role in the process of identity creation using this approach to understanding professional identity. In this respect, rather than exploring the role of socialization agents in fostering an individual's identification with a target group, professional identity construction research explains the unique cognitive and behavioral strategies that individuals use to form a professional identity. Professional identity construction refers to a general process of identity formation, that is, "*an interpretive activity involved in the reproduction and transformation of self-identity*" (Alvesson and Willmott et al., 2002, p. 627). The active role of individuals in professional identity construction consists of "*doing, acting and interacting*" in the social context (Pratt et al., 2012, p. 26). Drawing on role identity theory (Burke et al., 2006; Burke and Reitzes et al., 1981; Stryker et al., 1980; Stryker and Burke et al., 2000; Stryker and Serpe et al., 1994), the construction of professional identity emphasizes how cognitive and behavioral tactics modify the meaning of "self" (Ibarra et al., 1999; Pratt et al., 2006). In fact, Ibarra (1999) revealed that workers learn to adapt to new roles by experimenting with "provisional selves", which refer to "*temporary solutions that people use to bridge the gap between their current abilities and self-concepts and the representations they have of what attitudes and behaviors are expected in the new role*" (Ibarra et al., 1999, p. 65).

Other players in the organizational setting also have a part in the professional identity creation process, according to research on identity construction (Ibarra et al., 1999; Pratt et al., 2006), however, this function is represented as more passive. Socializing agents, for example, provide feedback and act as role models who provide social validation (Ibarra et al., 1999; Pratt et al., 2006). Ibarra (1999) found that observing and receiving feedback from older members influenced professionals' experimentation with "provisional selves" and how they adapted to their new roles. She also proposed that "*validation through job feedback*" and "*validation through role models*" are important practices for self-assessment and professional identity construction.

To summarize, research on professional identity creation assumes that individuals play an active role in the formation of their professional identity and that others in the social context play a more passive one. As a result, individuals engage in cognitive and behavioral identity work to develop a picture of self that is more consistent with their perception of what it means to be a member of a specific profession. This

viewpoint contrasts with the professional identification literature, which emphasizes on the role of professional and organizational agents in molding individuals' views of belonging to their profession.

2.3.1 Multi-professionalism

There is a requirement within organizations for individuals to exercise multiple professional roles; this is precisely where "*hybrid roles*" arise, designed to help cross professional and task boundaries within the organization (Braithwaite and Hindle et al., 2001; Ferlie and Shortell et al., 2001). By creating hybrid job roles within the hierarchy, organizations are able to expand the duties, responsibilities, and expectations of their professional members. At the professional level, there has been an increase in hybrid occupations that arise as a merger of two distinct occupations.

Taking on multiple professional roles can also be voluntary (Ashforth et al., 2001; Ibarra et al., 2003). Some people do so voluntarily, deciding to leave a professional situation that no longer meets their needs. Other people may not want to leave their professional jobs, but they may find that after retiring, they still want to work and try something new. This tendency is known as "*outplacement*" (Bracken et al., 2007). Others may discover that their work objectives transcend the boundaries of a particular profession and, as a result, engage in various employment positions to satisfy those drives.

Individuals who wish to engage in several professional jobs must determine how to define themselves with respect to each professional function. Individuals have several, and often contradictory, ways of perceiving themselves (Markus and Nurius et al., 1986; Stryer and Serpe et al., 1982; Tajfel and Turner et al., 1979), but they differ in how they intrapsychically organize their many "professional group memberships". For example, if individuals enter a new profession while continuing to participate in the prior one, they may regard both as self-defined, at least for a time. As a result of having two identities that are both self-defining, the individuals must select how these identities are subjectively portrayed in relation to each other within their self-concept.

2.4 Relevant studies on professional identity in academics

To be professionally developed teachers within academics, their professional identity must be the priority (Hanna, 2020). Teachers' professional identity is a prominent subject in the field of education, primarily in the last three decades, signifying a point of view toward a career and one's professional role (Wang et al., 2018; Derakhshan et al., 2020). Professional identity is typically defined in the field of education as a set of perceptions and notions about how people see themselves as educators, and it refers to the fact that people understand the effect and meaning of their work in the community, which provides the mental basis for influential execution of work and achieves organizational goals (Zhang and Wang et al., 2018).

Professional identity is defined in academies as a record-based group of educators' sense of themselves as expert actors, and it comprises people's current professional interests, beliefs on education and student accomplishment, and future potential (Sutherland et al., 2010). Internalization of information, abilities, perspectives, professional ideals, and ethical standards that are subsequently intrinsic into individual personalities and manners in teaching and nursing can be linked to professional identity development (Qiu et al., 2019). They achieve identification as participants in the society of educators by participating in the social and cultural activities of the society of educators (Pillen et al., 2013). Educators can use professional identity as a resource to justify themselves and academic changes, as well as to inform their educational tasks and activities.

Furthermore, teachers' competence is primarily determined by their well-being, which is another key mental component to consider when assessing professional identity and professional commitment, both of which are argued to be critical for each educator and the entire educational establishment (Lauermann and König et al., 2016). In the academies, well-being is viewed as a multidimensional factor with personal, mental, and societal components (Wang et al., 2021). As there is a dynamic relationship between identity and well-being, professional identity influences well-being and vice versa. Crocetti (2008) investigates identity through the interaction of three cycles: commitment, in-depth examination, and commitment modification. A teacher's professional identity and sense of competence are crucial in defining their commitment to their work, which also links to their sense of identity and, hence, well-being (Skinner et al., 2021). According to Mofrad (2016), teaching is both an implementation of a decontextualized set of skills and knowledge and a dynamic cycle relying on the specific traits and contextual factors of educators.

Professional identity is defined as a set of beliefs and assumptions about how people perceive themselves as educators (Fejes and Köpsén et al., 2014). The image of educators and the recognition they attach to the group of professional educators to whom they belong represent educator professional identity (Li and Qiu et al., 2016). People's preferences, aspirations, values, and professional concepts are also included (Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate et al., 2016). Furthermore, Van Veen and Slegers (2009) provided a more comprehensive picture of elements influencing teachers' professional identity, identifying career incentives, primary duties, self-esteem notions about education, the topic of education, and education as labor. Furthermore, professional commitment is an important component of educators' professional identities. Tao & Gao (2017) define professional commitment as the incorporation of educators' professional preferences, core beliefs, desires, identifications, and views into their meaningful functions. It is critical that people's subjective mental experiences of identity be described rather than differing notions of objective truths of the "real self" (Vignoles et al., 2006). People may construct their social or work identities based on the dimensions of their career or institution, because professional identity is the image

of people's selves, specifically the set of ideas, values, reasons, and experiences that individuals use to describe themselves in their career potential (Slay and Smith et al., 2011).

2.4.1 Teaching-related professional identity

Teachers' professional identities can influence teaching quality, professional development, and long-term career success (Rots et al., 2010; Agee et al., 2004; Korthagen et al., 2004). It can be defined, firstly, as: *“a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of ‘how to be’, ‘how to act’ and ‘how to understand’ their work and their place in society. Importantly, teacher identity is not something that is fixed nor is it imposed; rather it is negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience.”* (Sachs et al., 2005, p. 15).

Teachers' commitment to teaching and self-efficacy, that is, their belief in their own ability to do their job, are essential components of their professional identity and have a significant impact on student achievement and attitudes (Day, Elliot, and Kington et al., 2005; Galman et al., 2009). Teachers' professional identities, according to a study on teaching professional identity (Karousiou, Hajisoteriou, and Angelides et al., 2019), influence not only their classroom practices, but also how they understand and implement educational regulations. This study found that when teachers' identities, values, and experiences are threatened by an educational policy, they resist change and obstruct its implementation. As a result, teachers should be regarded as autonomous professionals rather than as simply enforcers of imposed programs. This means that the voices of teachers, as well as their needs and expectations, must be considered in the development and implementation of teacher policies. However, the creation of a strong teaching professional identity overlaps with varied stakeholder expectations, as well as contradictory demands related to the changing setting in which teachers work. On the one hand, the responsibilities of stakeholders have altered and varied throughout time: the expectations of parents, students, politicians, and other major stakeholders in the broader community, such as the labor market and research community, differ (OECD et al., 2020). If durable solutions are to be developed, teachers must tackle these different expectations, which include greater roles, and define priorities. On the other hand, the environment in which teachers work is changing. Growing demands for fairness and inclusion in the face of more diverse and heterogeneous student populations are among the new expectations of school systems (Banks et al., 2006; Karousiou, Hajisoteriou, and Angelides et al., 2019). Furthermore, in recent decades, there has been a shift toward individualized and student-centered pedagogies (Schleicher et al., 2018). Teachers face technological problems as well: social networks and digital platforms encourage new content and instructional techniques, and artificial intelligence is becoming more significant as an educational agent (Lanas and Kelchtermans et al., 2015; Minea- Pic et al., 2020). Furthermore, in certain educational institutions, the trend toward increased accountability and control, which is typically limited to a small set

of success criteria (e.g., student accomplishment), leaves little room for defining the responsibilities and values that teachers themselves perceive to be the core of their identity. Such conditions provide a challenge in defining teachers' roles, which may impact or be aided by the development of a strong professional identity. As a result, it is critical that teachers receive the support they require to create strong professional identities that allow them to respond flexibly and act on changes (Sachs et al., 2016).

There is evidence that the professional identity of teachers is closely related to:

- the education system and the school environment;
- structures and support;
- the behavior and attitudes of teachers;
- the results of the students.

Both the institutional and sociocultural context of the education system and the school system affect teachers' perception of themselves and influence their behaviors and student outcomes (Sachs et al., 2005; Mockler et al., 2020). The structures and support provided by the school and the educational system as a whole greatly influence the professional identities of teachers. Therefore, the personal and professional experiences of teachers, mediated by the context and the support they receive, give shape to the beliefs they have about their own role as teacher (Nias et al., 1998; Bailey et al., 2006). In addition, teachers' professional relations, group affinities and collaboration with colleagues influence the establishment of their professional identities (Davey et al., 2013). Initial training and subsequent support by mentors or supervisors further shape teachers' beliefs and opinions about themselves and the profession (Zhao and Zhang et al., 2017; Rodrigues and Mogarro et al., 2019). The professional identity of teachers, in turn, has an effect on their behaviors and actions, such as commitment to the profession and the decision to remain there (Agee et al., 2004; Day, Elliot and Kington et al., 2005; Korthagen et al., 2004) participation in professional development and the quality of teaching. These teacher behaviors are related to student outcomes (Day, Elliot, and Kington et al., 2005; Galman et al., 2009). At the same time, both the actions of teachers and the results obtained, and the responses of students evoke personal and collective reflections of teachers, thus modifying and reconfiguring their professional identity (Flores and Day et al., 2006).

In this sense, the professional identity of teachers is a dynamic and constantly evolving construct.

2.4.2 Research-related professional identity

Academic identity is a complex and interesting topic involving various aspects of academic life, including scientific research. Academic identity is a critical component of planning an academic career (Lofgren, Wieslander et al., 2016). Academic identity is different and unique, and it can be characterized as the fundamental attitude that governs how people approach the concept of labor. Role conflicts and job stress

in higher education institutions are unavoidable (Ching et al., 2021). The development of the individual's academic identity is a highly social process. Identity is frequently developed within an organizational setting (Ybema, Keenoy, Oswick, Beverungen, Ellis, Sabelis et al., 2009) and is constantly influenced by organizational changes (Gioia, Thomas et al., 1996). In other words, identification gives people a sense of who they are and how they fit in with their surroundings (Kogan et al., 2002).

Collegiality is regarded as one of the core characteristics of professionalism in academic research, based on trust in the knowledge and authority of experts (Brante et al., 2005; Evetts et al., 2010). However, it has been demonstrated that a strong sense of collegiality can constitute a professional authority issue when faced against other critics (Chen et al., 2016; Hargreaves et al., 2001; Kelchtermans et al., 2006). Thus, collegiality is intimately tied to individual professionals' competency and ability to make discretionary judgments, as well as the ability of colleagues, or their organizations, to control professional activity. This summary demonstrates that collegiality is a notion with both normative and relational components, highlighting personal experiences, for example. In terms of significant human experiences, collegiality is defined as "*the quality of relationships among staff members*" (Kelchtermans et al., 2006, p. 221). One of the primary issues is the functioning of collegiality in the academic context, which underlines the growth of competitive individualism in instructors' perceptions of collegiality: collegiality is distinct from collaboration, despite the fact that the two are sometimes used interchangeably. Collaboration between teachers is more descriptive and can cover "almost any type of work together" (Hargreaves et al., 2001, p. 504), whereas collegiality focuses on teacher relations and includes a normative personality. However, "*collaborative actions and collegial relations constitute important working conditions for teachers*" (Kelchtermans et al., 2006, p. 221) and play an important part in professional identity construction. While collegiality is frequently regarded as innately desirable, more nuanced perspectives emphasize the need of acknowledging that it can take various forms depending on culture and environment. Hargreaves (1994) distinguishes two types of collegialities: collaborative collegiality, defined as organicity, authenticity, and informality, and "artificial collegiality", defined as more formal, often imposed, and hence inauthentic. Little (1990), on the other hand, illustrates how collegiality can work on a spectrum spanning from independence to collective autonomy, leading up to interdependence, where mutually beneficial collective relations contribute to the development of professional knowledge. In any case, it cannot be considered that collegiality is a peaceful element of the professional identity of teachers when there is a tension between collegiality and competition (Holloway & Brass et al., 2018). According to the studies, collegiality tends to be fragmented and focused on "coping", dominated by isolation, which is a more dominant experience overall. Initiatives to promote collegiality, such as formal mentoring programs or structured collaboration, may be a necessary first step in developing a strong professional identity in academic settings. On the one hand, such initiatives may recall an artificial collegiality, but on the other hand they could provide space for the emergence of authentic collegial relationships (Datnow et al., 2011).

In order for the teaching profession to be able to withstand the most harmful effects of de-professionalization, a strong tradition of collegial professionalism is needed (Hargreaves et al., 2000).

Academic freedom is also an important topic because it relates to a special group of people, professors and researchers, who have nearly limitless freedom of expression. In the context of higher education, an individual's sense of academic identity influences their perception of academic freedom. In recent studies, the interrelation between academic identity and academic freedom has been the subject of increasing interest and importance, as academic identity refers to an individual's sense of belonging, purpose and role within the academic community, while academic freedom refers to the autonomy and rights of scholars to pursue research, teaching and intellectual interests without interference or censorship (Bérubé & Ruth et al., 2015). The connection between the two concepts highlighted how an individual's perception of their academic identity can have a significant impact on the exercise of academic freedom in the context of higher education. The psychological and sociocultural factors that contribute to the development of academic identity and its implications on research autonomy, intellectual curiosity and the pursuit of knowledge were explored. It evinces the critical role of academic identity in influencing the ability to engage in innovative research and express independent thinking, while recognizing the potential challenges and constraints imposed by institutional and external factors (Karran et al., 2007). For example, scholars who identify strongly with their academic discipline or institution may feel more inclined to pursue research topics aligned with their identity, thus experiencing a degree of freedom in their intellectual pursuits; scholars who have a strong sense of academic identity and are deeply passionate about their research topics are more likely to engage in exploratory and innovative research, benefiting from the freedom to pursue unconventional and original ideas, and also may be more willing to openly share their research and participate in scholarly discussions, thus benefiting from the freedom to communicate their findings to a wider audience (Prakash et al., 2011).

The interrelationship between academic identity and scientific curiosity is a crucial aspect of the academic landscape, as it plays a significant role in shaping motivation, research interests and contributions to scholarly knowledge. Academic identity refers to an individual's sense of self, belonging and purpose within the academic community, while scientific curiosity is the intrinsic drive to explore, question and seek understanding in the pursuit of knowledge. Regarding the connection between academic identity and scientific curiosity in higher education. It's important to study how academics' perception of their professional role, disciplinary affiliations, and sense of belonging to the academic community affects their level of scientific curiosity and enthusiasm for research (Abakpa et al., 2018). In fact, the alignment between academic identity and research interests affects the motivation of scholars to exploration, innovative thinking and knowledge creation: precisely for this reason when researchers feel a deep connection with their academic identity, they are more likely to be motivated by their intellectual interests,

resulting in greater passion for their research efforts. However, external factors, such as institutional constraints or pressures to conform to certain research agendas, can hinder scientific curiosity, potentially influencing the way scholars perceive and express their academic identity (Hakala et al., 2009).

