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Implementing New Institutional Logics in Pioneering Organizations: The Burden of Justifying
Ethical Appropriateness and Trustworthiness

Authors: Karan Sonpar · Jay Handelman · Ali Dastmalchian

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Abstract This mixed-methods case study describes the experiences of a rural health organization in Canada that was a pioneer in undergoing institutionally driven radical change. This change was advocated by senior managers and physicians with the strong backing of the government. The senior managers and physicians made a strong case for the radical change and argued that a focus on efficiency and wellness would lead to improved service and quality of patient-care. However, this radical change initiative was resisted by nurses and support staff who perceived that these changes were being driven by market-based institutional logics and questioned their ethical appropriateness in a public system. They also expressed a lack of trust given the large-scale layoffs in a prior restructuring. These findings run counter to extant theory by highlighting the role of agency despite institutional pressures. Specifically, change implementers not only face the burden of justifying ethical

appropriateness of institutional logics, but also are required to engage in persuasive discourse that these institutional logics protect the interests of the members.

Keywords (separated by '-') institutional logics - values - justify ethical appropriateness - change - trust

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Implementing New Institutional Logics in Pioneering Organizations: The Burden of Justifying Ethical Appropriateness and Trustworthiness

Karan Sonpar
Jay Handelman
Ali Dastmalchian

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ABSTRACT. This mixed-methods case study describes the experiences of a rural health organization in Canada that was a pioneer in undergoing institutionally driven radical change. This change was advocated by senior managers and physicians with the strong backing of the government. The senior managers and physicians made a strong case for the radical change and argued that a focus on efficiency and wellness would lead to improved service and quality of patient-care. However, this radical change initiative was resisted by nurses and support staff who perceived that these changes were being driven by market-based institutional logics and questioned their ethical appropriateness in a public system. They also expressed a lack of trust given the large-scale layoffs in a prior restructuring. These findings run counter to extant theory by highlighting the role of agency despite institutional pressures. Specifically, change implementers not only face the burden of justifying ethical appropriateness of institutional logics, but also are required to engage in persuasive discourse that these institutional logics protect the interests of the members.

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KEY WORDS: institutional logics, values, justify ethical appropriateness, change, trust

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Introduction

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Institutional theory (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Meyer and Rowan, 1977) proposes that radical or large-scale organizational changes are driven by institutional logics that serve as organizing principles as they encompass the values of institutions (Friedland and Alford, 1991; Rao et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2000; Thornton, 1999). For example, the 1964 Civil

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Rights Act was driven by logics of equality and granted under-represented groups better access to employment reshaped hiring practices in the US (Dobbin and Sutton, 1998). However, a problem with the theory is that it does not consider how institutions and their logics may have effects that are “pluralistic, and are challenged as well as hotly contested” (Dacin et al., 2002, p. 45). One could extend the above and develop the argument that political contests and conflicts based on ethical aspects of institutional logics do not occur since interests and values are institutionally determined. Yet, a handful of studies have shown that actors may contest institutional logics. For example, the 1964 Civil Rights Act did not get full support as some senior managers felt that the only ethical criterion for employment is merit (Edelman, 1992; Edelman et al., 2001). On a separate note, it appears plausible that contests on ethical appropriateness of institutional logics will be more explicit in pioneering organizations (or early-adopters) because institutional logics do not have a legitimate precedent. It is therefore somewhat ironic that there is a lack of attention to conflicts and contests in the current studies of institutionally driven change. It is for these reasons that experts have urged researchers to be attentive to “micro foundations” of change (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991, p. 16).

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One specific conceptual area that has received very little attention is the implementation of emerging institutional logics in pioneering organizations. Arndt and Bigelow (2000) show that pioneering organizations may be faced with a differing set of circumstances considering that a legitimate practice or prototype does not occur thus far. Earlier studies on institutional logics (e.g., Thornton, 1999) have

85 focused on their diffusion at the level of the field (i.e.,
86 at the macro level) and do not offer sufficient insights
87 into what happens during adoption within pioneering
88 organizations. This gap in the literature on radical
89 change motivates our article where we studied an
90 institutionally driven radical change initiative by a
91 rural healthcare organization in Canada. This orga-
92 nization was aiming to implement a new model of
93 integrated healthcare delivery.

94 We find that the change was strongly resisted
95 despite it being championed by powerful organiza-
96 tional members – specifically the senior managers
97 and physicians – who had strong backing from the
98 government. They attempted to justify the new
99 integrated model of healthcare delivery as being
100 driven by the need to include wellness and efficiency
101 in the agenda. However, some organizational mem-
102 bers – especially, the nurses and support staff –
103 resisted the initiative as they perceived these changes
104 being driven by market-based logics of efficiency.
105 Thus it seemed to contradict the prior system driven
106 by medicine-based logics that put patient interests
107 above economics. As also, the resistance toward the
108 new radical change initiative was aggravated by the
109 mistrust of some organizational members who
110 recalled a prior radical change initiative had led to
111 large-scale layoffs. A closer analysis reveals that
112 resistance had ethical underpinnings with regard to
113 both institutional and organizational factors. Simply
114 put, some organizational members questioned the
115 ethical appropriateness of market-based logics, as also
116 mistrusted the motive of the radical change initiative
117 based on a negative past experience. In contrast, the
118 organizational champions supported the change
119 initiative because they believed that the new system
120 was ethically appropriate as it would improve the
121 wellness of people and lead to fiscal prudence.

122 The above findings lead us to theoretically focus
123 on the underpinnings of institutional logics and trust
124 as organizing principles in times of radical change,
125 particularly in pioneering organizations. McEvily
126 et al. (2003, p. 92) define an organizing principle as
127 “the logic by which work is coordinated and
128 information gathered, disseminated, and processed
129 within and between organizations. An organizing
130 principle represents a heuristic for how actors
131 interpret and represent information and how they
132 select appropriate behaviors and routines for coord-
133 inating actions.” Although institutional theory

134 proposes that institutional logics work as heuristics,
135 which encompass the values of institutions (Fried-
136 land and Alford, 1991; Rao et al., 2003; Scott et al.,
137 2000; Thornton, 1999), it is the heuristics of trust
138 that engenders support at the individual level
139 (McEvily et al., 2003). Moreover, the perceived
140 ethicality of new institutional logics as also beliefs
141 that change leaders will act ethically affects support
142 for these changes.