CHAPTER 3: SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY IN ACADEMIC SETTINGS

As noted, in academic contexts, both organizational and professional identities play important roles in shaping the roles, behaviors and interactions of individuals. When exploring these multifaceted topics through the lens of social identity theory, it raises the question of whether these two important goals of education can give rise to tension (Van den Broek et al., 2021). Social identity theory explains how humans in certain social circumstances classify themselves and the people around them as belonging to social groups. It postulates that people can incorporate these social group memberships into their self-concept or "social identity", which is defined by Henri Tajfel, as "*that part of the self-concept of individuals that derives from their knowledge of their membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership*" (Tajfel et al., 1982, p.2). People behave in line with the values and standards of the social group with which they identify, particularly, the social group that is salient in the social setting under consideration, as a result of social identification. People use unconscious psychological methods to regard the group with which they identify as the 'in-group', and as more favorable than other groups, the 'out-groups', because they need high self-esteem. Positive sentiments toward group members (in-group partiality) and unfavorable views toward out-group individuals (out-group derogation) can come from social identification.

Since social identification refers to the extent to which an individual experiences a sense of unity with a group, such as an organization (Ashforth & Mael et al., 1989; Turner et al., 1991), it leads people to see themselves and other group members as possessing the values, goals, and attitudes considered standard for group members, rather than possessing unique individual characteristics (Turner et al., 1984). People tend to perceive group members as "like them", meaning that they are basically interchangeable with themselves and share a common destiny (Kramer, Brewer, & Hanna et al., 1996; Kramer & Goldman et al., 1995). In this way, people are inclined to perceive group members as "on their side". Therefore, organizational identification leads to the presumption of a common perspective in the group on the world and greater relational closeness among group members.

Professional identification, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which a professional employee feels a sense of unity with the profession. Social identification impacts one's self-perception not only in regard to other group members, but also in respect to non-group members (Turner et al., 1987). Non-group members are perceived as less trustworthy, less positively evaluated, and as distinct as a result of social identity (Jetten, Spears, & Manstead et al., 1996). Identification with a group causes people to perceive

nongroup members, especially those of competing groups, as distinct and uninteresting (Brewer et al., 1979; Kramer et al., 1996; Turner et al., 1984).

Organizational and professional identification are thought to orient professors in their relationships in fundamentally distinct ways. Some professionals regard themselves as professionals first and members of the organization second; others consider the profession and the organization as more or less equally self-defining (Johnson et al., 2006). Employees are more inclined to face identity conflict when they have equal levels of organizational and professional identification. When two components of one's self-concept, such as two types of social identification, direct individuals to participate in incompatible behaviors in a given context, identity conflict develops (Baumeister et al., 1999). Identity conflict is stressful (Kreiner, Hollisbee, & Sheep et al., 2006; Pratt, Rockman, & Kauffman et al., 2006) and may lead to employees behaving erratically toward the organization (Wang & Pratt et al., 2007).

Because of the possibility for identity conflicts, organizational and professional identification are evaluated together when analyzing employee compliance with administrative social influence. One form of identification's orienting effects interacts with those of the other. As a result, professional interpretations of social-administrative impact by employees are obvious only when identification with one group is high and low with the other. Otherwise, interpretations based on organizational or professional affiliation are challenged, making them less reliable as guides to thought and action.

3.1 Similarities

However, it was found that both organizational and professional identities have commonalities within the academic context. The main similarities will be explained below, first from the perspective of organizational identity and then from that of professional identity.

One of the main effects of both identities is the impact they have on professors within the academic environment (Callaway Russo et al., 1998). Organizational identity can have a significant influence on professors' behavior through, for example:

- alignment with institutional goals, as organizational identity helps professors align their behaviors with the goals and values of the academic institution. Indeed, they are more likely to support and contribute to the institution's mission, strategic initiatives, and educational goals (Cattonar et al., 2007). This alignment can guide their teaching approaches, research focus, and further service activities;
- adherence to institutional norms and culture: organizational identity fosters a sense of belonging and encourages professors to conform to the institution's norms and culture (Fieseler et al., 2015).

Professors may adopt the institution's teaching methods, research practices, and professional standards will be more likely to engage in collaborative activities, participate in institutional events, and adhere to established policies and procedures;

- commitment to institutional reputation (Afshari et al., 2019): organizational identity influences professors' commitment to sustain and enhance the institution's reputation. Professors may strive for excellence in their teaching and research to maintain or improve the institution's standing within the academic community;
- engagement in institutional citizenship: organizational identity encourages professors to engage in institutional citizenship, which involves active participation in shared governance and decision-making processes. Professors can contribute their expertise, serve on committees, and provide leadership within their departments or across the institution. They can also actively support institutional initiatives, such as diversity and inclusion efforts or community engagement programs (Norman et al., 2010);
- collaboration and teamwork: organizational identity promotes collaboration and teamwork among professors. Professors may seek opportunities to collaborate with colleagues within and outside their departments, promoting interdisciplinary research, joint teaching projects or collaborative grant proposals (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2015). They may also engage in mentoring and support junior faculty, contributing to a positive academic environment;
- adapting to institutional changes: Organizational identity can help professors adapt to institutional changes more effectively (Fox-Wolfgramm et al., 1998). When the institution undergoes transformations, such as new leadership, strategic shifts, or policy changes, professors with a strong organizational identity may be more open to embracing and implementing these changes, aligning their behavior with the evolving needs of the institution.

Regarding professional identity, it plays a significant role in shaping professors' behavior within academic settings. Here are some ways in which professional identity can influence professors' behavior:

- teaching approaches: professional identity influences academics' approaches to teaching. Professors with a strong professional identity may be more likely to employ innovative, research-based teaching methods that align with the principles and practices of their academic discipline (Zhao et al., 2022);
- engagement in professional development: professional identity encourages professors to engage in continuous learning and professional development (Zhang et al., 2022). They attend conferences, workshops, and seminars relevant to their discipline, staying current with the latest research and advances. Professional identity fosters a commitment to continuous growth, which in turn influences their teaching, research, and scholarly contributions;

- networking and collaboration: professional identity encourages professors to network and collaborate with colleagues in their academic discipline. They actively seek opportunities for interdisciplinary collaboration as engaging with other professionals helps professors stay connected to the broader academic community and facilitates the sharing of ideas and expertise;
- professional ethics and standards: professional identity guides professors' adherence to ethical principles and professional standards within their discipline. It shapes their commitment to academic integrity, research ethics, and responsible conduct (Ahuja et al., 2022). Professors with a strong professional identity are more likely to uphold these standards in their teaching, research, and interactions with students and colleagues;
- Career development and advancement: professional identity influences professors' career aspirations and decisions. It can shape their choices regarding promotion, tenure, and professional advancement within academia. Professors may seek leadership roles, editorial positions, or involvement in professional associations to further contribute to their academic discipline and enhance their professional standing (Gough et al., 2020).

Another factor that can be attributed to both aspects of the study is the source of identification. Organizational identity can be considered as a source of identification for professors in academic contexts for the following aspects:

- belonging and sense of purpose: organizational identity can provide professors with a sense of belonging to a larger academic community (Cornelissen et al., 2003). By identifying with the organization, professors can feel part of something meaningful and share a sense of common purpose. This can positively influence their commitment and motivation in contributing to the success of the organization;
- shared values and culture: organizational identity is often based on shared values and a specific organizational culture. Professors who identify with these values and adapt to the organizational culture are more likely to adopt behaviors consistent with the organization's goals and principles (Stensaker et al., 2014);
- involvement and participation: when professors identify with the organizational identity, they are more likely to actively engage in the organization itself (Weerts et al., 2014). They may take on leadership roles, participate in projects and initiatives that promote the goals of the organization. Identification with the organization can increase their sense of responsibility and desire to contribute to its success.

On the other hand, however, professional identity can be regarded as a source of identification according to these views:

- academic role: professional identity can provide professors with a sense of identity and belonging to their academic role (Zhao et al., 2022). They may identify themselves as teachers and researchers, recognizing the importance and value of their educational mission and knowledge production. This identification with the academic role can nurture a sense of purpose and meaning in their work;
- professional values and goals: The professional identity of professors is often rooted in specific values and goals related to teaching and research. These may include a passion for learning, commitment to student growth, promotion of knowledge, and contribution to the advancement of one's field of study. Identification with these values can motivate professors to be committed and dedicated to their academic work;
- identification with the academic community: Professional identity can facilitate professors' identification with the broader academic community (Cardoso et al., 2014). They can feel part of a network of colleagues with similar interests and goals, sharing a common language and professional culture;
- professional autonomy: The professional identity of professors often includes a dimension of autonomy and academic freedom. They may identify themselves as professionals who have control over their own research and teaching decisions. This identification with professional autonomy can influence how professors engage in their work, make decisions, and adapt to academic challenges.

3.2 Differences

Although the organizational and professional identities within the academies may seem similar in some respects and lead, as we have just seen, to similar influences and impacts, the main differences of these two identities will be exposed below:

- focus and scope: while organizational identity focuses primarily on an academic institution, such as a university may be, and encompasses its mission, values, culture, and traditions, professional identity, on the other hand, focuses on an individual's specific academic discipline or field of study, encompassing the knowledge, skills, and professional roles associated with that discipline (Dumay et al., 2000);
- level of identification: organizational identity tends to be broader in scope, as individuals associate themselves with the institution as a whole, its reputation and collective goals; professional identity, on the other hand, is more specialized and specific to one's academic discipline, reflecting skills, professional standards, and disciplinary norms;
- stability and change: organizational identity can change over time due to factors such as changes in leadership, shifts in institutional priorities, or external influences. Professional identity, although

also subject to evolution, is generally more stable and enduring, as it is rooted in an individual's chosen academic field and their ongoing professional development within that field;

- role in decision making: organizational identity may play a stronger role in decision making at the institutional level, as it represents the collective interests and values of the academic institution as a whole (Russo et al., 1998); whereas professional identity may have a more direct impact on decision making at the individual level, influencing choices related to research, teaching approaches, or career paths within the academic discipline.

As a whole, while organizational identity and professional identity have in common the ability to shape behavior and foster social integration within academic contexts, their purpose, scope, level of identification, stability and influence on decision-making differentiate them from each other. Both identities contribute to individuals' sense of belonging and play a significant role in shaping academic communities.

3.3 Managerialism

Generally, managerialism is understood as "*the domain of management practices and ideas*" (Maier & Meyer et al., 2009, p. 8) and has been conceptualized as "*a specific form of organizational structure incorporating effectiveness, efficiency, agency and progress as core standards*" (Maier & Meyer et al., 2009, pp. 32-33). Yet another definition is "*a set of beliefs and practices, at the core of which burns the rarely tested assumption that better management will prove to be an effective solution to a wide range of economic and social ills*" (Pollitt et al., 1993, p. 1). Managerialism refers to a managerial approach oriented toward the efficient management of organizations, which is often based on business and commercial principles. The widespread belief was that the use of managerial tools could optimize the performance of any organization in any situation (Alexander & Weiner et al., 1998; Brainard & Siplon et al., 2004; Kelley et al., 2005). Nevertheless, Smith (1996) contrasted this thought by suggesting that the new managerial culture imported from the world of paid work leads organizations to professionalize and to structure themselves more around principles of rationality, formal definition of rules and construction of bureaucratic roles, becoming less participatory and less democratic (Olson et al., 1965).

3.3.1 Impact on organizational identity

Any institution's organizational identity is a vital intangible component. Albert and Whetten were the first to highlight the prospect of figuratively projecting the concept of identity onto organizations in order to characterize and explain their dynamics in 1985. When companies must make difficult decisions, when discussions of aims and principles become heated, when there is deep disagreement or uncertainty, and when questions such as "Who are we?" or "What do we want to be?" arise, organizational identity comes

into play. Organizational identity, according to Albert and Whetten (1985), represents organizational attitudes such as fundamental principles, organizational culture, styles of performance, and products. They defined organizational identity as the features of a company that its members regard as central, distinct, and long-lasting (Albert & Whetten et al., 1985). In other words, organizational identity consists of those characteristics that members regard as basic, central, and only descriptive, distinctive, and which remain in the organization throughout time, lasting (Kreutzer and Jager et al., 2010).

The influence of managerialism on organizational identity in higher education can be significant and can have both positive and negative effects. Managerialism refers to a managerial approach oriented toward the efficient management of organizations, which is often based on business and commercial principles. In higher education (Deem, Hillyard & Reed et al., 2007), this can result in increased centralization of decision-making, greater emphasis on quantifiable outcomes, and increased competition among institutions.

One of the most obvious impacts of managerialism on organizational identity is an inclination toward a market-oriented mindset. Academic institutions may begin to see themselves as businesses that must attract students and external funding to survive and thrive (Becher & Trowler et al., 2011). This may lead to an increased focus on institutional image, promotion and marketing, and a decreased focus on educational mission and quality research.

In addition, managerialism may influence organizational identity by redefining the roles and responsibilities of members of the academic institution. This could lead to greater task specialization and an increase in administration and managerial roles at the expense of faculty. The emphasis could shift toward efficiency and productivity, with less emphasis on academic freedom and democratic participation in decision-making (Maringe & Foskett et al., 2010).

However, it is important to note that not all consequences of managerialism are negative. The adoption of more efficient management can lead to greater accountability, transparency, and responsibility in decision-making processes (Shore & Wright et al., 2000). It could also promote a greater focus on results and accountability, encouraging institutions to improve their performance and provide higher quality educational service.

Ultimately, the influence of managerialism on organizational identity in higher education depends on the approach taken and its implementation. A balanced and informed use of managerialism could help improve the efficiency and competitiveness of academic institutions (Bleiklie et al., 2014), but it is crucial to preserve the core values and goals of higher education, such as academic freedom, the pursuit of knowledge, and the welfare of students and the academic community.

3.3.2 Impact on professional identity

Managerialism's rise in recent decades has drastically altered the work environment and organizational dynamics in a variety of industries. The introduction of managerial practices focused at efficient management, in particular, has had a considerable impact on workers' professional identities. Managerialism's pressures have shaped and reshaped professional identity, defined as the set of values, beliefs, and traits that characterize a specific group of professionals (Deem et al., 2005). Changes in professional responsibilities, decision-making autonomy, required skills, and perceptions of the value of work accomplished have resulted from this phenomenon.

The impact of managerialism on professional identity in higher education can be significant and have a number of both positive and negative consequences within institutions.

These include a likely reduction of professional autonomy, as decisions are often taken centrally, limiting the ability to influence institutional policies and practices, undermining the sense of professional control and self-determination. The managerial approach can also lead to a high level of bureaucracy in higher education through standardized procedures (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond & Carver-Thomas et al., 2016). This can create to bring a distance between the individual and their original professional identity; continuing, managerialism can promote an organizational culture focused on competition and individualism, where individuals are driven to achieve personal goals rather than collaborate collectively. This can undermine the sense of community and professional solidarity.

However, it is important to note that the impact of managerialism on professional identity is not uniform and may vary depending on the specific contexts and policies adopted by the institutions (Deem et al., 2005). Some people might adapt well to a more managerial approach, while others may feel frustrated.