143 It is also important to understand here that ethical
144 issues remain implicit but inadequately developed in
145 the two literatures. On the one hand, the literature
146 on institutional logics focuses on how values or
147 discourse on what constitutes appropriate behavior
148 are embedded in institutional logics. In other words,
149 priorities and definitions on what is legitimate (and
150 consequentially, ethical) is determined at the insti-
151 tutional level. Note that the literature remains rela-
152 tively silent with regard to burden of justifying
153 ethical appropriateness considering that institutional
154 prescriptions in the form of laws or norms should be
155 sufficient in itself. On the other hand, the trust lit-
156 erature develops the argument that actors are willing
157 to trust when their self-interests are met and/or
158 when they believe that the latter can be believed to
159 behave with integrity and fairness. In other words,
160 acting ethically may not be sufficient if interests of
161 actors are ignored.

162 The next section of this article presents the theory
163 underlying institutional logics and trust within the
164 context of radical organizational change. Of particular
165 interest is the possible presence of trust as an orga-
166 nizing principle that resides alongside, and possibly in
167 interaction with, institutional logics. This theoretical
168 development is followed by an explanation of the
169 research site and methodology. The findings are then
170 presented, and a discussion section rounds out the
171 article. The overall conclusion of the article is that
172 conflicts – both institutional and organizational – may
173 have an ethical component and affect the implemen-
174 tation of radical change initiatives.

175 Overview of the literature 175

176 New institutional theory directs our attention to
177 coercive, mimetic, or normative forces that operate
178 outside the boundaries of the organization, and at the
179 level of the organizational field (DiMaggio and

180 Powell, 1983, 1991; Meyer and Rowan, 1977). It
 181 explains how organizations attempt to align their
 182 structures based on current myths of the environment
 183 that permeate through institutional logics, which
 184 encompass the values of institutions (Friedland and
 185 Alford, 1991). Ethical underpinnings are somewhat
 186 implicit in institutional logics since they determine
 187 what is considered right and proper. Conflict, as per
 188 this paradigm occurs at the level of the organizational
 189 field (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991). This was unlike
 190 old institutionalism's emphasis on how coalitions and
 191 politics within organizations subverted attempts at
 192 change, mostly due to issues related to power and
 193 self-interest (Selznick, 1948, 1949, 1957).

194 Unlike institutional theory, which has sociological
 195 underpinnings, literature on trust focuses on how it
 196 is a psychological state that facilitates smooth trans-
 197 actions (e.g. Kramer, 1999; Mayer et al., 1995;
 198 McEvily et al., 2003). It draws our attention to how
 199 actors within organizations choose to support or
 200 resist organizational schemes. It explains how trust is
 201 determined by several factors to include past experi-
 202 ences, values held by an individual, and the per-
 203 ceived impact of an event on individual interests. It
 204 elucidates the role of individuals who are like intu-
 205 itive auditors in the sense that they evaluate oppor-
 206 tunities and try to maximize their gains and cut their
 207 losses in any transaction (Kramer, 1996; Tyler and
 208 Kramer, 1996). When new institutionalism's insights
 209 on the impact of institutional logics are understood
 210 in conjunction with the rational dimensions of trust,
 211 they might address the micro foundations of insti-
 212 tutional theory related to causes and consequences of
 213 pluralistic effects. While institutional logics operates
 214 as an organizing principle in explaining how and
 215 why change occurs, the latter – trust – as an orga-
 216 nizing principle, tempers the smoothness or success
 217 of implementation of such change.

218 *Institutional logics as an organizing principle*

219 New institutional theory has grown in stature as a
 220 powerful way to examine how institutions drive
 221 organizational change, and how institutions them-
 222 selves change (Dacin et al., 2002; DiMaggio and
 223 Powell, 1991). Its burgeoning focus on organiza-
 224 tional and institutional changes has shed light on
 225 another important phenomenon that has, until

226 recently, received scant attention from researchers in
 227 the field – the microprocesses underlying institu-
 228 tional change (Johnson et al., 2000). Studies that
 229 have examined the interplay between individual
 230 behavior and institutional templates have largely
 231 examined how individual actors deal with and con-
 232 tribute to the macroprocesses of institutional change.
 233 For example, Johnson et al. (2000) described how
 234 individual organizational members deal with the
 235 process of change from a public to a privatized
 236 institutional environment. Conversely, Oliver (1997)
 237 identified functional, political, and social sources of
 238 micro level forces on institutional change. These
 239 studies highlight how individual social actors are
 240 influenced by and exert influence on ubiquitous
 241 institutional logics (Barley and Tolbert, 1997; John-
 242 son et al., 2000). In doing so, a greater understanding
 243 is gained of how institutions drive organizational
 244 change and how they themselves are changed.

245 Institutions exercise effects or encompass myths
 246 that urge organizations to align their structures with
 247 pre-determined legitimate templates. Consistent
 248 with Friedland and Alford (1991), we believe that
 249 different institutions of the society may simulta-
 250 neously exercise multiple and often contradictory
 251 influences upon organizations. Institutional expect-
 252 ations are espoused in the logics of institutions that
 253 work as organizing principles to drive change. These
 254 come to be shared by social actors (Friedland and
 255 Alford, 1991). Shared institutional logics provide
 256 social actors with the norms, values, and beliefs upon
 257 which understandings of how strategies and decisions
 258 are formulated (Thornton, 2002). The way these
 259 institutional logics shape individual behavior is by
 260 way of scripts. In this context, scripts are viewed as
 261 behavioral regularities in that “institutional rules are
 262 encoded in behavioral scripts that, in turn, are
 263 enacted in specific situations. The resulting behaviors
 264 revise or replicate the scripts that informed the
 265 action” (Johnson et al., 2000, p. 573 based on Barley
 266 and Tolbert, 1997).

267 *Trust as an organizing principle*

268 McEvily et al. (2003, p. 92) propose that “at a
 269 general level trust is the willingness to accept
 270 vulnerability based on positive expectations about
 271 another's intentions or behaviours.” As trust arises

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272 out of vulnerability, there are dual underlying facets
273 of self-interest and social orientation that influence
274 individuals. On the one hand, trust allows individ-
275 uals to maximize their own sense of security, rep-
276 resenting the protection of self-interests (Hendry,
277 2002). However, in addition to purely selfish (and
278 rational) imperatives, Kramer (1999) argues that trust
279 is also influenced by the values and social orientation
280 of an individual. When related to institutional logics,
281 we argue that individuals make sense of institutional
282 expectations and play an active role in supporting or
283 rejecting the values embedded in these expectations.

284 These dual rational and relational elements of trust
285 leads to the three critical components of trust: *ability*,
286 *benevolence*, and *integrity* (Mayer et al., 1995). Ability,
287 also referred to by McEvily et al. as competence, is
288 based on the rational element of trust. If an organi-
289 zational agent advocating change is deemed by
290 potential followers to possess competence, business
291 sense and judgement, then trust is more likely to
292 ensue (Mayer et al., 1995). Benevolence is the
293 extent to which the change agent is willing to do
294 something apart from an egocentric profit motive.
295 Feelings of kindness and concern for the welfare of
296 another are central to this relational element of trust.
297 A change agent whose intentions are regarded as
298 benevolent is more likely to inspire trust. Finally,
299 integrity is the degree to which the change agent's
300 motives follow a set of principles at both a moral and
301 personal level as opposed to self-interested driven
302 motives. The change agent's integrity provides
303 insight into his/her motives (McEvily et al., 2003).
304 The agent for change who is regarded to have
305 integrity, or motives that are not based solely on self-
306 interest, is more likely to inspire trust. Mayer and
307 Davis (1999) argue that perceived ability, benevo-
308 lence, and integrity have independent influences on
309 employee trust in management activities.

310 While institutional logics serve as drivers of
311 change, it is trust that facilitates change, as trust
312 implies risk-taking due to potential vulnerabilities it
313 causes. Within organizations, there are powerful
314 players who present the case for or against organi-
315 zational change. This leads to an important micro-
316 level phenomenon that might interact with the
317 institutional logics that are driving the change – the
318 trust an organizational member has in those orga-
319 nizational actors who are advocating the change.
320 There is a growing recognition of the importance of

trust in times of crisis, change, and conflict (Mishra, 321
1996; Tyler and DeGoey, 1996; Webb, 1996). Trust 322
has been acknowledged as a mobilizer of organiza- 323
tional resources in that it promotes teamwork and 324
cooperative behavior that favors organizational goals 325
(Jones and George, 1998; Kramer, 1999; McAllister, 326
1995). If changing or conflicting institutional logics 327
might be considered the drivers of organizational 328
change (Johnson et al., 2000), trust might be con- 329
sidered a facilitator of this change (McEvily et al., 330
2003). In the absence of trust in those actors pre- 331
sented the case for change, organizational resources 332
might not be mobilized in support of such change, 333
and the process of change may be difficult despite 334
the proposed shift in institutional logics. 335

The Interaction of institutional logics and trust 336

Just as Friedland and Alford (1991) regarded insti- 337
tutional logics as an organizing principle that guides 338
behavior, McEvily et al. (2003) regard trust as an 339
organizing principle as well. Trust as an organizing 340
principle, heuristic, or frame of reference makes 341
individual decision making easier in that it allows 342
people to engage in given behaviors and routines, 343
knowing that their trusted counterpart will not 344
exploit one's vulnerability (McEvily et al., 2003). 345
Trust, in turn, strengthens the identity and organi- 346
zational commitment social actors feel (Lewicki and 347
Bunker, 1996), leading to the willingness by social 348
actors to contribute their resources and coordinate 349
their efforts with others in the organization toward 350
the achievement of organizational goals (McEvily 351
et al., 2003). McEvily et al. note that trust operates 352
in conjunction with other organizing principles. 353
Given that institutional logics are also regarded as an 354
important organizing principle, the interaction 355
between institutional logics and trust is to be 356
expected in times of organizational change. Just as 357
institutional logics serve as an organizing principle by 358
defining scripts of behavioral regularities based on 359
definitions of legitimacy, trust is also an organizing 360
principle that provides social actors the confidence 361
to engage in behaviors that work toward organiza- 362
tional, as opposed to self-interested, goals. Where 363
institutional logics serve as an organizing principle 364
that drives or catalyzes organizational change, trust is 365
an organizing principle that facilitates such change. 366

367 In the absence of trust, social actors would be
 368 unwilling to mobilize their resources toward orga-
 369 nizational goals.

370 Of specific importance during a change initiative
 371 is the role of organizational champions – generally
 372 senior managers or powerful players – who bring
 373 new institutional logics to the attention of organi-
 374 zations. Organizational champions are involved in
 375 the persistent and persuasive communication with
 376 others in the organization, that radical change is
 377 necessary (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992). Consis-
 378 tent with the trust literature, one’s trust in the
 379 organizational champion based on an assessment of
 380 his/her ability, benevolence, and integrity, will
 381 determine the willingness of organizational mem-
 382 bers to mobilize their efforts in favor of the change
 383 being advocated. After all, a proposal for radical
 384 organizational change potentially puts members in a
 385 framework of vulnerability, thereby making trust a
 386 key issue.