CHAPTER 4: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

4.1 Introduction: the research's objectives

In the evolving landscape of higher education, the significance of organizational and professional identity for academics has become a subject of increasing interest and relevance. This master thesis endeavors to explore the interplay between organizational and professional identity and its effects on higher education. Through a comprehensive survey conducted among academics from various disciplines and institutions, this research aims to shed light on the factors that shape their sense of belonging and affiliation with their respective universities, and how their professional roles with their personal identities. The study of organizational and professional identity has emerged as a critical area of inquiry. As universities grapple with an ever-changing educational ecosystem, the significance of understanding the intricate relationships between faculty members' identities and their academic institutions has become increasingly apparent. Today, as institutions of higher education face various challenges, including technological advances, globalization, and changes in student demographics, it is important to investigate how organizational and professional identity influences educators' experiences, attitudes, and motivations. Organizational identity in higher education is of paramount importance, as it provides valuable insights into the core values, beliefs and distinctiveness of academic institutions. By understanding the essence of an institution's identity, administrators and stakeholders can better articulate its mission and vision, fostering a stronger sense of purpose and direction. Organizational identity research helps create a cohesive and united community by fostering a shared sense of belonging among faculty, staff and students. In addition, a clear and well-defined identity enables institutions to build a unique reputation and attract people who share their values. Moving forward, the study of professional identity in higher education is of great importance, as it provides essential insights into the roles, attitudes, and motivations of faculty members within academic settings. Understanding how faculty members perceive themselves in their professional roles can offer valuable perspectives on their engagement in teaching, research, and service to the institution and the academic community at large. By exploring professional identity, institutions of higher education can tailor faculty development programs to meet the specific needs and aspirations of their educators, ultimately improving teaching effectiveness and student learning experiences. In addition, a deeper understanding of professional identity can inform faculty recruitment and retention strategies, fostering a sense of pride and belonging among faculty. Ultimately, the study of professional identity in higher education is instrumental in building a more dynamic and thriving academic community that fosters the growth and success of educators and students.

This master's thesis explores organizational and professional identity in addition to managerialism and academicism's major roles in the higher education environment. The concurrent effect of these two forces,

each of which has shaped the experiences and identities of educators, has been a defining feature of higher education's dynamic nature. Managerialism has changed the academic environment by placing more emphasis on productivity, responsibility, and business processes within universities. Managerialism may affect faculty members' perceptions of their roles within the institution, which may have an impact on their sense of professional identity and autonomy. In contrast, academicism reflects the traditional values and core principles of academia, emphasizing the pursuit of knowledge and intellectual freedom. This dynamic interplay between managerialism and academicism adds an additional layer of complexity to the formation of educators' organizational and professional identities.

This study, therefore, seeks to examine also how the co-existence of managerialism and academicism influences the organizational and professional identities of higher education teachers in the Italian academic context.

4.1.1. Initial hypothesis

It is fundamental to underline the exploratory nature of this research, driven by the aspiration to provide a complete "portrait" of the current state of the Italian university environment. Deepening the relationships between the variables, this study aims to offer valuable information on the prevailing identity dynamics, managerial practices and academic values in the context of Italian higher education. Precisely because of the exploratory nature of this research there are few starting hypotheses, which are however formulated below: the first hypothesis argues that organizational identity and professional identity are at odds with each other. This hypothesis predicts that as organizational identity becomes stronger within an academic institution, there may be a corresponding decline in individual faculty members' identification with their professional roles and scholarly activities. Thus, we expect that a greater emphasis on cultivating individual professional identities and encouraging diverse courses of study could potentially result in a weaker attachment to the broader institutional identity. Thus, tension between organizational identity and professional identity may emerge as faculty members grapple with the balancing act between aligning with the institution's goals and maintaining their distinct academic passions and roles.

H1. Organizational identity is negatively correlated with professional identity.

The second hypothesis postulates the negative relationship between managerialism and academicism. This hypothesis suggests that as managerial principles and practices become more prominent within academic institutions, there may be a corresponding decline in the emphasis on academic rigor, intellectual curiosity, and scholarly research among faculty members.

H2. Managerialism is negatively correlated with academicism.

Based on this hypothesis, we anticipate that the rise of managerialism may lead to a reduction in autonomy in research and teaching, as faculty members may feel compelled to align their scholarly activities with institutional priorities rather than pursue innovative and intellectually stimulating work. As a result, a negative correlation between managerialism and academicism is expected, in which an increase in managerial approaches could result in a decline in the pursuit of academic excellence and the fostering of a vibrant community of scholars.

In addition, a hypothesis that concerns a positive correlation between managerialism and organizational identity, suggesting that as managerial principles become more widespread, faculty members may develop a stronger sense of affiliation and organizational belonging, is proposed. Instead, we predict a negative correlation between managerialism and professional identity, implying that an increase in managerial practices could lead to a lower sense of professional identity among academics.

H3a. Managerialism is positively correlated with organizational identity.

H3b. Managerialism is negatively correlated with professional identity.

On the other hand, the following hypothesis postulates a positive correlation between academicism, here intended as the adherence to the funding principles of academic work, such as collegiality, independent thinking, curiosity etc., and professional identity, thus theorizing that when emphasis on academic rigor and scholarship is strengthened, faculty members may experience greater identification with their professional roles and the academic community. Conversely, a negative correlation between academia and organizational identity is expected, proposing that intense attention to academic activities may lead to a reduced sense of attachment to the broader institutional identity.

H4a. Academicism is positively correlated with professional identity.

H4b. Academicism is negatively correlated with organizational identity.

Finally, we also hypothesize that academic identity may also be associated to indicators of academic performance. In particular, here it is hypothesized that the H-index, an indicator of research proficiency, based on number of publications and citations, may show a positive association with professional identity, but not with organizational identity.

H5a. Indices of academic performance, such as the H-index, show a positive association with professional identity and no association with organizational one.

H5b. *Indices of academic performance, such as the H-index, show a positive association with principles of academicism, and a negative one with principles of managerialism.*

4.2 Methodology

A survey-based methodology was adopted for this research to explore organizational and professional identities in the Italian academic context. The survey instrument was designed to collect comprehensive data on faculty members' perceptions of their institutional affiliation, called organizational identity, and their self-perceived roles and affiliations as professionals, i.e., professional identity. The survey questions were carefully crafted to cover various dimensions of identity, including sense of belonging to the institution, alignment with its values, and degree of identification with the academic profession. The survey was distributed to a heterogeneous sample of faculty from various universities in Italy, ensuring representation of various disciplines and academic ranks. Using this survey-based methodology, the research aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex relationship between organizational and professional identity in the Italian academic context.

The questionnaire used for this study, that can be found in Appendix A, has been administered in English and took roughly 5 minutes to fill out. It consists of an initial descriptive portion that seeks to gather demographic and contextual information about the participating academics. It includes questions about age, gender and job position, which allow to characterize the composition of the sample and identify any potential demographic patterns that may influence perceptions of identity. In addition, the survey collects data on participants' academic achievements by asking for their H-index, which provides information on research productivity and impact within the scholarly community.

In addition, the survey delves into institutional aspects by collecting information about the department in which respondents work and the range of responsibilities they have held during their careers. In addition, the survey distinguishes between public and private higher education institutions, allowing to investigate potential differences in perceived identity between these two contexts. In addition, the geographic location of the university, classified as north, south or central Italy, will offer valuable insights into possible regional variations in organizational and professional identities.

By including these detailed elements in the survey, we aim to paint a picture of the characteristics of faculty members and institutional contexts. This will facilitate a deeper exploration of the interplay between organizational and professional identities, contributing to a deeper understanding of their significance within the Italian higher education system.

The second part, moving forward, focuses on surveying the personality traits of the participating academics. This section includes a series of 24 statements, which are asked to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 corresponds to "strongly disagree" and 5 to "strongly agree" (De Vries et al., 2013). The 24 sentences were taken from the study conducted by De Vries in 2013 in which he provides six main dimensions of personality, and the 24 items aim to cover these dimensions with relatively low loss of validity. The statements include a wide range of personality aspects, from emotional responses and social behaviors to attitudes toward work and personal values. By including questions that capture various dimensions of personality, the goal is to understand how individual characteristics may influence academics' perceptions of organizational and professional identity. The results of this section of the survey will contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the factors that shape identity dynamics in academia, illuminating the interplay between individual attributes and the broader organizational and professional affiliations of higher education professors.

Afterwards, respondents are asked to rate their agreement with a series of statements on a scale of 1 to 7, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". These items were aimed at measuring the individual level of professional and organizational identification. Items were adapted from Pham's 2020 research model, with the only difference being the scale was originally formed of 5 items, whereas in the questionnaire used for this study it is formed of 7 items of preference. The professional identification segment includes five statements that probe the extent to which faculty members identify with the academic profession as a whole. These statements explore the level of personal attachment and emotional connection they feel toward their profession. By assessing professional identification, this survey seeks to understand the depth of commitment that faculty members associate with their role (Lui et al., 2001; Herold et al., 2007, and Jeanson & Michinov et al., 2018). Similarly, the organizational identification segment consists of five statements that measure the degree to which faculty members identify with their respective universities. These statements explore the sense of belonging, loyalty and pride that faculty members associate with their institutions. By investigating organizational identification, the research aims to discover the extent to which faculty members' identities are involved with their universities and how this affiliation may influence their perceptions and behaviors (Lui et al., 2001; Jeanson & Michinov et al., 2018).

Finally, the questionnaire includes a segment devoted to assessing the level of managerialism and academicism in the context of Italian higher education. Respondents are asked to rate their agreement with 12 statements on a scale of 1 to 7, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The items on managerialism and academicism were adapted from the scale developed by Winter and O'Donohue, in which, however, they were offered in the form of a question with two response options, whereas in the current questionnaire they have been transformed into statements with 7 preference options, in order to

measure the extent of agreement with each statement, rather than offering only dichotomous response options (Winter and O'Donohue et al., 2012). The statements explore contrasting views on promoting higher education, emphasizing the principles of market demand and user payment or the principles of educational necessity and academic standards. In addition, the survey explores respondents' perceptions of universities as institutions of learning that focus primarily on intellectual rigor and research or as commercial institutions that prioritize revenue generation and cost minimization. In addition, they were asked about their views on the main purpose of academic work, whether it is to encourage research and student learning or to generate income through external research grants and links with industry. In addition, they were asked about their views on the main purpose of academic work, whether it is to encourage student research and learning or to generate income through external research grants and industry connections. The survey also questions the role of academia in offering students product choices as consumers or structured programs focused on learning. Additionally, the survey examines views on decision-making processes within universities, considering whether decisions should be made by managers and communicated to faculty or whether they should be guided by principles of democracy and collegiality. Finally, respondents are asked to indicate their beliefs about the guiding principles of scientific research, assessing whether it should be guided by the pursuit of knowledge and intellectual curiosity or whether it should be oriented toward practical applications and the needs of industry.

The survey used in this master's thesis has the crucial goal of exploring the complex dynamics of organizational and professional identities as well as the prevalence of managerialism in the Italian higher education system. The goal of the questionnaire is to obtain a comprehensive understanding of how Italian faculty members perceive their role within the academic profession, their sense of belonging to their respective universities, and their views on managerial practices in higher education. Using a scale-based response rating system, the survey allows for a quantitative analysis that will allow for the identification of associations within the data.

4.2.1 Ethical consideration

In carrying out research, it is critical to evaluate the study's ethical considerations. First, the participants' privacy and confidentiality were maintained, and it was clearly stated at the outset that their data would be kept anonymous. Second, participants' informed consent has been obtained, ensuring that they understand the goal of the study and agree to participate voluntarily. Third, the researcher ensured that there are no risks to participants and that no harm was done to them. Finally, the researcher followed ethical norms and principles.

Participants took part in the study, after providing written informed consent in accordance with the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and the APA ethical standards in the treatment of our human sample. Participants

were informed of their right to discontinue participation at any time and in addition and the questionnaire was also approved by the ethics committee of LUISS Guido Carli University.

4.2.2 Data gathering & Participants

The data collection process involved the collection of e-mail contacts of academics from various universities throughout Italy. In particular, 1400 email addresses were collected from important institutions which strategically cover the regions of Northern, Central and Southern Italy, and from both private and public universities. The complete list of email contacts aimed at achieving a diverse representation of faculty from different academic disciplines and backgrounds. The questionnaire was then distributed by e-mail to the collected contacts, reaching a total of 1400 academics. The effort produced a moderate response rate of 25%, with about 350 members participating in the survey. However, the final sample is constituted only by 241 participants (i.e., 17% response rate) who provided complete and comprehensive responses.

In addition, 9 participants chose not to answer the questions related to managerialism/academicism. Consequently, for the analysis of the managerialism and academicism variables, these 9 respondents were not considered. However, it was deemed appropriate to include them in the analysis of the other variables to maintain a higher sample size. In this way, a more accurate representation of the overall data can be obtained, increasing the generalizability of the results.

Employing a combination of systematic data collection and awareness-raising targeted at a broad spectrum of professors, this study strives to provide a comprehensive and representative analysis of the dynamics of identity and managerialism in the Italian academic landscape. The inclusion of professors from different geographical locations and academic institutions enriches the robustness and generalization of results, contributing to an understanding of the complexities that shape the identities of faculty in higher education.

4.2.3 Data analysis

The questionnaire used to explore organizational and professional identity in the Italian academy represents a pioneering and entirely exploratory study, making it the first of its kind in this context. Upon data collection from the survey participants, the subsequent analysis involved employing a combination of descriptive and inferential statistical methods. The utilization of descriptive statistics enabled the researcher to gain an insightful overview of the participants' characteristics and responses, allowing for an understanding of central tendencies, variability, and data distribution.

Analysis of the questionnaire data included several key steps to derive meaningful insights into the relationships among the various variables. First, the HEXACO scale, a personality assessment tool, was calculated by summing all the scores of questions related to personality traits, including honesty-humility,

emotionality, extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. In addition, the values of organizational identity, professional identity, managerialism, and academicism were obtained by aggregating the scores of the respective survey questions. This comprehensive approach provided a representation of each participant's personality traits and their affiliations with organizational and professional aspects. Next, associated z-values were calculated to standardize the data, allowing fair comparisons, and facilitating correlation analysis.

Aside from the descriptive statistics, the analysis also included the computation of a series of Pearson's correlations, in order to explore the possible associations across the variables of interest. Additionally, a series of comparisons were run across the variables of interest, by means of a series of one-way ANOVAs.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Demographic variables and descriptive analysis

The first step is to describe the sample through the demographic variables of the survey participants. These variables are characteristics of the participants that may affect the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the study.

The study comprised a total of 241 participants, representing a diverse demographic profile. As shown in Figure 2, among them, 124 were women, while 111 were men, highlighting a fairly balanced gender distribution. Additionally, a small proportion of 6 participants chose not to disclose their gender.

The average age of the participants was 44.32 ± 12.26 s.d., indicating a broad range of age groups contributing to the study. This diverse sample provides a comprehensive representation of both genders and various age brackets, enhancing the potential for valuable insights and conclusions from the research findings.

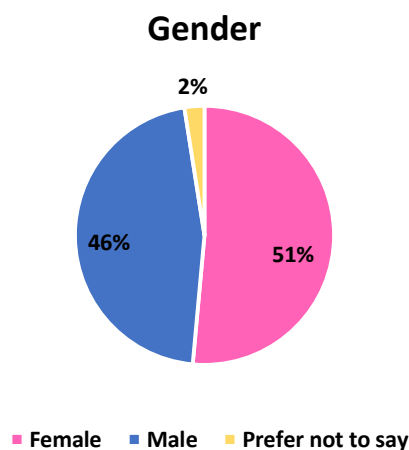


Figure 2: Gender distribution

Going deeper into the sample demographics, of the 241 participants, a notable group of 76 were identified as academics affiliated with a private university. On the other hand, most of the participants, 156 people, were affiliated with public universities. With a representative sample of academics from public and private universities, as shown in Figure 3, the study is able to provide a comprehensive view of the research area, capturing the variations that can emerge between these two educational sectors.

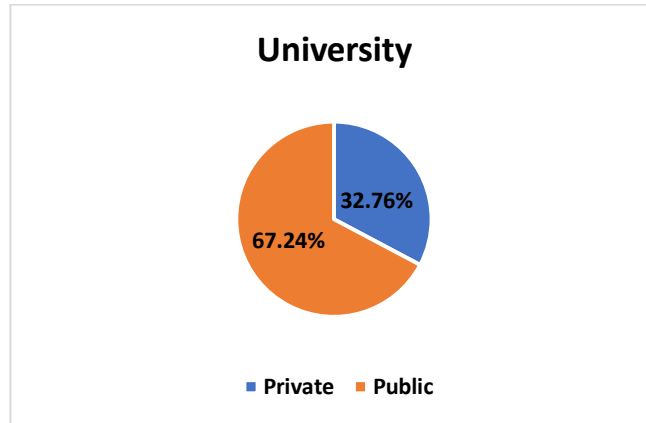


Figure 3: University type

Continuing with the demographics of the study, when academics were asked about the location of the universities where they work, respondents provided the following answers: out of a total of 241 participants, 33 revealed that they are affiliated with universities in the North; similarly, 25 respondents reported working at universities in the South and however, as shown in figure 4, the largest concentration was observed at universities located in the central regions, as the majority of respondents belonged to that location.

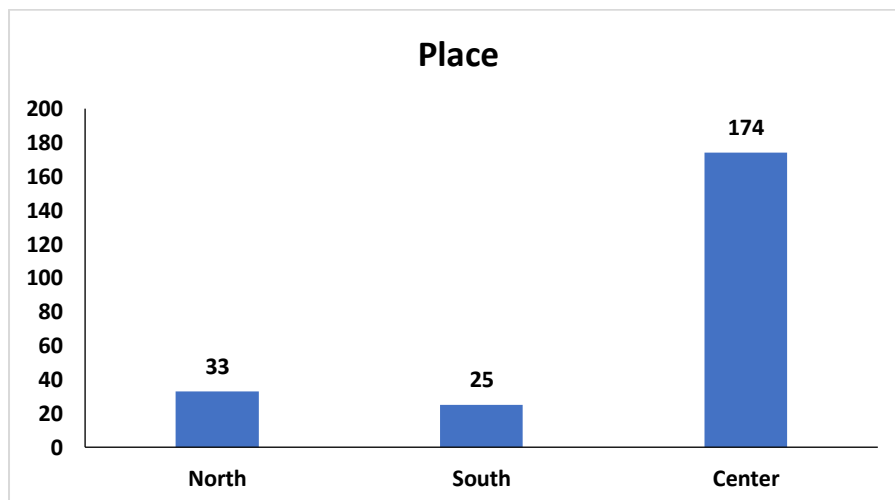


Figure 4: University place

From the data collected in the questionnaire, the departments of the professors who responded are varied but it was deemed appropriate to classify them into three main groups:

- STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics);
- HSS (Humanities and Social Sciences);
- Other: this category includes departments with a low percentage of participants who answered the question about their specific department, particularly the architecture department.

The number of participants and the respective percentage for each department can be seen in the graph below (Figure 5).

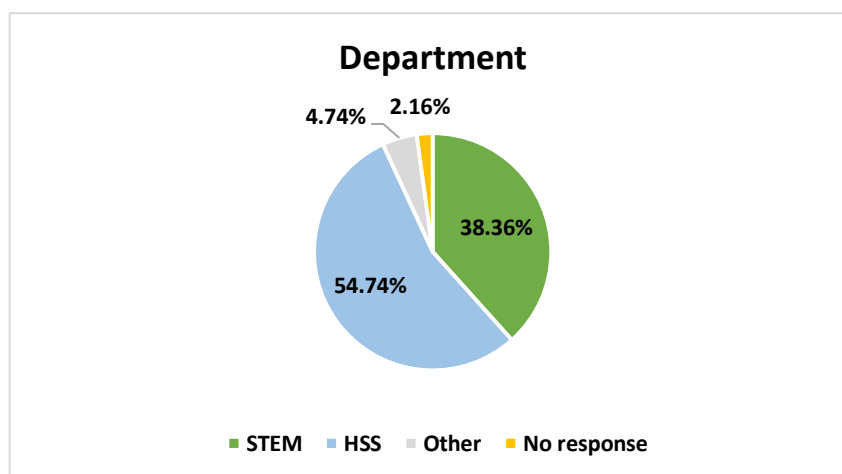


Figure 5: Departments category

Participants also present a diverse range of academic positions. Among the participants, it should be noted that a significant part holds important positions, with the majority of associates (22.41%) or full-time professors (21.98%), hence representing 44.39% of the total participants. Moreover, as can be seen from the graph below (Figure 6), there is a substantial presence of PhD candidates, representing 13.79%, and post-doctoral researchers, who represent 8.62% of the sample. Assistant professors' roles also play a significant part, with 15.95% of respondents identified as assistant professors Type A (RTDA) and 13.79% assistant professors tenured (RTDB/T). The remaining participants occupy various other positions, including research assistants, teaching assistants, and an interviewee chose not to specify the job position. This diverse representation of job positions provides valuable perspectives from various stages and roles in the academic career, enriching the study with comprehensive insights from different perspectives.

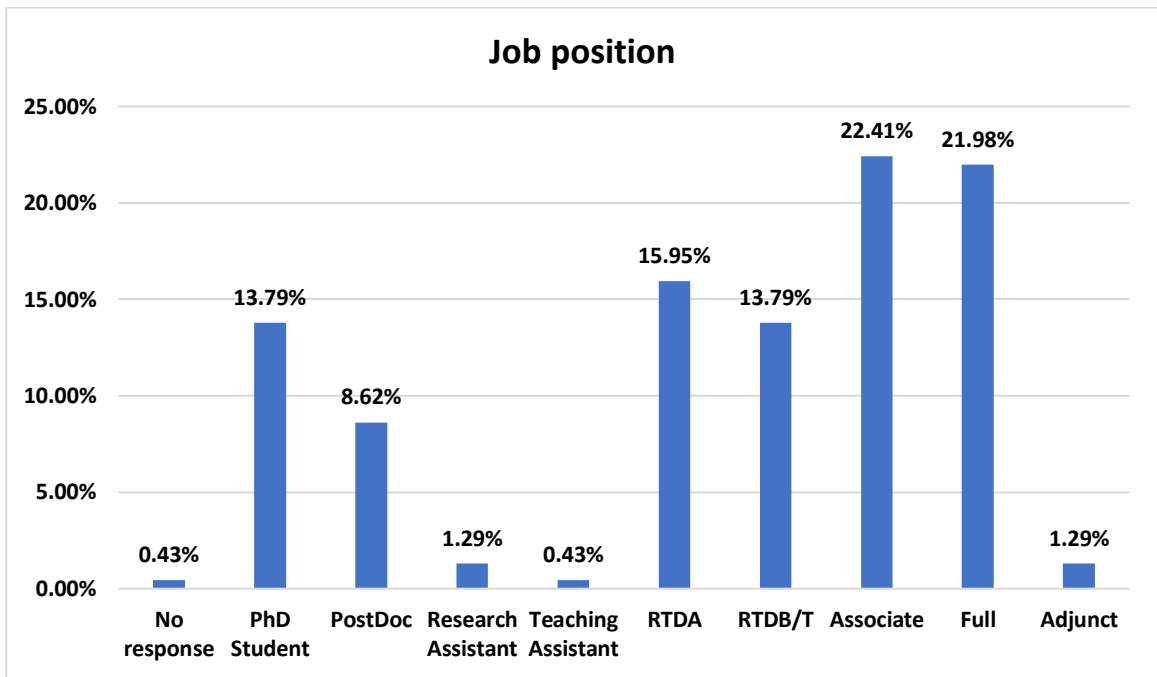


Figure 6: Job position

A careful examination was conducted to identify respondents who have held institutional roles within their respective academic institutions. The data revealed that of the total participants, 115 individuals were actively engaged in institutional tasks. These tasks could include administrative responsibilities, committee members, leadership positions or any other role directly related to the functioning and management of the academic institution. On the other hand, the rest of the respondents did not have an institutional role (Figure 7).

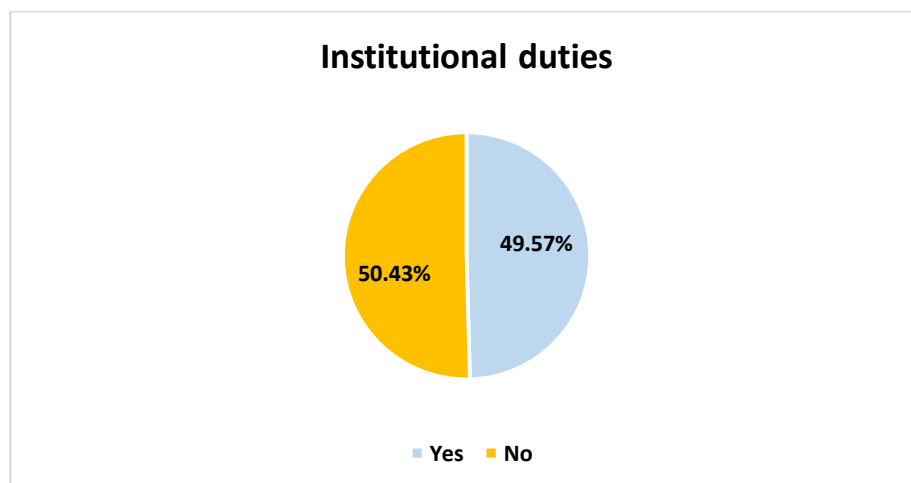


Figure 7: Institutional duties

As a final part of the demographic analysis, the study explored the leadership roles held by respondents, focusing in particular on significant positions of responsibility such as rector, department director or

similar responsibility roles. The results revealed that most participants, exactly 158 out of 241 individuals, do not hold such leadership positions, as shown in Figure 8. This group includes professors, associate professors, postdocs, and other academic roles without administrative authority. In contrast, a smaller but significant number of respondents, equal to 74 participants, hold leadership roles within their academic institutions. The distinction between respondents with and without leadership roles offers a significant perspective on the distribution of responsibilities and influence within the academic community. By examining the views of both groups, the study acquires a more complete understanding of the research topic, considering the experiences and insights of those in leadership positions.

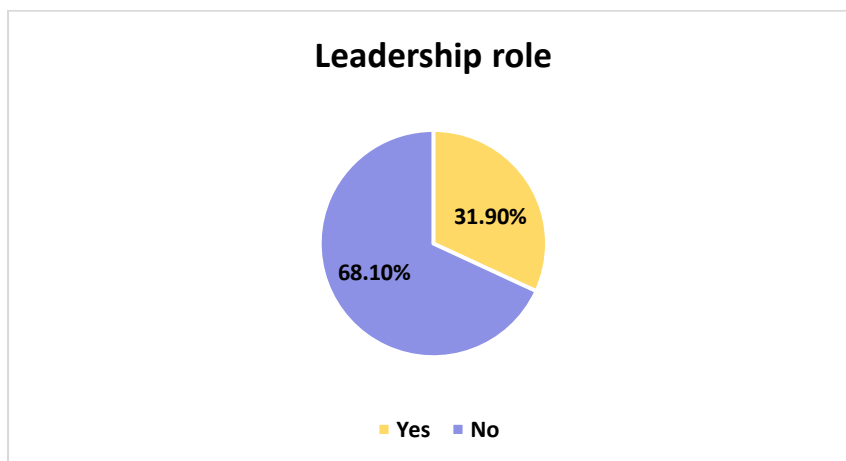


Figure 8: Leadership role

4.3.2 Correlations: hypothesis testing

After describing all the demographic variables in the sample of this study, the analysis continues with an explorative analysis of the correlations between the variables and the construction and representation, and interpretation of the regression model developed. This section will illustrate the results, while the next section will elaborate and give an in-depth interpretation of all the results.

	Average	St.dev		Professional Identity	Organizational Identity	Managerialism
Professional Identity	22.81	5.6	r			
			p			
			N			
Organizational Identity	22.44	6.9	r	0.687		
			p	0.000		
			N	241		
Managerialism	18.6	7.05	r	0.186	0.258	
			p	0.004	0.000	
			N	232	232	
Academicism	34.63	4.97	r	0.217	0.199	-0.226
			p	0.001	0.002	0.001
			N	232	232	232

Table 2: Variables' correlation and descriptive statistics

Table 2 summarizes the main descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviations) and as can be seen, the highest value of the mean, considering raw scores, meaning without z-transformation, is associated with the variable "Academicism" (34.63), which can be defined briefly as the practice that adheres strictly to the accepted rules, canons and traditions of the academic institution or the academic community in general. The lowest mean, on the other hand, is associated with the variable "Managerialism" (18.6), which, as explained, indicates the organizational and management approach that emphasizes the importance of managerial control. Considering, however, the standard deviation, it becomes apparent from the table that there is notable variability in the data. The variable "Academicism" exhibits the smallest amount of dispersion, as evidenced by its low standard deviation of 4.97. On the other hand, the variable "Managerialism" displays the highest level of spread, indicated by its relatively large standard deviation of 7.05. This difference in standard deviation suggests that the responses for "Academicism" tend to cluster more closely around the mean, while the responses for "Managerialism" are more widely spread from the mean.

Table 2 also shows the statistically significant correlations among the variables: first, there is a positive and significant correlation between organizational identity and professional identity ($r = 0.69$, $p = 0.00$). The strong positive relationship between these two identities suggests that individuals who identify strongly with their organization also tend to show a high degree of alignment with their professional roles. This result highlights the interaction of these two aspects, underscoring the potential impact of organizational identity on an individual's professional identity and vice versa. This result hence disconfirms hypothesis H1.

Secondly, the results of the Pearson's correlations highlight a negative association between managerialism and academicism ($r = -0.23$, $p = 0.00$), hence indicating how these two dimensions are in contrast with one another. Thus, this result confirms hypothesis H2.

Continuing the analysis, examining the relationship between the managerialism variable and the two forms of identity, correlation coefficients of 0.19 and 0.26 (both significant at $p < 0.01$) are observed with professional identity and organizational identity, respectively. Hence, this result shows that the adherence to managerial principles in the university setting is associate with both organizational as well as professional identification. Thus, while hypothesis H3a finds support, hypothesis H3b does not. Indeed, despite the correlation with professional identity is weaker compared to the one with organizational identity, they are both positive.

The results of the Pearson’s correlations between academicism and professional and organizational identity showed a positive association with both dimensions of identity (Professional Identity: $r = 0.22$, $p = 0.00$; Organizational Identity: $r = 0.20$, $p = 0.00$). Hence, while hypothesis H4a has been confirmed statistically, H4b did not find support, as both forms of identity are positively associated with the adherence to academic principles. Finally, Pearson’s correlations were also run to test hypothesis H5a-b, namely how indicis of academic proficiency and performance relate with academic identity on the one hand, and principles of academicism/managerialism on the other.

	Average	St.dev		Professional Identity	Organizational Identity	Managerialism	Academicism
H-index	14.25	13.55	r	0.136	0.034	-0.149	0.115
			p	0.089	0.671	0.066	0.157
			N	157	157	153	153

Table 3: Variables’ correlation with H-index

The results are shown in Table 3. Here, it is crucial to note that the sample size is smaller than the total number of respondents, as part of the sample was not aware of their own h-index as it is not commonly used in their field of investigation.

Examining the correlations between the H-index and the variables professional identity and managerialism, the results indicate a positive correlation with professional identity ($r = 0.136$, $p = 0.09$), although the p-value is not statistically significant, the moderate positive correlation suggests a potential link between research productivity (H-index) and professional identity, while no association was found between organizational identity and h-index ($r = 0.03$, $p = 0.67$), in line with the hypothesis H5a.

On the other hand, the h-index shows a negative correlation with managerialism ($r = -0.15$, $p = 0.07$) and, thus, despite the p-value is not statistically significant, there is a trend indicating a negative correlation, which implies that higher levels of research productivity might be associated with a lower inclination toward managerialism. This suggests that individuals with higher research impact may prioritize research activities over managerial or administrative responsibilities. Regarding the association between h-index and principles of academicism on the other hand, the association shows a weak trend toward a positive correlation, which nevertheless fails to reach statistical significance ($r = 0.12$, $p = 0.16$). Hence, despite the trends go in the direction hypothesized in H5b, this hypothesis formally does not find statistical support.

4.3.3. Exploratory analyses

The aims of the current study are mostly exploratory ones. Hence, in line with this approach, in the following sections, a series of exploratory analysis have been conducted.

The first set of analysis is aimed at identifying patterns of correlations and/or differences in the dependent variables, professional and organizational identity, managerialism and academicism, based on demographic or work-related characteristics.

The age of the respondents is an interesting aspect to explore in relation to the four dependent variables. The analysis indicates that age has, as shown in Table 4, the strongest correlation with managerialism, showing a negative and moderately strong association ($r = -0.22$, $p = 0.001$). This finding implies that younger academics tend to identify more with the principles associated with managerialism. This may suggest that the younger generation of educators is more likely to adopt managerial practices and ideologies in their professional roles (see Figure 9). Thus, age is positively correlated with principles of academicism ($r = 0.16$, $p = 0.02$), hence, suggesting that older academics tend to practice their profession adhering to academic principles rather than managerial ones.