387 **Empirical context**

388 The site for this study is a regional healthcare orga-
 389 nization in a rural Canadian community. The
 390 healthcare sector provides an appropriate venue for
 391 this study as it operates in an institutionalized envi-
 392 ronment implying that practices are well established
 393 and taken for granted with quality medical care being
 394 the dominant logic. However, recent years have seen
 395 market-based logics for efficiency and new public
 396 management principles replacing the quality medical
 397 care model. The particular changes facing the
 398 healthcare organization examined in this study
 399 include the restructuring of organizational positions
 400 and responsibilities, changes in the reward system
 401 for physicians, and implementation of enhanced
 402 information systems within the primary healthcare
 403 domain. As also, driving these changes is a transfor-
 404 mation in institutional logic from healthcare organi-
 405 zations being regarded strictly as facilities that deliver
 406 quality care to patients (citizens) in need of health care
 407 (a non-market institutional logic), to organizations
 408 that must follow some form of society or market-based
 409 norm or logic? Denis et al. (1999), among others, have
 410 referred to the “wellness” model as an overarching
 411 logic that transforms the “disease”-centered logic to a
 412 more preventive model that contains societal and

market driven logics. The kind of changes imposed on
 rural healthcare organizations can be considered rad-
 ical in that any resulting change on the organization
 would mean a fundamental and rare shift in the
 organization’s strategy and structure (Bartunek,
 1984).

Under the traditional non-market-based institu-
 tional logic of “quality care,” patients would visit
 physicians at the physician’s office. Under the
 publicly funded healthcare system in Canada, the
 government paid a physician for each patient who
 physically visited his/her office. However, under the
 proposed new institutional logic of more integration
 (and possibly more efficiency), medical services will
 be offered for a selected services/diseases (e.g., baby
 wellness, asthma, diabetes) by “integrated teams”. In
 this situation, the patient has access to a team of care
 providers with varying specialties. Rather than
 seeing individual patients, physicians are placed in
 more of a managerial role where they must coordi-
 nate and implement the resources. Rather
 than being paid on a per patient basis, physicians’
 remuneration would be based on a salary and
 incentive structure that rewards physicians for the
 estimated number of patients who need to be pro-
 vided the services rather than purely by “fee for
 service” logic. This change in institutional logic
 impacts such fundamental organizational changes as
 reward systems and organizational structure and
 hierarchy whereby administrators have less of a role
 and physicians gain a more powerful role in man-
 aging the system.

Sample 445

A series of 41 interviews conducted by a team
 of healthcare researchers at a Canadian university
 were analyzed for this study. So as to maximize the
 variation in theoretical insights, the informants
 included individuals belonging to several profes-
 sional groups to include representatives from the
 senior management, physicians, middle-level man-
 agers, nurse-managers, nurses, support staff and other
 allied staff from healthcare organizations in the
 region being affected by the institutionally driven
 change. An average interview lasted between 60 and
 90 min. These interviews were conducted in
 the official premises of the healthcare organization.

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459 These interviews were taped and transcribed in
 460 verbatim to facilitate their subsequent analysis. The
 461 interviews followed a semi-structured format. The
 462 initial intent of the interviews was to understand
 463 how members within the organization understood
 464 this organizational change. The questions were not
 465 designed to measure the dynamics of trust or insti-
 466 tutional logics. These two organizing principles
 467 emerged during our analysis of the transcribed
 468 interviews.

469 *Analysis of data*

470 We analyzed our data in two distinct steps. Consistent
 471 with the grounded theory studies (Glaser and Strauss,
 472 1967; Straus and Corbin, 1990, 1998), the first step
 473 of data analysis was inductive in nature. Grounded
 474 theory uses techniques such as the flip-flop technique of
 475 analysis and the constant comparison to notice sameness
 476 and variation in the data. This implies constant com-
 477 parison within and between cases to look for trends and
 478 differences in the emerging insights. Data is also collected
 479 to the point of theoretical saturation, defined as the stage
 480 whereby collection of additional data does not add to the
 481 existing insights. Emergent insights during analysis of
 482 transcripts guide subsequent investigation and review of
 483 the literature. The use of multiple interviewees and data
 484 coders serves as a type of “researcher triangulation” (Jick,
 485 1979) and facilitated cross-validation of the emergent
 486 categories and insights.

487 The first step of data analysis revealed the political
 488 contests within the organization as a consequence of
 489 the change. Actors identified the change initiatives as
 490 driven by market-based logics. Earlier studies explain
 491 pressures for market logic to replace older logics of
 492 medical professionalism (Scott et al., 2000). How-
 493 ever, another microdynamic emerged too. In the
 494 transcripts, several members made mention that it
 495 was ultimately a “trust issue for change.” There was
 496 also a pattern in the responses in the sense that actors
 497 belonging to different professional groups seemed to
 498 differ in the normative values they espoused, and the
 499 trust they attached to the given change initiatives.
 500 Consistent with Miles and Huberman’s (1994) sug-
 501 gestions that additional quantitative analyses are
 502 helpful to illuminate initial qualitative evidence, we
 503 content analyzed the transcripts with the aim of
 504 ascertaining (1) whether trust arises as an organizing

principle in the interviews, and (2) the manner in 505
 which it shapes cognition of an individual. 506

So the second step of the analysis was more delib- 507
 erate and was in line with the deductive approaches to 508
 qualitative data analysis such as content analysis 509
 (Krippendorff, 2004; Neundorf, 2002; Weber, 1990). 510
 The focus now shifted to generating a quantitative 511
 analysis of the data by measuring the presence of trust, 512
 and variance in trust across professional groups, as 513
 hypothesized by the framework of Mayer et al. 514
 (1995). These were further elaborated and substanti- 515
 ated with interpretive insights that emerged from the 516
 rich interview transcripts. The examination of the 517
 presence of trust as a key cognitive factor in times of 518
 radical organizational change was conducted using a 519
 partial reduction in loss approach advocated by Rust 520
 and Cooil (1994). 521