		Professional Identity	Organizational Identity	Managerialism	Academicism
Age	r	0.114	0.055	-0.224	0.156
	p	0.077	0.399	0.001	0.018
	N	241	241	232	232

Table 4: Variables' correlation with age

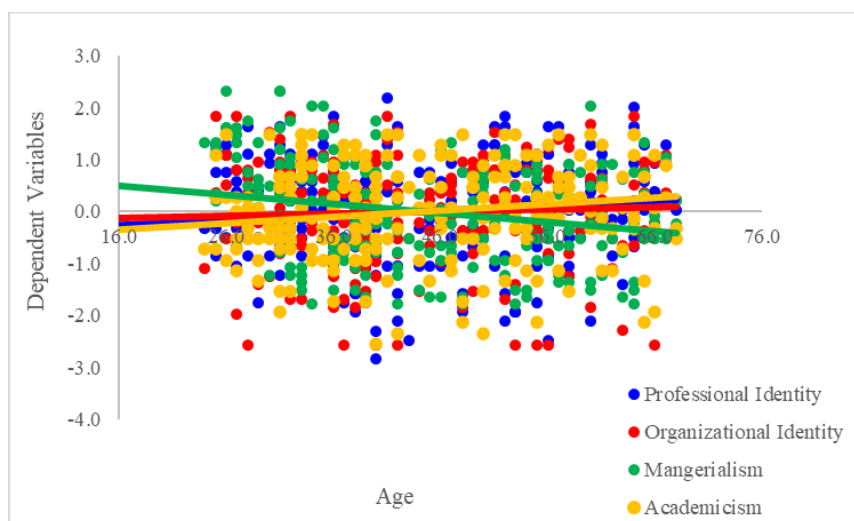


Figure 9: Variables' correlation with age

Continuing, it is interesting to study how gender, university type, university place, department, job position, institutional duties and leadership role impact the dependent variables.

The one-way ANOVA analysis presented below allowed a comprehensive comparison of the interest groups. The most interesting observation is the consistent overall representation of women in all four categories. Specifically, the results reveal that female gender shows a much higher organizational identity

($F_{1,233} = 15.23$, $p = 0.0$), professional identity ($F_{1,233} = 4.70$, $p = 0.03$), managerialism ($F_{1,233} = 9.50$, $p = 0.002$) and academicism ($F_{1,233} = 14.25$, $p = 0.00$), as compared to males (Table 5). See Figure 10 for a graphical presentation of the results.

ONE-WAY ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	4.197	1	4.197	4.696	0.031
	Within Groups	208.217	233	0.894		
	Total	212.414	234			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	13.620	1	13.620	15.229	0.000
	Within Groups	208.386	233	0.894		
	Total	222.006	234			
Managerialism	Between Groups	8.884	1	8.884	9.501	0.002
	Within Groups	210.371	225	0.935		
	Total	219.255	226			
Academicism	Between Groups	10.079	1	10.079	14.250	0.000
	Within Groups	159.141	225	0.707		
	Total	169.220	226			

Table 5: One-way ANOVA with gender

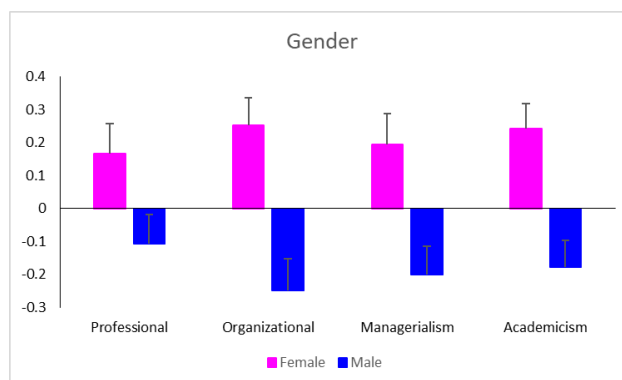


Figure 10: Variables' correlation with gender

As indicated in Table 6 and Figure 11, there is a significant disparity in organizational identification between private and public universities, with significantly higher mean scores observed in the private university ($F_{1,239} = 13.95$, $p = 0.0$) as compared to public ones, according to the results of the one-way ANOVA. This finding suggests that individuals attending private university tend to have a stronger sense of identification and affiliation with their academic institution than those enrolled in public university. The other variables, on the other hand, did not show any significant differences across university type.

ONE-WAY ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	1.942	1	1.942	1.950	0.164
	Within Groups	238.058	239	0.996		
	Total	240.000	240			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	13.229	1	13.229	13.942	0.000
	Within Groups	226.771	239	0.949		
	Total	240.000	240			
Managerialism	Between Groups	0.065	1	0.065	0.065	0.800
	Within Groups	230.935	230	1.004		
	Total	231.000	231			
Academicism	Between Groups	0.041	1	0.041	0.040	0.841
	Within Groups	230.959	230	1.004		
	Total	231.000	231			

Table 6: One-way ANOVA with university type

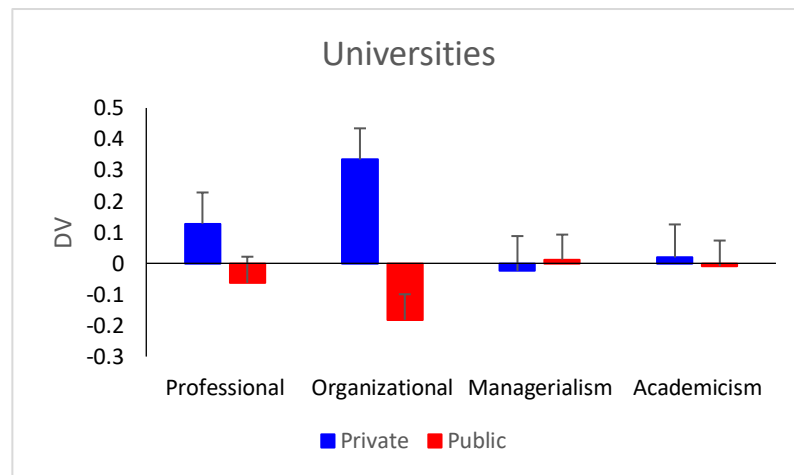


Figure 11: Variables' correlation with university type

The one-way ANOVA analysis conducted on the three levels' factor of the university place (i.e., north, south and center) revealed a significant difference in organizational identity (Figure 12), indicating a main effect ($F_{2,238} = 3.29$, $p = 0,04$) (Table 7). Subsequent post-hoc tests, shown in Table 8, were carried out to identify specific differences between the groups highlighting significant differences between the north and south regions ($p = 0.03$), and vice versa, with regard to organizational identity, suggesting that academics working or in universities located in the northern regions tend to show a higher degree of organizational identification than those in the southern region. Professional identity, managerialism and academicism did not display any significant effect based on university location.

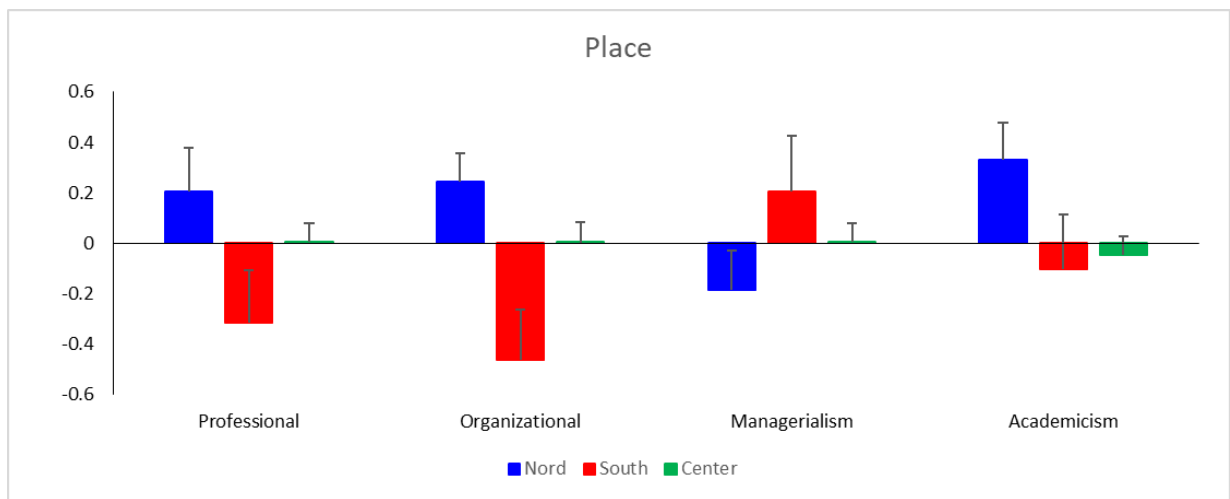


Figure 12: Variables' correlation with university place

ONE-WAY ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	3.11	2.00	1.56	1.56	0.21
	Within Groups	236.89	238.00	1.00		
	Total	240.00	240.00			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	6.46	2.00	3.23	3.29	0.04
	Within Groups	233.54	238.00	0.98		
	Total	240.00	240.00			
Managerialism	Between Groups	2.16	2.00	1.08	1.08	0.34
	Within Groups	228.84	229.00	1.00		
	Total	231.00	231.00			
Academicism	Between Groups	4.26	2.00	2.13	2.15	0.12
	Within Groups	226.74	229.00	0.99		
	Total	231.00	231.00			

Table 7: One-way ANOVA with university place

Multiple Comparisons (Post-hoc)							
Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable		Mean Difference	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Organizational Identity	Nord	South	0.66	0.26	0.03	0.04	1.27
		Center	0.23	0.19	0.45	-0.21	0.67
	South	Nord	-0.66	0.26	0.03	-1.27	-0.04
		Center	-0.43	0.21	0.10	-0.92	0.06
	Center	Nord	-0.23	0.19	0.45	-0.67	0.21
		South	0.43	0.21	0.10	-0.06	0.92

Table 8: Multiple comparison with university place

An additional exploratory analysis was conducted to test the differences across variables, based on the departmental classifications. The one-way ANOVA analysis conducted on different types of departments (STEM, HSS and other), as shown in Figure 12, revealed a significant main effect of department type on organizational identity ($F_{2,229} = 3.63$, $p = 0.028$). In particular, a significant difference was observed between STEM and HSS; the post-hoc analysis showed that organizational identity tends to be lower in STEM departments than in HSS departments (Table 10). Again, the effect of departments on the other dependent variables was found not significant.

ONE-WAY ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	1.839	2	0.919	0.995	0.371
	Within Groups	211.527	229	0.924		
	Total	213.366	231			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	6.778	2	3.389	3.630	0.028
	Within Groups	213.802	229	0.934		
	Total	220.581	231			
Managerialism	Between Groups	2.182	2	1.091	1.128	0.326
	Within Groups	216.768	224	0.968		
	Total	218.950	226			
Academicism	Between Groups	1.251	2	0.625	0.811	0.446
	Within Groups	172.797	224	0.771		
	Total	174.048	226			

Table 9: One-way ANOVA with department type

Multiple Comparisons							
Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Organizational Identity	STEM	HSS	-0.34	0.13	0.03	-0.66	-0.03
		OTHER	-0.40	0.29	0.35	-1.08	0.28
	HSS	STEM	0.34	0.13	0.03	0.03	0.66
		OTHER	-0.06	0.28	0.98	-0.72	0.61
	OTHER	STEM	0.40	0.29	0.35	-0.28	1.08
		HSS	0.06	0.28	0.98	-0.61	0.72

Table 10: Multiple comparison with department type

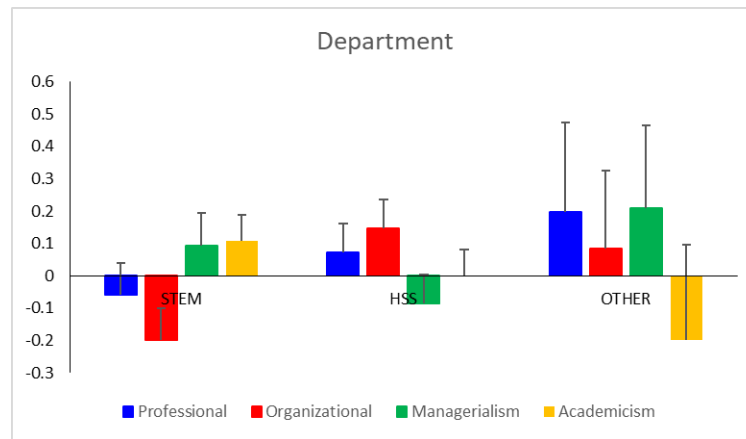


Figure 13: Variables' correlation with department type

A further analysis was undertaken by separating the departments of Economics, Business and Management from the broader spectrum of academic disciplines. This separation was instrumental, as the focus of this research is on the investigation of managerialism, which is intrinsically involved with the principles of these fields mentioned above. Using a one-way ANOVA, shown in Table 11, the results reveal a significant primary influence regarding organizational identity ($F_{1,232} = 8.27, p = 0.004$). In particular, a discrete propensity (Figure 14) for organizational identity manifests itself in the fields of Economics, Business & Management, exceeding the levels observed in other academic subjects. This revelation underlines the interconnection of academic disciplines with constructs of managerial practice and organizational behavior.

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	1.567	1	1.567	1.673	0.197
	Within Groups	217.236	232	0.936		
	Total	218.803	233			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	7.825	1	7.825	8.269	0.004
	Within Groups	219.535	232	0.946		
	Total	227.359	233			
Managerialism	Between Groups	1.208	1	1.208	1.236	0.267

	Within Groups	220.809	226	0.977		
	Total	222.017	227			
Academicism	Between Groups	1.151	1	1.151	1.450	0.230
	Within Groups	179.472	226	0.794		
	Total	180.624	227			

Table 11: One-way ANOVA with Economics, Business & Management

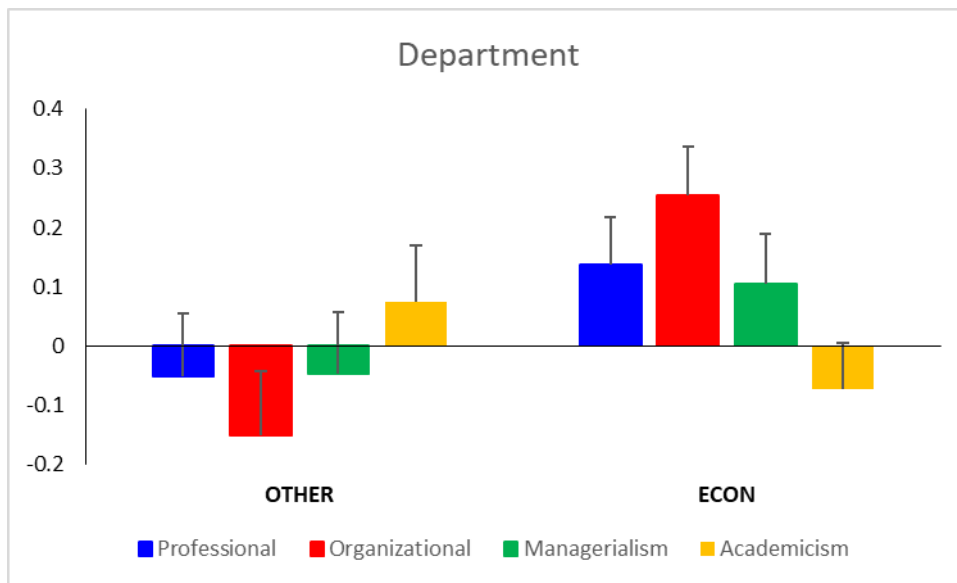


Figure 14: Variables' correlation with Economics, Business & Management

The analysis of job positions (Table 12) among respondents revealed differences in both organizational identity and managerialism (as shown in Figure 15). Due to the low number of respondents of adjunct, teaching assistants and research assistants, they were excluded from the statistical comparison. The post-hoc analysis further examined the specific differences between groups: in terms of organizational identity, the results indicated that the RTDB/T showed a significantly lower organizational identity than all other groups, with the exception of the post-doc at $p < 0.05$; as regards managerialism, the differences were mainly driven by PhD students, who showed significantly higher levels of managerialism than all other positions with a p -value < 0.001 , except for the comparison with the post-docs, that failed to reach statistical significance.

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	9.87	5.00	1.97	2.20	0.05
	Within Groups	202.33	226.00	0.90		
	Total	212.19	231.00			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	20.27	5.00	4.05	4.80	0.00
	Within Groups	190.88	226.00	0.84		
	Total	211.15	231.00			
Managerialism	Between Groups	29.32	5.00	5.86	7.05	0.00
	Within Groups	181.24	218.00	0.83		
	Total	210.56	223.00			
Academicism	Between Groups	2.68	5.00	0.54	0.67	0.65
	Within Groups	174.20	218.00	0.80		
	Total	176.89	223.00			

Table 12: One-way ANOVA with job position

Multiple Comparisons							
Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Organizational Identity	RTDB/T	PhD	-0.83	0.23	0.00	-1.48	-0.18
		Post-Doc	-0.29	0.26	0.88	-1.03	0.46
		RTDA	-0.68	0.22	0.03	-1.32	-0.04
		Associate	-0.76	0.20	0.00	-1.35	-0.17
		Full	-0.86	0.21	0.00	-1.45	-0.27
Managerialism	PhD	Post-Doc	0.62	0.26	0.16	-0.13	1.37
		RTDA	1.01	0.22	0.00	0.38	1.64
		RTDB/T	1.08	0.23	0.00	0.43	1.74
		Associate	0.85	0.20	0.00	0.27	1.44
		Full	1.08	0.21	0.00	0.49	1.67

Table 13: Multiple comparison with job position

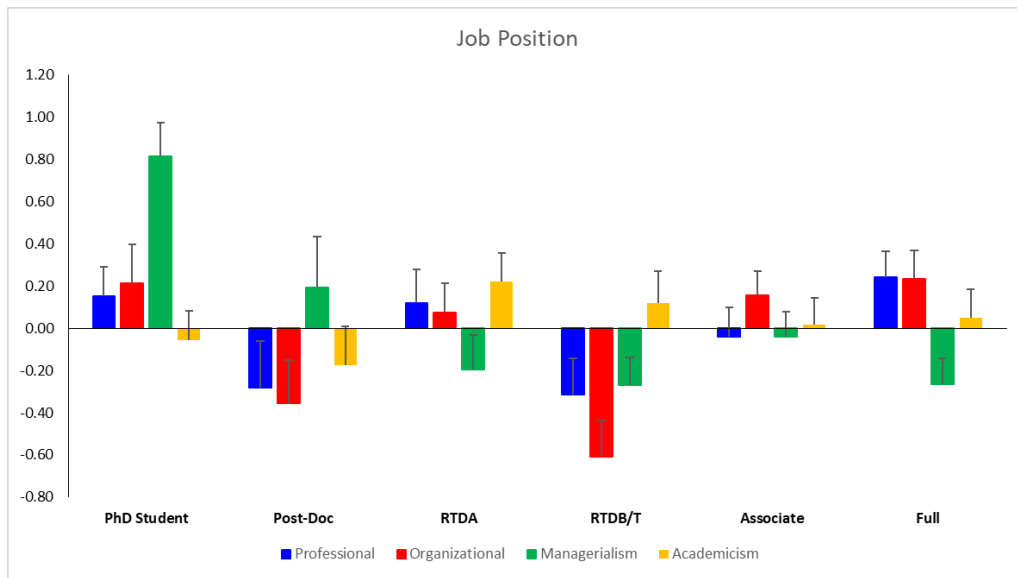


Figure 15: Variables' correlation with job position

Finally, both for the study on institutional duties and leadership roles, there are significant trends both in the variable of professional identity, respectively ($F_{1,239} = 17.52, p = 0.0$) and ($F_{1,239} = 17.38, p = 0.0$) and organizational identity, respectively ($F_{1,239} = 5.67, p = 0.018$) and ($F_{1,239} = 6.3, p = 0.013$).

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	16.388	1	16.388	17.516	0.000
	Within Groups	223.612	239	0.936		
	Total	240.000	240			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	16.269	1	16.269	17.379	0.000
	Within Groups	223.731	239	0.936		
	Total	240.000	240			
Managerialism	Between Groups	1.303	1	1.303	1.304	0.255
	Within Groups	229.697	230	0.999		
	Total	231.000	231			
Academicism	Between Groups	0.357	1	0.357	0.356	0.552
	Within Groups	230.643	230	1.003		
	Total	231.000	231			

Table 14: One-way ANOVA with institutional duties

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	5.560	1	5.560	5.668	0.018
	Within Groups	234.440	239	0.981		
	Total	240.000	240			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	6.169	1	6.169	6.305	0.013
	Within Groups	233.831	239	0.978		
	Total	240.000	240			
Managerialism	Between Groups	1.061	1	1.061	1.061	0.304
	Within Groups	229.939	230	1.000		

	Total	231.000	231			
Academicism	Between Groups	0.017	1	0.017	0.017	0.897
	Within Groups	230.983	230	1.004		
	Total	231.000	231			

Table 15: One-way ANOVA with leadership role

4.3.4. Exploratory analysis: Personality measures

The second set of analysis, whose results are shown in Table 16, are those regarding the associations between the main dependent variables, namely, professional identity, organizational identity, managerialism and academicism, and the personality traits postulated by the HEXACO model for the non-clinical assessment of personality (Lee & Ashton, 2008).

	Average	St.dev		Professional Identity	Organizational Identity	Managerialism	Academicism
H	15.81	2.32	r	-0.184	-0.060	-0.265	0.076
			p	0.004	0.350	0.000	0.251
			N	241	241	232	232
E	11.53	2.53	r	0.046	0.017	-0.016	-0.011
			p	0.477	0.795	0.805	0.871
			N	241	241	232	232
X	14.39	2.03	r	0.314	0.275	0.150	0.188
			p	0.000	0.000	0.023	0.004
			N	241	241	232	232
A	11.59	2.4	r	0.017	0.099	0.116	-0.016
			p	0.798	0.124	0.079	0.810
			N	241	241	232	232
C	14.7	2.41	r	0.123	0.175	0.116	0.160
			p	0.057	0.006	0.078	0.014
			N	241	241	232	232
O	15.17	2.12	r	0.190	0.074	0.044	0.205
			p	0.003	0.253	0.506	0.002
			N	241	241	232	232

Table 16: Variables' correlation with personality scales

The results showed:

- with regard to the honesty-humility scale, statistically significant negative correlations were observed with professional identity ($r = -0.18$, $p = 0.004$) and managerialism ($r = -0.27$, $p = 0.0$); the negative correlation suggests that those with higher levels of honesty and humility may be less likely to identify strongly with their professional role or may not prioritize their professional identity as strongly as others and are, in addition, less likely to support managerial tendencies in the university context;

- the trait of extroversion shows significant correlations with all the four variables of interest, suggesting its potential influence on these aspects: a moderate positive correlation with professional identity is observed ($r = 0.31$, $p = 0.0$) indicating that individuals with a higher extroversion score are more likely to have a sense of belonging and identification with their profession. Similarly, extroversion shows a significant positive correlation with organizational identity ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.0$), suggesting that individuals with higher extroversion levels tend to have a more marked identification with their own organization. The same results, but with less significance, are found in both managerialism and academicism, which means that the degree of extroversion of respondents has a strong influence on all four aspects;
- the scale agreeableness shows a marginally significant positive correlation with managerialism ($r = 0.12$, $p = 0.079$), suggesting a potential association between the degree of adaptation and managerial inclinations;
- conscientiousness demonstrates a substantial and significant relationship with all four variables of interest, with particularly high significance observed toward organizational identity and academics. Correlation analysis reveals a positive and moderately strong association between conscientiousness and organizational identity ($r = 0.18$, $p = 0.006$), indicating that individuals with a high level of conscientiousness are more likely to exhibit a stronger sense of belonging and commitment to their respective organizations, as well as to their own profession. In addition, people with strong traits of conscientiousness also show high adherence to both academics and managerial principles;
- openness to experience, finally, emerges as a significant factor with significant correlations with both professional identity ($r = 0.19$, $p = 0.003$), indicating that individuals who possess a higher degree of openness are more likely to develop a strong and distinct sense of identity within their chosen professions, and with academicism ($r=0.21$, $p=0.002$), implying that individuals with a more open mindset tend to show greater enthusiasm and dedication toward academic activities.

4.3.2 Data-drive approach

As a final step of the exploratory analysis, clusters were created based data-driven two-step clustering procedure driven using as starting variables for the creation of groups the fundamental variables (organizational identity, professional, managerialism and academicism). The results determined the creation of four clusters. Figure 16 shows the distribution of the variables across the four clusters.

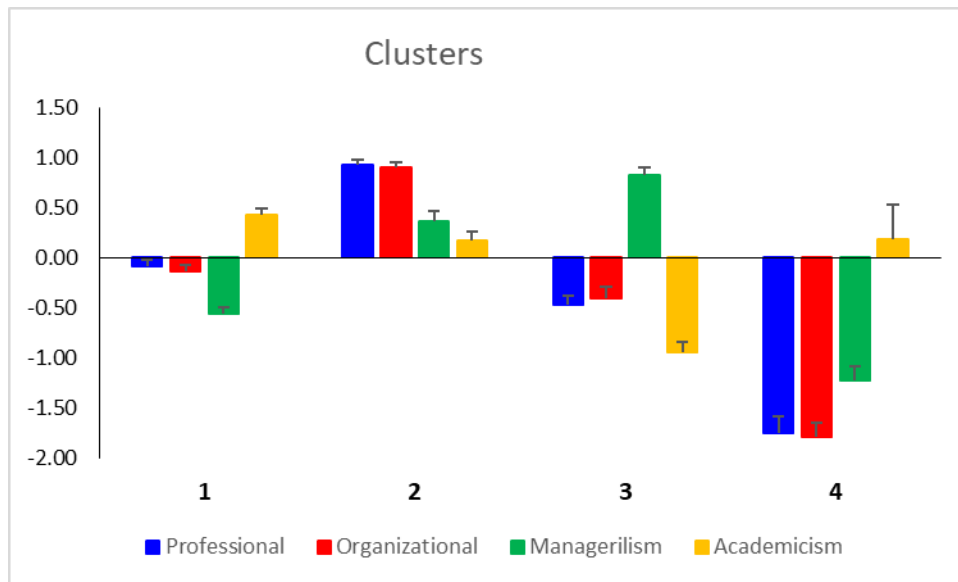


Figure 16: Variables' correlation with clusters

The first statistical analysis was to compare the differences of the four variables in the four identified clusters (Table 17).

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Professional Identity	Between Groups	150.35	3.00	50.12	138.15	0.00
	Within Groups	82.71	228.00	0.36		
	Total	233.05	231.00			
Organizational Identity	Between Groups	148.76	3.00	49.59	128.59	0.00
	Within Groups	87.92	228.00	0.39		
	Total	236.67	231.00			
Managerialism	Between Groups	104.93	3.00	34.98	63.26	0.00
	Within Groups	126.07	228.00	0.55		
	Total	231.00	231.00			
Academicism	Between Groups	63.57	3.00	21.19	28.85	0.00
	Within Groups	167.43	228.00	0.73		
	Total	231.00	231.00			

Table 17: One-way ANOVA with variables

As shown in the ANOVA one-way analysis table, there are differences in all variables of course, because clusters are statistically created to maximize differences within them. From post-hoc we can see that all the differences are statistically significant at $p < 0.01$ except for the variable academicism in which cluster 1 and 2, cluster 1 and 4 and cluster 2 and 4 are not characterized by significant differences with respectively $p = 0.27$, $p = 0.64$ and $p = 0.99$.

The following is a description of the socio-demographic characteristics of the identified clusters: in particular Table 18 shows the average age for each of them and Figure 17 the composition of men and women within them.

Age		
	Average	St.dev
1	45.36	10.80
2	45.97	12.90
3	40.40	12.18
4	44.61	12.77

Table 18: Clusters' average age

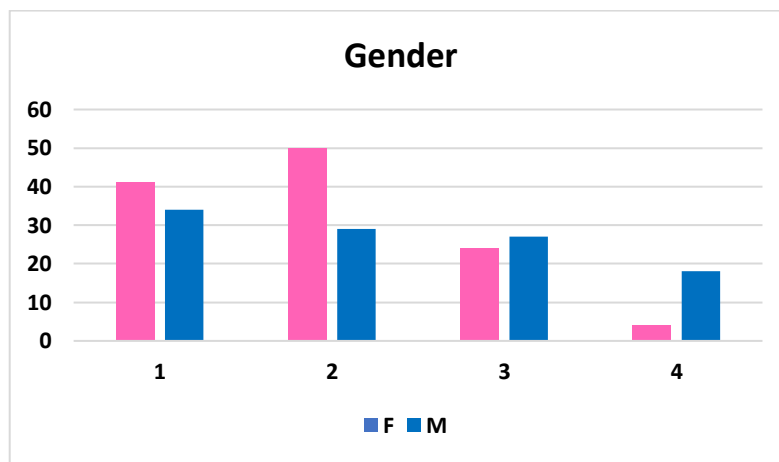


Figure 17: Clusters' gender

The figure below shows the differences of job positions within the four clusters: showing that the first cluster is mostly formed by associates, full-time professors, and RTDB/T, the second by full professors, associate, and PhD student, the third especially by PhD student, post-doc and associated, while the last cluster mostly from RTDB/T.

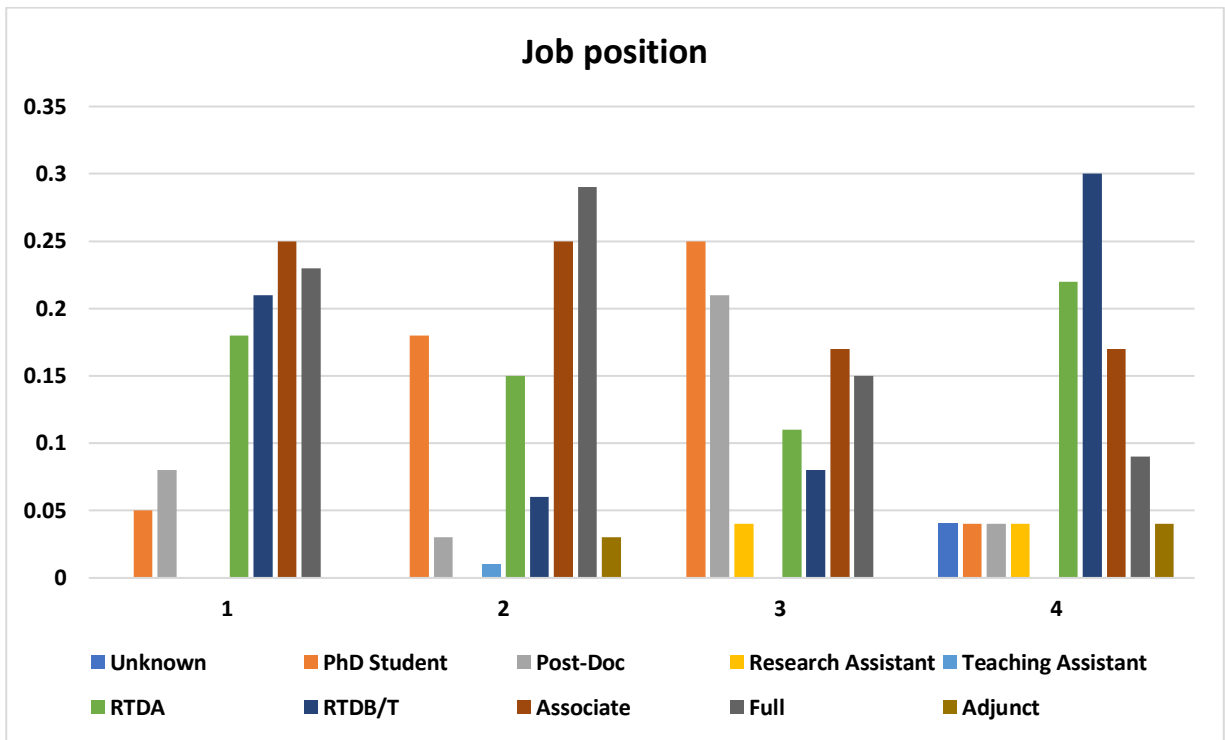


Figure 18: Clusters' job position

Going forward, it follows the reality figures to institutional duties (Figure 19), so there are positive answers in the second cluster especially, followed by the first, and for leadership roles (Figure 20), with affirmative answers especially in the second cluster.