Partial reduction in loss approach 522

In this approach, independent coders were taught the 523
 conceptual trust framework of integrity, benevolence 524
 and integrity. Using the method outlined by Rust and 525
 Cooil (1994), three judges (N1–N3) were each given 526
 the interview transcripts and independently coded the 527
 three categorical items of “ability,” “benevolence,” 528
 and “integrity” (M1–M3) into one of the three 529
 mutually exclusive categories of “yes – this categorical 530
 item definitely emerged in this transcript,” “some- 531
 what – this categorical item somewhat emerged in this 532
 transcript,” and “no – this categorical item definitely 533
 did not emerge in this transcript”. Based on the 534
 judgements of the multiple coders for each transcript, 535
 a degree of agreement is obtained to quantify the rate 536
 of agreement using the proportional reduction in loss 537
 approach (Rust and Cooil, 1994). A high degree of 538
 agreement determines a high degree of reliability 539
 providing a score between 0 and 1, which is compa- 540
 rable to Cronbach’s alpha for determining the reli- 541
 ability and internal consistency of the findings. 542
 Consistent with a Cronbach’s alpha, a score of 0.70 or 543
 higher is an indication of reliability (Rust and Cooil, 544
 1994). The coders were also asked to rate their degree 545
 of confidence in their coding (on a scale of 1 – not 546
 confident, to 7 – very confident). Prior to measuring 547
 inter-rater reliability using Rust and Cooil (1994), a 548
 pilot test was conducted to ascertain reliability of the 549
 coding scheme. 550

551 *Pilot test*

552 The pilot test comprised three interviews. It con-
 553 sisted of an interview of each of a representative of
 554 the top management, a physician and a nurse. The
 555 same three interviews were given to each of
 556 the three coders and no identifying information of
 557 the interviewees was made available to the coders.
 558 Neither of the three coders were authors of the
 559 article and nor had either of them collected the data
 560 or transcribed the interviews. The three coders
 561 belonged to three different ethnic races, and all the
 562 three were graduate students in the Faculty of
 563 Management. The three coders coded these inter-
 564 views separately. Individual discussions were held
 565 with them at the end of this activity to discuss their
 566 analysis of the interview transcripts. We found that
 567 the coders were able to identify passages in the text
 568 that distinctly referred to trust issues. There was also
 569 an acceptable level of consistency and agreement
 570 between the three of them on the presence of these
 571 attributes. On individual interaction with the coders
 572 and discussing their responses and coding schemes
 573 with them, we noticed that the coders interpreted
 574 the interview transcripts quite consistently. We were
 575 now confident that the theoretical framework was
 576 robust, and coders were trained adequately in the
 577 dynamics of trust to go ahead with the inter-rater
 578 reliability tests.

579 *Sample for inter-rater reliability test*

580 The sample constituted the balance 38 of 41 inter-
 581 views. These were analyzed for determining the
 582 reliability of the instrument on trust that was con-
 583 structed based on the work of Mayer et al. (1995).
 584 These interviews were randomly numbered from 4
 585 to 41, and the names and designations of the
 586 respondents were hidden.

587 Each of the 38 interviews was to be judged by any
 588 two of the three rater-analysts. Rater-analyst N1 was
 589 given 26 interviews and rater-analyst N2 and N3
 590 were given 25 interviews each. In short, we prepared
 591 a total of 76 questionnaires, as the rater-analysts were
 592 making 38 sets of judgments. The details of the
 593 sample are as given in the Table I. The three mem-
 594 bers of the allied staff comprised two social workers
 595 and one researcher within the organization.

TABLE I
Demographics of sample

Designation	<i>n</i>	Percentage
Senior managers	5	13.20
Physicians	3	7.89
Middle-level managers	9	23.68
Nurse-managers	3	7.89
Nurses	8	21.05
Support staff	7	18.42
Allied staff	3	17.89

Results

596

597 Results indicate that trust does emerge as a cognitive
 598 theme in times of institutionally driven radical
 599 change, and that the framework of benevolence,
 600 integrity, and ability is a reliable framework to use in
 601 order to measure trust. Trust emerged in 84.21% of
 602 the judgements with the coders demonstrating a
 603 high level of confidence in their judgements (an
 604 average of 6.38 out of 7). Only 14.03% of the
 605 judgements reported trust as being “somewhat
 606 present,” and 1.75% reported trust as “not present”.
 607 The “ability” category of trust was judged to be
 608 present in 50% of the transcripts, “benevolence” was
 609 judged to be present in 26.31% of the transcripts, and
 610 “integrity” was judged to be present in 23.69% of
 611 the transcripts. These judgements showed a high
 612 level of inter-coder reliability as tested using the
 613 proportional reduction in loss reliability test (see
 614 Table II). So, the conclusion with strong reliability is
 615 that trust emerges as an important cognitive factor
 616 for respondents in their view of institutionally driven
 617 organizational change (Figure 1).

TABLE II
Reliability of theoretical framework

Category	Proportional reduction in loss reliability level	Raw percentage of coder agreement (%)
Overall trust instrument	0.78	73.68
Ability	0.83	78.94
Benevolence	0.75	71.05
Integrity	0.75	71.05

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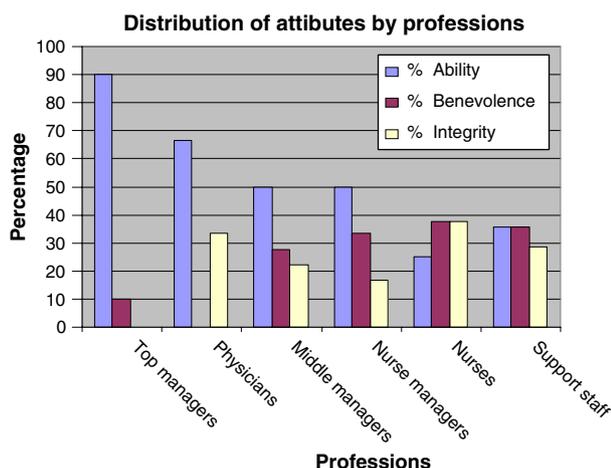


Figure 1. Diagrammatic representation of important trust elements by unit group.