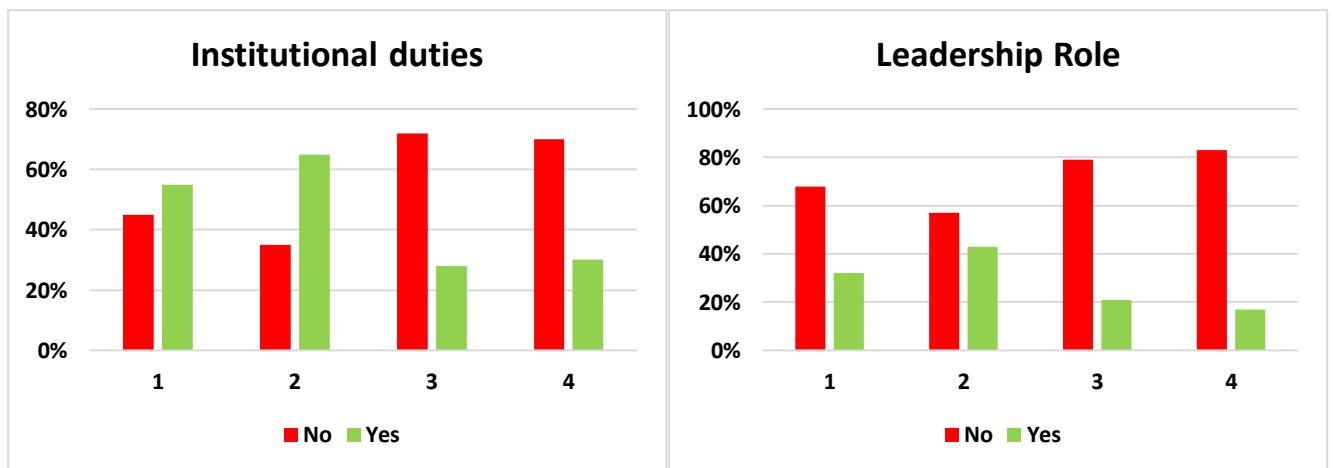


Figure 19 and 20: Clusters' Institutional duties and Leadership Role

As for the respondents' departments, divided by the four clusters, Figure 21 shows that all four clusters are characterized by a higher prevalence for HSS departments, all followed by STEM.

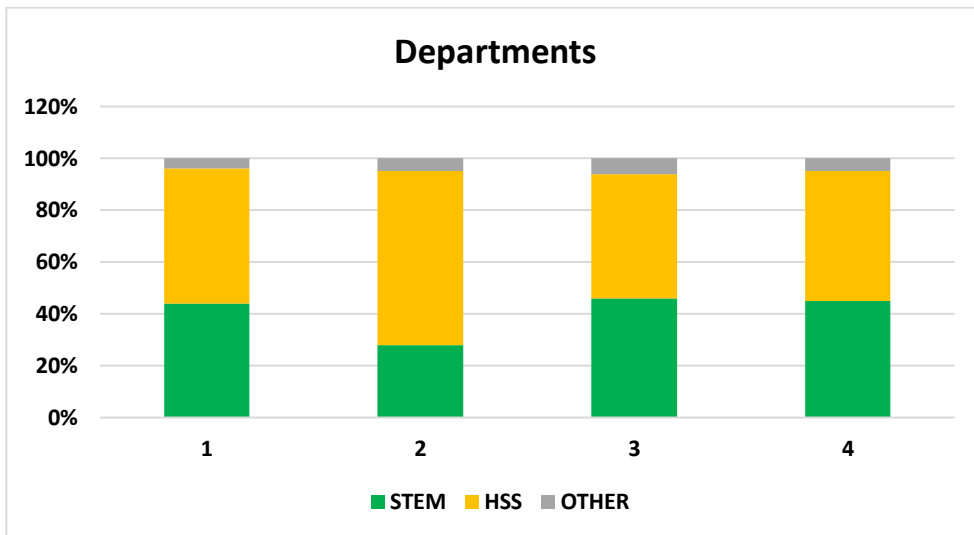


Figure 21: Clusters' departments

Distinguishing between the departments of Economics, Business & Management, the figure below shows the prevalence in other departments, except for cluster 2.

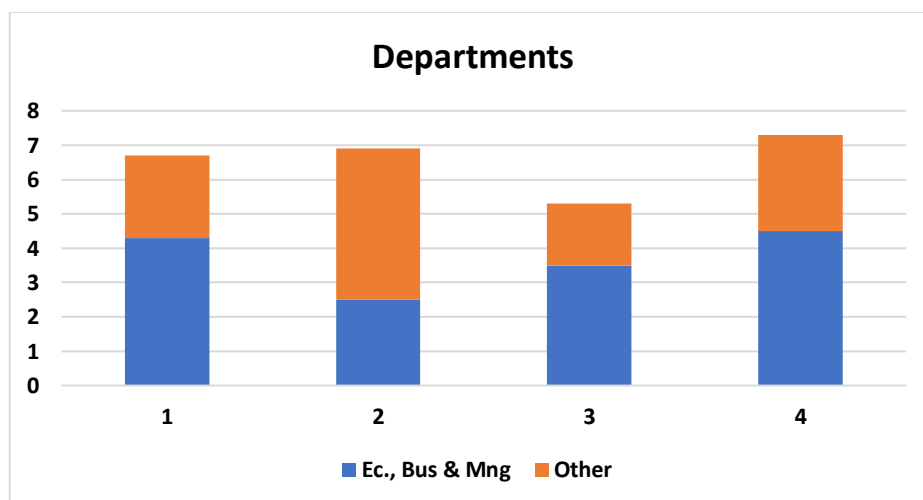


Figure 22: Clusters' departments

Respondents for all four clusters mostly belong to public universities, as shown in Figure 23, with higher percentage numbers in the fourth cluster.

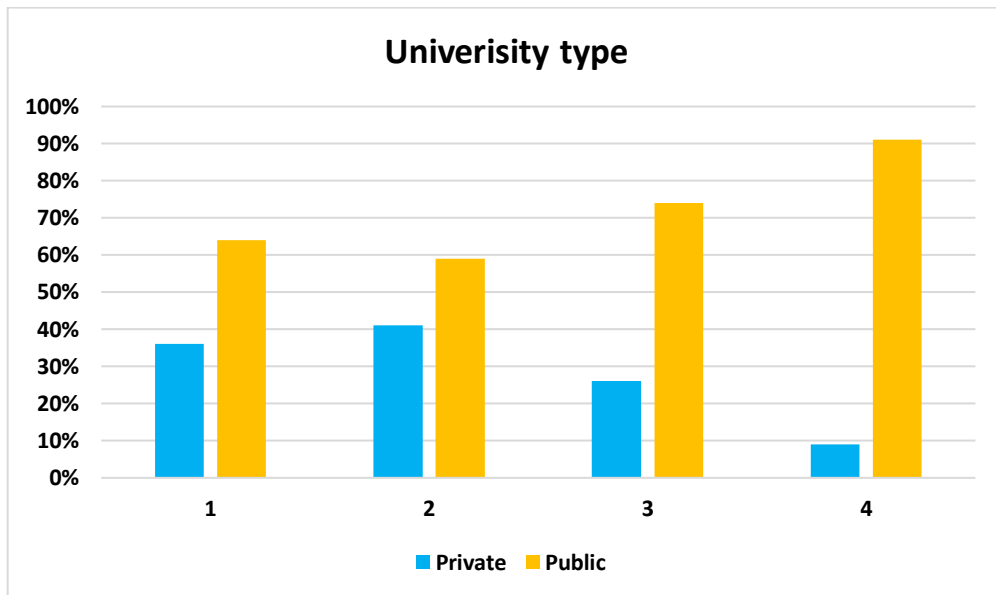


Figure 23: Clusters' university type

In Figure 24, instead, are shown the results of the place of the universities to which the participants of each cluster belong and, as in the previous analysis, there is a prevalence in central Italy, compared to the north and south, also for these four clusters.

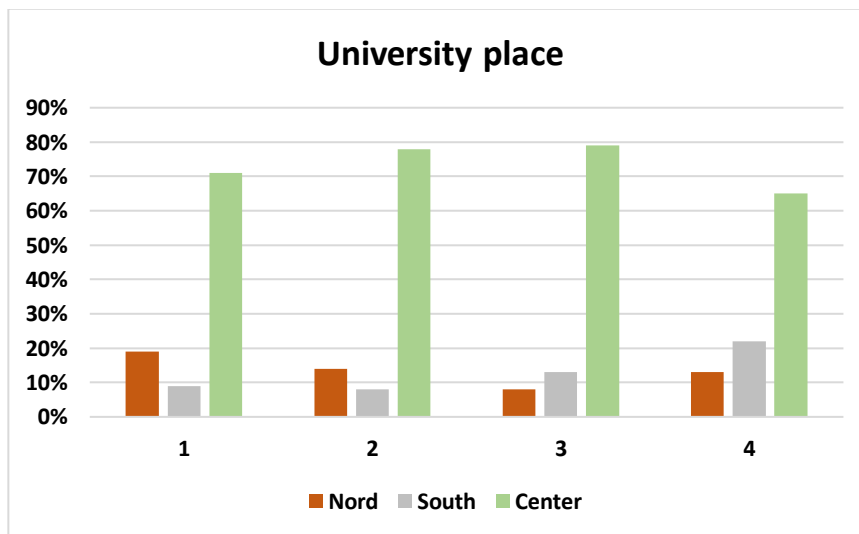


Figure 24: Clusters' university place

For the H-index, the table below shows the averages for each cluster with the relative standard deviation (Table 19). The ANOVA one-way analysis showed that there is a significant difference (Table 20) and through post-hoc it was found that the meaningful comparison is between cluster 1 and cluster 3 with $p = 0.02$.

H-Index		
	Average	St.dev
1	17.71	11.66
2	14.84	17.68
3	8.91	8.82
4	12.11	7.32

Table 19: Clusters' average H-index

ANOVA					
H-index					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1637.144	3	545.715	3.074	0.030
Within Groups	26453.915	149	177.543		
Total	28091.059	152			

Table 20: One-way ANOVA with H-index

Finally, the average of the HEXACO scores for each cluster is shown in Table 21 with its graph, so as to better understand how the various personality traits are distributed for each cluster (Figure 25).

	H	E	X	A	C	O
1	16.16	11.58	14.38	11.36	14.51	15.25
2	15.46	11.71	14.97	11.81	15.18	15.33
3	15.55	11.58	14.06	11.74	14.36	15.15
4	16.57	10.83	13.13	11.04	14.35	14.57

Table 21: Clusters' HEXACO

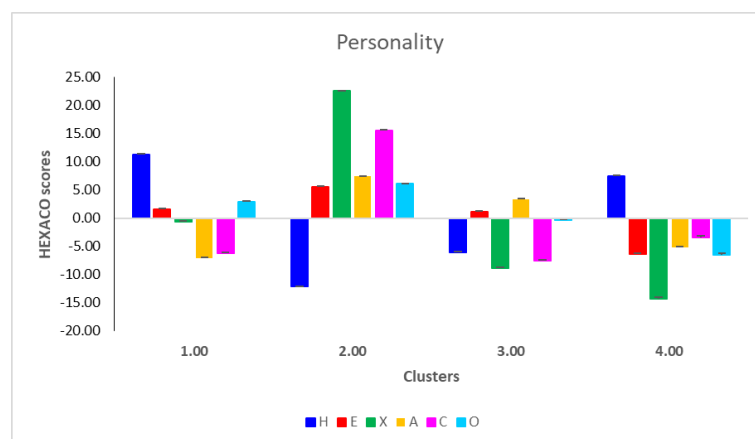


Figure 25: Clusters' HEXACO

One-way ANOVA analysis with clusters as a categorical factor shows that the substantial and significant difference is for the extroversion variable ($F_{3,228}=5.84$, $p=0.0$), of which post-doc analysis has also been underlined that cluster 1 is significantly different from cluster 4, cluster 2 from cluster 3 and cluster 4, and vice versa (Table 22 and 23).

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
H	Between Groups	6.63	3.00	2.21	2.27	0.08
	Within Groups	221.87	228.00	0.97		
	Total	228.50	231.00			
E	Between Groups	2.20	3.00	0.73	0.72	0.54
	Within Groups	233.05	228.00	1.02		
	Total	235.25	231.00			
X	Between Groups	16.76	3.00	5.59	5.84	0.00
	Within Groups	218.24	228.00	0.96		
	Total	235.00	231.00			
A	Between Groups	2.72	3.00	0.91	0.89	0.45
	Within Groups	232.49	228.00	1.02		
	Total	235.21	231.00			
C	Between Groups	5.11	3.00	1.70	1.69	0.17
	Within Groups	230.36	228.00	1.01		
	Total	235.47	231.00			
O	Between Groups	2.40	3.00	0.80	0.79	0.50
	Within Groups	231.77	228.00	1.02		
	Total	234.17	231.00			

Table 22: One-way ANOVA with HEXACO

Multiple Comparisons							
Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
X	1	2	-0.29	0.16	0.24	-0.70	0.11
		3	0.16	0.17	0.80	-0.29	0.61
		4	0.61	0.23	0.04	0.01	1.21
	2	1	0.29	0.16	0.24	-0.11	0.70
		3	0.45	0.17	0.05	0.00	0.90
		4	0.91	0.23	0.00	0.31	1.51
	3	1	-0.16	0.17	0.80	-0.61	0.29
		2	-0.45	0.17	0.05	-0.90	0.00
		4	0.46	0.24	0.25	-0.18	1.09
	4	1	-0.61	0.23	0.04	-1.21	-0.01
		2	-0.91	0.23	0.00	-1.51	-0.31

		3	-0.46	0.24	0.25	-1.09	0.18
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Table 23: Multiple comparison with HEXACO

4.4 Discussion

Higher education is an area that is continually changing. The dynamics of change in Italian higher education are particularly concerned with the achievement of academic excellence and the complex relationships between organizational cultures and professional values. This thesis examined the complex interactions that exist between academics' organizational and professional identities, the rising impact of managerialism, and the influence of academicism inside Italian academic institutions. The goal was to determine how these variables interact with each other and how they contribute to the academic experience. Detailed research revealed that academics' organizational and professional identities are strongly anchored in the culture of the institutions, but they are also vulnerable to ongoing external pressures and requests for adaptation. Managerialism, as a business management paradigm, is gaining influence in academia, impacting decision-making processes and institutional priorities. Furthermore, academicism, as defined as the search of academic excellence and the valorization of research, is an important component in the Italian academic community. However, academics may have a considerable difficulty in striking a balance between academicism and the increased temptation to quantify success. This conflict between conventional and modern organizational approaches can have a big impact on academics.

The outcomes of this study will be addressed in further depth in the following part, showing the links between organizational and professional identity, managerialism, and academicism. The goal is to provide clarity on how these factors interact and impact each other, so contributing to a better understanding of the current academic setting and the issues academics face in carrying out their numerous duties and obligations.

4.4.2 Main findings and possible interpretation

The analysis of the survey data offered an exhaustive overview of the correlations between the variables under consideration. The H1 hypothesis initially proposed a negative relationship between organizational identity and professional identity. However, the data show that there is a positive association between these two dimensions, contradicting this assumption. As a result, it can be stated that organizational identity is not negatively connected with academics' professional identity, but rather that individuals who strongly identify with their organization also closely align with their professional role. The absence of a negative correlation between organizational and professional identity, as suggested by hypothesis H1, may reflect a growing awareness among academics of the importance of balancing organizational needs with their own

professional development. In a context where higher education is subject to institutional change and the need to demonstrate results, academics might seek to articulate a robust professional position within the organization.

With regard to Hypothesis H2, which argued for a negative correlation between managerialism and academicism, the data collected confirm this hypothesis. Academics who perceive a greater impact of managerialism in the academic environment also show less adherence to the principles of academicism, here intended as the identification with principles of collegiality, intellectual curiosity and rigor, scholarship, and students' learning (as opposed to a more customer-centric logic). Confirmation of the hypothesis H2 on the negative correlation between managerialism and academicism suggests that academic institutions are facing a significant challenge in finding the balance between managerial efficiency and supporting high-quality research and teaching. The growing impact of managerialism may lead academics to feel disoriented in their academic vocations, accentuating tensions between management priorities and academic ideals.