618 The second research question addresses the
 619 interaction between trust and institutional logics.
 620 This research question was examined in two stages.
 621 The first stage was to examine whether the impor-
 622 tance level of the various elements of trust (benev-
 623 olence, integrity, and ability) varied across the unit
 624 groupings within the organization. The second stage
 625 was to examine whether different institutional logics
 626 underlying the drive for organizational change can
 627 be attributed to the different unit groups. If different
 628 unit groupings held different views of trust, and
 629 these unit groupings could themselves be differen-
 630 tiated on their guiding institutional logics, then an
 631 inference can be made that trust varies (and thus
 632 interacts with) institutional logics.

633 There is strong evidence that trust varies across the
 634 unit groupings within the healthcare organization.
 635 Evidence comes from the responses given by the
 636 coders when asked “According to you, which attri-
 637 bute (benevolence, integrity, and ability) impacted
 638 trust the most in the interview?” The results are
 639 captured in Table II. From these raw percentages, a
 640 series of chi-square tests (non-parametric tests) were
 641 conducted to measure whether any significant dif-
 642 ference existed across the unit groupings. At this stage,
 643 the three interviews of the Allied Staff were dropped
 644 from the analysis due to their limited involvement
 645 in the implementation of the project. The first
 646 chi-square ran across all six subgroups showed that
 647 there is a significant difference in the importance
 648 placed on the different elements of trust ($p < 0.05$)
 649 (Table III).

TABLE III

Coder ratings of important trust elements by unit group

Unit group	Most important trust element		
	Ability (%)	Integrity (%)	Benevolence (%)
Senior managers	90	0	10
Physicians	66.67	33.33	0
Middle managers	50	22.22	27.78
Nurse-managers	50	16.67	33.34
Nurses	25	37.5	37.5
Support staff	35.71	28.57	35.71

In order to examine these differences in more
 detail, the six units were put into three major groups
 based on conceptual groupings. The first group
 consisted of senior managers and physicians. This
 group was considered the *institutional entrepreneurs*
 (Scott, 1995), as they are the units that are making
 the arguments within the health care units for the
 radical change.¹ The second group was the middle
 managers and nurse-managers who are considered to
 be the *implementers*, and are seen as intermediaries
 between the institutional entrepreneurs and the third
 group. Finally, the third group is the *followers*, which
 consist of nurses and the support staff. A chi-square
 test revealed a significant difference on the impor-
 tance of ability at the $p < 0.01$ level across these
 three unit groupings. Another series of chi-square
 tests was run between institutional entrepreneurs
 and followers. There is a significant difference be-
 tween these two groups on ability ($p < 0.001$) and
 benevolence ($p < 0.02$).

These results suggest that differences appear to be
 occurring across the unit groupings, with senior
 managers and physicians attaching greater impor-
 tance to the dimensions of ability in their propen-
 sity to put trust in the government officials who are
 initiating the change. In other words, for those who
 must carry the role as leaders of change within the
 health care units, ability in the government officials
 to put necessary resources in place is regarded as the
 single most important factor that must be present
 before trust is conferred. Conversely, for those in
 unit groups at the lower end of the hierarchy
 (change followers), more importance is attached to

683 the element of benevolence that must be in place
684 before trust is conferred. There is no difference
685 between any of the groups with respect to integrity.

686 While the quantitative evidence points to differ-
687 ences in what impacts trust, it does explain why dif-
688 ferent professional groups respond to the change
689 initiative in differing ways. In order to further elaborate
690 upon the understanding of these differences between
691 professional groups in their trust for the new system, we
692 returned to the data to conduct additional qualitative
693 analyses. We find references to both the appropriate-
694 ness of the new initiative (institutional logics) and their
695 trust in the organizational champions. We also find that
696 actors use different impression management techniques
697 (Arndt and Bigelow, 2000) to support or resist initia-
698 tives on ethical grounds. On occasion, they also dis-
699 guise their interests under the garb of ethical values.

700 *Institutional entrepreneurs (managers and physicians)*

701 For managers and physicians, efficiency and ratio-
702 nality overwhelmingly dominated as an appropriate
703 institutional logic. Consider, for example, this
704 statement by a senior manager:

705 It [the radical change] will save dollars... So if you can
706 do and look after the individual better under this
707 [changed] system, then the resulting fact is that you can
708 do more with the same amount of dollars you have,
709 and I think that's the overriding, is to be effective and
710 efficient.
711

712 Market-based logic permeates the rhetoric of the
713 senior managers and physicians who will have
714 incentives to control costs and allocate resources.
715 Recall that in a conceptually consistent manner, this
716 unit grouping also placed more importance on the
717 ability element of trust. In other words, in order to
718 take on the responsibility (and thus, vulnerability) of
719 market-based exigencies, their bosses (government
720 officials) must demonstrate ability – a technical/
721 functional conceptualization of change that is con-
722 sistent with a market-based institutional logic under
723 this new integrated system. Their scripts dictate that
724 a healthcare organization should be run in a pro-
725 fessional, “integrated” manner, which is cost-effec-
726 tive in the long run. Their trust in this process of

change is high as it addresses these issues of effec-
tiveness and efficiency.

Statements that emphasized the need for explor-
ing “service delivery costs” and “how smart you can
get when you have fiscal restraint” highlight such
market-based logics. These logics are consistent with
the inter-rater reliability test findings, which suggest
that the attribute *ability* was pivotal to their feelings
of trust. This is strongly evident from the rater-
analysts judging in 90% of the cases that the senior
administrators are most influenced by the ability
dynamics of trust. The physicians also believe that
the new system will enable the provision of services
“in a better way.” They feel that this system would
enable them to “practice medicine differently.”
They believe that an efficient delivery of these ser-
vices would enhance the satisfaction and address the
important issues of “prevention” and “wellness” that
were currently ignored.

The physicians are also driven by managerial or
corporate logics. Their norms of rationality dictate the
need to provide these services “in a better way.” They
feel that the new system would enable them to
“practice medicine differently.” They argue that an
efficient delivery of these services would enhance the
satisfaction and address the issues of “prevention” and
“wellness” that were currently ignored. Also, unlike
the past, this new system of healthcare delivery gave
them the leadership role in managing the health of the
community. Remarkd one of the physicians:

Let's get involved; let's make one of the changes
before they are foisted upon us. We've seen the gov-
ernment do a few things to physicians to give us an
idea of what their power was and they were unilateral
and as a group of physicians we did not like that.