Hypothesis H3a, which assumed a positive correlation between managerialism and organizational identity, was confirmed by the results. This suggests that the adoption of managerial practices is associated with greater identification with the academic organization. This result could reflect the recent intuition of academic institutions to incorporate management practices in order to improve their efficiency and performance. Academics might likely identify more with the organization when they identify with management and decision-making processes.

In contrast, hypothesis H3b, which proposed a negative correlation between managerialism and professional identity, did not find support in the data. This indicates that the presence of managerial practices is not necessarily associated with less professional identification of academics, as it is with organizational identity. The non-confirmation of hypothesis H3b could be explained by the complexity of academic roles, which may be influenced by dynamics not related to managerial positions. Academics might try to maintain their professional identity despite adopting managerial practices.

With regard to the hypotheses concerning academicism, Hypothesis H4a was confirmed: there is a positive correlation between academicism and professional identity. Academics who value academic principles tend to have greater identification with their professional role. However, the data collected do not support hypothesis H4b, which suggested a negative correlation between academicism and organizational identity. This indicates that adherence to academic principles does not seem to negatively influence the degree of organizational identity of academics. The assertion of hypothesis H4a, linking academicism to professional identity, reflects the importance of high-quality research and teaching in the identity of academics. This could be due to the fact that academicism represents a shared aspiration that unites academics, emphasizing

their dedication to the production of meaningful knowledge. The lack of confirmation of hypothesis H4b, on the other hand, could indicate that academicism is not in direct conflict with organizational identity: academics might perceive that the pursuit of academic excellence can coexist with adherence to organizational dynamics, especially when the organization actively supports quality research and teaching.

Finally, regarding hypothesis H5a, which linked the academic performance index, the H-index, to professional and organizational identity, the results confirm this hypothesis only for professional identity. The H-index is positively associated with identification with the academic role but does not show a significant association with organizational identity. This result underlines the importance of academic productivity in professional identity. Academics could perceive a strengthening of their professional identity through the recognition of their scientific and academic achievements.

On the other hand, hypothesis H5b, which stated a positive correlation between the H-index and academicism, and a negative correlation with managerialism, did not find support in the data collected. This suggests that academic performance, as measured by the H-index, is not directly correlated with adherence to the principles of academicism or managerialism.

In summary, the analysis of the findings provided a deeper understanding of the complex interactions between organizational and professional identity, managerialism, and academicism in the context of Italian higher education. These findings open the way for further exploration and reflection on the dynamics at work and the challenges academics face in adapting to a changing environment.

Regarding the main patterns of correlations between the dependent variables organizational and professional identity and the concepts of managerialism and academicism, it can be stated that one of the salient findings concerns the strong negative correlation between the age of academics and managerialism, indicating that younger academics tend to endorse managerial principles. The negative correlation between age and managerialism can be interpreted as a reflection of cultural changes and new perspectives introduced by younger generations of academics, who more dynamically embrace managerial aspects in their approach.

Furthermore, the female gender was found to be more involved in all four variables considered. The increased prominence of women in all four examined fields can be seen as a positive sign of progress towards gender equality. On the other hand, another possible interpretation is that the higher pressure on females in the work environment.

With regard to the type of university, the results show that academics from private institutions manifest greater identification with their organization than those from public institutions, which could reflect the

emphasis on branding and competitiveness that often characterizes these institutions. A similar trend is also reflected in the geographical location, where the northern regions of Italy show a greater organizational identity than the southern regions, that could suggest differences between cultural and socio-economic backgrounds, influencing the perception of organizational identity.

Analyzing the different departments, it was found that academics in the STEM disciplines present a lower level of organizational identity than those in the HSS disciplines, however, when separating the disciplines of “Economics, Business & Management” from all other departments, a particularly high level of organizational identity was noted, higher than all other disciplines or departments. The lower organizational identity in the STEM disciplines might reflect the more research-focused nature of these disciplines, at the expense of organizational connection; furthermore, these disciplines are often characterized by a much higher mobility of researcher that tend to move across different universities much more often compare to other fields, hence making it difficult to create a psychological attachment or sense of belongingness to their institutions.. On the other hand, the higher organizational identity in the disciplines of “Economics, Business & Management” could be influenced by the interdisciplinary and collaborative nature often present in these fields.

Finally, with regard to job position, significant results emerged for PhD students, who exhibit a significantly higher degree of managerialism than the other positions examined; as in the case of the results observed with the age variable, also PhD students showing more managerialism might reflect the cultural changes and new perspectives introduced by younger generations of academics, suggesting that the academic path is becoming increasingly oriented towards developing a managerially-oriented approach. Further, it was found that professionals with fixed-term research positions (RTDB/T) manifest a lower level of organizational identity than all other job categories considered; a possible interpretation of this finding is that the lower identification is due to the yet precarious nature of the job, and the lack of job stability.

In summary, these results provide a detailed overview of the complex interactions between the examined variables in the academic context.

With regard to the analysis conducted on personality measures, it can be summarized that, with regard to the honesty-humility scale, statistically significant negative correlations were found with professional identity and managerialism. This result may be explained by the fact that people high in honesty-humility tend to be uninterested in wealth and status, hence, they may feel uncomfortable with the application of managerial values and a customer-centric vision of academia. The extroversion trait showed significant correlations with all four variables: especially with professional and organizational identity. Indeed, extrovert people feel positively about themselves, feel confident when leading or addressing groups of

people, enjoy social gatherings and interactions, and experience positive feelings of enthusiasm and energy, thus, these features may better align them with the characteristics of the profession, as well as, the organization they belong to, hence increasing their identification. Conscientiousness showed a substantial and significant relationship with all variables, especially with organizational identity. Conscientious people tend to work in a disciplined way toward their goals, strive for accuracy and perfection in their tasks, and deliberate carefully when making decisions, and these characteristics may well align with the rigor of the academic profession, hence increasing the level of personal identification. Openness to experience was significant, showing correlations with professional identity and academicism. Also in this case, the features of people open to experience, namely the tendency to be inquisitive about various domains of knowledge, use their imagination freely in everyday life, and take an interest in unusual ideas, may well align with academic values, and professional identification.

4.4.3 Managerial implications

The findings of this research have important implications for the management of academic institutions and for decision makers working in the context of Italian higher education. The dynamics between organizational and professional identity, managerialism and academicism can profoundly influence the strategies and policies adopted by institutions, as well as the experience of academics themselves. An important starting point could be to balance managerialism and academicism: as the results confirm the importance of finding a balance between managerial needs and adherence to academic ideals, so academic institutions should seek to develop management strategies that promote academic excellence without compromising the quality of research and teaching.

Another starting point could be the promotion of participation and identification: organizational identity can be influenced by the participation of teachers in decisions and organizational processes, so creating opportunities for academics to participate in institutional choices and decision-making processes can increase a sense of belonging and identification with the organization.

Another option would be to provide more support for professional identity: because of it is linked to academicism and the H-index, institutions could encourage excellence in research and teaching with, for example, professional development programs and support for the production of high-quality knowledge to strengthen the professional identity of academics.

Moving on, differences emerged between private and public institutions, whereby the higher identification in private institutions suggests that these institutions are likely to be adopting more effective branding and engagement strategies, hence public institutions could learn from these practices to improve their members' identification with the organization.

Overall, the managerial implications drawn from this research can guide academic institutions in designing more effective strategies that take into account the complex dynamics between organizational and professional identity, managerialism and academicism. These implications can contribute to a more sustainable academic environment and to the advancement of high-quality research and teaching in Italian higher education.

The study of personality traits can have important managerial implications since understanding the influence of personality traits, such as extroversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience, can contribute to more effective personnel selection and development strategies. Institutions, for example, could adapt their recruitment processes to assess traits that align with the desired level of commitment to organizational and professional identities. Institutions could consider aligning their organizational culture with traits that drive positive outcomes.

These implications highlight the value of controlling personality traits to adapt organizational strategies, improve professional engagement and create a more productive environment for working academics.

4.4.4 Future research

As any study, the research is never complete and future research can explore several aspects such as, for example, it might be interesting to investigate which specific practices or institutional changes have influenced the perception of academics and led to a greater awareness of the importance of balancing organizational needs with development professional so as to understand why no negative correlation was found between organizational and professional identity, despite the H1 hypothesis suggesting such result.

Moreover, it might be interesting to analyze in more detail the dynamics between managerialism and academicism so that it could be examined how management practices specifically directly affect academic life, such as the pressure to produce results or the reduction of resources for research and teaching. This could contribute to a better understanding of the tensions that academics face and how they respond.

Another possible area of research could be the integration of management practices into the academic role. It could be examined how academics adapt to management practices and how these affect their professional identity.

Longitudinal studies could also be conducted in order to provide a dynamic perspective on how personality traits evolve over time and influence changes in professional identity and managerial inclinations.

Overall, these topics offer promising paths for future research to gain a comprehensive understanding of the implications of the study done. By addressing these gaps, it can better understand the current situation

of higher education in Italy and can develop best practices to maximize the positive aspects and minimize the negative ones.

4.4.5 Limitation of the study

It is also important to consider the limits of research, although it leads to exploitable results. The limits that could be considered include:

- Selection bias: there may be a risk of selection of participants not representative of the total population of Italian university professors, since receiving answers from 241 academicians may not be a sample that perfectly represents the framework of Italian higher education.
- Response bias: Professors may be inclined to respond selectively or to provide socially accepted answers rather than sincere answers and may feel compelled to respond positively or conventionally to avoid negative feedback.
- Time constraints: being a search for a master thesis, time was limited; probably if there was more time it would have been possible to collect more answers to get a more exhaustive sample.

CONCLUSION

This research focused on an in-depth analysis of four fundamental concepts in higher education: organizational identity, professionalism, managerialism, and academicism. This study was motivated by the constantly changing complexity of the higher education sector, which is subject to multiple internal and external influences. Understanding how these concepts intertwine and influence each other is essential to gain a comprehensive view of the academic context. Organizational and professional identity delineate the distinctive characteristics of an institution and its members, while managerialism and academicism represent two conflicting forces that influence decisions and activities within academic institutions. This research has revealed how these concepts interact in complex and often contradictory ways, highlighting the importance of critical reflection on the future of higher education. The investigation of these aspects, both through personality measures and the main patterns that characterize respondents, helped shed light on the complexity and richness of the contemporary academic environment, offering significant insights for further research and future developments in this evolving field.

In addition, from a business perspective, a detailed understanding of the four key concepts may serve as a foundation for developing innovative solutions and strategies targeted to the needs of academic institutions. Organizations operating in the field of higher education could benefit from this to address emerging challenges and maximize growth opportunities. Furthermore, the training and professional development of academics can be refined to help teachers and researchers better navigate this changing environment. Ultimately, the research presented contributes to the deepening of academic knowledge while also opening new ways for innovation and success in the business world related to higher education.

However, it is also important to recognize the limitations of this research: firstly, the complexity of the academic context may make it difficult to identify clear and linear causes and effects across the four domains. Furthermore, the higher education context is constantly changing, with new factors and dynamics constantly emerging, which makes research always delay behind reality. Despite these limitations, research on these four topics remains of fundamental importance to drive progress and innovation in higher education.

Italian higher education is a fundamental pillar for the development of modern societies, and this research contributes to its ongoing evolution. Although there are inherent challenges and limitations in researching this complex environment, the benefits of better resource management and overall improvement of academic institutions are evident. We are confident that the future of higher education will benefit significantly from an in-depth understanding of the concepts explored in this thesis, thereby fueling the progress, quality and accessibility of higher education for generations to come.

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APPENDIX A: ACADEMIC IDENTITY SURVEY

The following section provides the questionnaire used for the quantitative research.

Introduction:

Welcome! You are about to take part in survey that poses no known risks. In compliance with the EU Regulation 2016/679 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 April 2016 related to the protection of personal data, we remind you that the information provided will be processed only for scientific research and non-commercial purposes and in an aggregate manner ensuring the most complete anonymity. Anyone over the age of 18 can participate.

Section 1: Background

Q1 Please enter your age in the box below:

Q2 What is your gender?

- Female
- Male
- Non-binary
- I prefer not to say

Q3 What is your current job position?

- PhD Student
- Post-Doc
- Research assistant
- Teaching assistant
- Assistant professor
- Assistant professor tenured
- Associate professor
- Full professor
- Adjunct professor
- Professor of practice
- Other

Q4 Do you know your H-index?

- Yes
- No

Q5 What's your H-index?

Q6 What is the department in which you work?

Q7 What institutional responsibilities have you held in your career (e.g., Program Director, Department Chair, etc.)

Q8 The university you work is:

- Private
- Public

Q9 The university where you work is located in:

- Northern Italy
- Southern Italy (and islands)
- Center of Italy

Section 2: Personality

Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements, using a 5-points Likert scale ranging from 1, corresponding to "strongly disagree" to 5, corresponding to "strongly agree".

1. I can look at painting for a long time.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
2. I make sure that things are in the right spot.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)

- Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
3. I remain unfriendly to someone who was mean to me.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 4. Nobody likes talking with me.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 5. I am afraid of feeling pain.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 6. I find it difficult to lie.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 7. I think science is boring.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 8. I postpone complicated tasks as long as possible.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 9. I often express criticism.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 10. I easily approach than others.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
 11. I worry less than others.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)

- Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
12. I would like to know how to make lots of money in a dishonest manner.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
13. I have a lot of imagination.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
14. I work very precisely.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
15. I tend to quickly agree with others.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
16. I like to talk with others.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
17. I can easily overcome difficulties on my own.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
18. I want to be famous.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
19. I like people with strange ideas.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
20. I often do things without really thinking.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
21. Even when I'm treated badly, I remain calm.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
22. I am seldom cheerful.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
23. I have to cry during sad or romantic movies.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)
24. I am entitled to special treatment.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Neutral (3)
 - Agree (4)
 - Strongly Agree (5)

Section 3: Professional Identification

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements, using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1, corresponding to "strongly disagree" to 7, corresponding to "strongly agree".

1. When I talk about the academic profession, I usually say "we" rather than "they".
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
2. The academic profession's successes are my successes.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)

- Strongly Agree (7)
- 3. I am very interested in what others think about the academic profession.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
- 4. When someone praises the academic profession, it feels like a personal compliment.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
- 5. If a story in the media criticized the academic profession, I would feel embarrassed.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)

Section 4: Organizational Identification

- 1. When someone praises my University, it feels a personal compliment.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
- 2. When someone criticizes my University, it feels like a personal insult.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
- 3. When I talk about my University, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
- 4. My University’s successes are my successes.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
5. If a story in the media criticized my University, I would feel embarrassed.
- Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)

Section 5: Managerialism and Academicism

1. In my opinion, higher education is best promoted on the basis of market-demand and user-pays principles.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
2. In my opinion, higher education is best promoted on the basis of educational need and academic standards principles.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
3. I think universities are first and foremost learning institution focused on intellectual rigor and scholarship.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
4. I think universities are first and foremost business institutions focused on income generation and cost minimization.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)

- Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
5. I believe that the primary purpose of academic work is to encourage scholarship and student learning.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
 6. I believe that the primary purpose of academic work is to generate income via external research grants and industry linkages.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
 7. Academics need to offer students greater product choice as consumer.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
 8. Academics need to offer students structured learning focused programs.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
 9. Decisions in universities should be taken by managers and communicated to the faculty.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
 10. Decisions in universities should be taken following principals of democracy and collegiality.
 - Strongly Disagree (1)
 - Disagree (2)
 - Somewhat Disagree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Somewhat Agree (5)
 - Agree (6)
 - Strongly Agree (7)
 11. I believe that scientific research must be guided by the pursuit of knowledge and by the academic's intellectual curiosity.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Somewhat Disagree (3)
- Neutral (4)
- Somewhat Agree (5)
- Agree (6)
- Strongly Agree (7)

12. I believe that scientific research must be guided by the search for practical applications and must be responsive to industry needs.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Somewhat Disagree (3)
- Neutral (4)
- Somewhat Agree (5)
- Agree (6)
- Strongly Agree (7)