This statement supports our argument that the
physicians are striving to be the institutional entre-
preneurs in change initiative. Sufficient literature
supports this new dimension of a physician as a
“worker” who is an active agent negotiating his exis-
tence, and not someone who is merely a professional or
caregiver (Hoff, 2001). Their important position in the
healthcare setup and the acute shortage of physicians in
the province made them believe that they could
negotiate for a system of healthcare delivery, which
they also believe, is in their best interests.

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774	<i>Implementers (middle-level managers</i>				
775	<i>and nurse-managers)</i>				
776	Middle-level managers and nurse-managers had mixed		The middle-level managers also express concern	821	
777	reactions to the market- and non-market-based indi-		over the need for a better system of communication,	822	
778	cators. For example, one member of this unit group		feedback, and empowerment. They speak of the need	823	
779	mentioned that health care organizations need to		to “get people involved” and create an atmosphere	824	
780	“offer better service through integration [of structure]		conducive for more interaction and understanding	825	
781	as opposed to better service through added dollars”		amongst the various members. The appropriate	826	
782	(middle-level manager) demonstrating the importance		behavior for the middle-level managers therefore is a	827	
783	of the market-based logics. However, members of this		holistic mix of efficiency, patient care, and strong	828	
784	unit grouping also indicated non-market logics as		networks of communication within the organization.	829	
785	being important ethical criteria for the change.		As one of the middle-level managers commented:	830	
786	“Community input” (nurse manager) and “social				
787	justice policy” (middle-level manager) are illustrations		You don’t do it by saying look I’m not here to make	831	
788	of the non-market-based institutional logics that per-		your coffee, you do it by building trust and all sort of	832	
789	meated the thinking of this unit grouping in impacting		other things...So the nurses have to be reasonably	833	
790	their feelings toward the change.		flexible and strong and the physicians have to be fairly	834	
791	An interesting aspect of the interviews with the		accepting of the nursing role and accept them as	835	
792	implementers was their repeated mention of the		partners in the practice.	836	
793	conflict that occurred between physicians and nur-			837	
794	ses. A middle-level manager explains this tension in		Their mental scripts dictate that such change can be	838	
795	the following manner:		implemented successfully, only if the members of the	839	
			organization trusted one another. They were at pains	840	
796	There’s always tension between the nurses and the		to express their exasperation with the difficulties of the	841	
797	doctors. It’s, I don’t know whether it’s when they go		process of change. The references to “more com-	842	
798	to school they teach them to do that...the doctors		munication is going to be needed” (a middle-level	843	
799	perceive the nurses as some, you know, they’re (there)		manager), communication being “fairly regimented,	844	
800	to facilitate them and the patients and to, to assist. And		fairly top-down” (a middle-level manager) and	845	
801	the nurses, again partially because of the union men-		“communication is the key” (a nurse-manager) are	846	
802	talities see themselves as slightly different.		the hallmarks of their interviews. Their beliefs on the	847	
803			appropriate and ethical criteria for a new healthcare	848	
804	This clash in power relationships between nurses		system seem to vary. Recall that the results of Study I	849	
805	and physicians is intrinsic to their thought process		suggest that both middle-level managers and nurse-	850	
806	even without a change process, and it gets accen-		managers are most influenced by the attribute <i>ability</i> in	851	
807	tuated in times of change. In this case, the physicians		only 50% of the judgments, as opposed to 90% of	852	
808	seek to maximize their status and these change ini-		senior managers, and 66.67% of physicians. However,	853	
809	tiatives give them greater authority in the new sys-		33.34% judgments on nurse-managers and 27.78% on	854	
810	tem. They are therefore inclined to trust the system.		middle-level managers attribute <i>benevolence</i> as being	855	
811	The nurses on the other hand, feel threatened by the		the key trust factor. Overall, this balance between	856	
812	new authority made available to the physicians, as it		<i>managerial or corporate logics</i> and <i>logics of empathy and</i>	857	
813	would imply some of them working under the		<i>benevolence</i> in the middle-level managers and nurse-	858	
814	physicians in the clinic. They are therefore prone to		managers is consistent with the findings of trust that	859	
815	resist this move as it undermines their status. There		were revealed in Study I.	860	
816	were a significant number of statements expressing				
817	distrust in one or the other professional affiliations		<i>Change followers (nurses and support staff)</i>	861	
818	with one of the managers referring to nurses as being				
819	“control freaks” and as a group who are “not always		The unit grouping views the change process through	862	
820	taught to be critical thinkers.”		a non-market-based institutional logic. They use	863	
			impression management techniques and make	864	

865 consistent references to the ethicality of the new
 866 logics by arguing that these new logics may have
 867 detrimental impacts on patient-care. They express
 868 apprehension on whether the radical change will best
 869 serve the patients, or was it a conspiracy to usher
 870 market-based reforms. The content analysis of the
 871 interview transcripts by the three coders revealed
 872 how the nurses and support staff regarded the
 873 benevolence aspect of trust as most important. They
 874 need to know that the change leaders are not out to
 875 just cut costs, but also to benefit the system.

876 Nurses saw themselves as “the advocates for the
 877 people,” and were driven by feelings of empathy and
 878 benevolence. To them the key stated issue is ensuring
 879 that the quality of care and upholding the ethos of the
 880 Canada Health Act are fundamental to any initiatives,
 881 but they do not perceive this happening. The
 882 healthcare initiatives being taken in Canada to them
 883 were inappropriate, as these were dictated primarily
 884 by economics. Taking a dig at the concept of
 885 “Wellness Model,” one of them suggested that the
 886 drive for reducing hospital admissions might reduce
 887 the hospital expenses, but that was not a valid criterion
 888 for evaluating the wellness of the population. Their
 889 distrust in the system therefore stemmed from their
 890 belief that market-based logics, though inappropriate
 891 in the context of Canadian healthcare, were the
 892 driving force behind these changes. As such, they did
 893 not believe that the government was acting in the best
 894 interests of the consumers. Overall, the dynamics of
 895 trust and appropriate behavior in the context of
 896 healthcare were violated and can be understood by
 897 this statement made by a nurse:

898 And it would be nice you know if you had the con-
 899 fidence that this project was to complement, to actu-
 900 ally do what they are willing to do to improve the
 901 delivery of care. But I don’t think that this is the
 902 ultimate goal here.
 903

904 Such mistrust expressed by the nurses was a result
 905 of a violation of their norms of appropriate behavior,
 906 which strongly centered on the values of kindness,
 907 tenderness, and concern for the patients. Support
 908 staff members echoed similar sentiments on the new
 909 changes. They feared that market logics of healthcare
 910 were a gradual and silent conspiracy that was moving
 911 the system toward privatization of health services.
 912 These fears of privatization through a “two-tier”

healthcare were inappropriate according to them. 913
 Remarkd a support staff member: 914

If you have the money you can buy your way in, or, 915
 like the politicians were doing, if you have the right 916
 connections you can get your uncle seen way ahead of. 917
 That’s life, but I don’t like that idea that the little 918
 people might kind of get left over with the idea the 919
 ones that can will, and those that can’t...(won’t). 920

This mistrust in the government as expressed by a 921
 member of the support staff shows her apprehension 922
 that a two-tier healthcare system was on the anvil. 923
 The government according to her was not acting in 924
 the best interests of the “little people” and was 925
 violating her norms of appropriate behavior. The 926
 norms of ethically appropriate behavior for her were 927
 non-market logics. A person from the nursing fra- 928
 ternity expressed concerns about the “ulterior 929
 motives of the government” and another suggested, 930
 “the government of ...was trying to get out of the 931
 business of healthcare.” The words used for the 932
 project by nursing staff and the support staff revolved 933
 around their mistrust using terms such as “hidden 934
 agenda,” “a money saving issue,” and another 935
 expressing apprehension as she was “suspicious of 936
 some of the changes that are being made.” 937
 938

In summary, we found that both trust and institu- 939
 tional logics emerge as important organizing principles 940
 in times of institutionally driven radical change. While 941
 institutional logics drive radical change, professional 942
 groups trusted the initiative to varying degrees. Orga- 943
 nizing principles represent heuristics of interpreting 944
 information and subsequently selecting behaviors 945
 (McEvily et al., 2003). Institutional logics serve as 946
 conceptual schemas that guide the institutionally dri- 947
 ven radical change. Organizational members interpret 948
 these logics and are able to identify a shift from a 949
 non-market to market logics. While the institutional 950
 entrepreneurs subscribe to such market logics, the 951
 change followers believe that the appropriate inter- 952
 pretation of healthcare should be based on non-market 953
 dynamics. The presence of two conflicting opinions 954
 on what constitutes appropriate institutional logics – 955
 market-based or quality based – creates uncertainty and 956
 political contests. In addition, trust as an organizing 957
 principle interacts with these logics and influences 958
 individual behavior. Actors use a variety of accounts 959
 and framing techniques so as to direct attention away 960

961 from political ramifications of these change initiatives
 962 on their professional roles and instead draw attention to
 963 appropriateness of the new logics.

964 Discussion and conclusions

965 Our analysis of an institutionally driven radical
 966 institutional change in a pioneering rural healthcare
 967 organization revealed that while institutional logics
 968 may attempt to drive radical change, actors' per-
 969 ceptions of the ethical appropriateness of institu-
 970 tional logics determine their support for the change
 971 initiative. Moreover, there appear to be differences
 972 in the perception of institutional logics since they
 973 have not been taken-for-granted as yet. We also find
 974 that support of actors is also affected by the trust
 975 placed in their organizational champions to behave
 976 in a manner that is consistent with the aims of the
 977 initiative. Thus, we show that pioneering organiza-
 978 tions face the burden of credibility since new insti-
 979 tutional logics have no legitimate precedent.

980 The first implication of the study is for the liter-
 981 ature of institutional logics to be more cognizant of
 982 the active role played by actors in evaluating these
 983 logics for their ethical appropriateness within pio-
 984 neering organizations. While we find that the
 985 change is being institutionally driven from a non-
 986 market to a market-based logic on account of reg-
 987 ulatory pressures from the government (DiMaggio
 988 and Powell, 1983; Dobbin and Dowd, 1997), we
 989 conclude that institutional logics in themselves are
 990 insufficient, more so in pioneering organizations.
 991 While senior managers and physicians firmly believe
 992 that an integrated healthcare service delivery system
 993 will not only be better for the patient but also be
 994 respectful to the taxpayer, the nurses, and support
 995 staff question the ethical appropriateness of market-
 996 driven reforms, concerned that it will lead to a less
 997 responsive healthcare system. From a practical
 998 standpoint, the senior management has to perform
 999 an important rhetorical task in persuading members
 1000 on the ethicality and normative appropriateness of
 1001 the change initiative due to the lack of precedent.
 1002 Our findings also call for a return to old institutional
 1003 theory's focus on contests and conflicts that occur
 1004 within organizations (e.g., Greenwood and Hinings,
 1005 1996; Selznick, 1948, 1957) albeit with a broader

view of conflicts that also accommodate perceptions
 of ethical appropriateness.

Second, we recommend an understanding of
 microprocesses of institutionally driven radical change
 through the lens of organizing principles, which serve
 as heuristics to guide action. Specifically, we advo-
 cated a role for both institutional logics and trust as
 organizing principles in studies of radical institutional
 change. We noticed that the institutional entrepre-
 neurs and the change followers could perceive moves
 toward a new institutional logic based on market-
 based principles, and considered these changes as
 ethically appropriate to differing degrees. We also
 noticed differences in the attributes of trust and by
 consequence, the amount of trust the various orga-
 nizational members had in the change initiative. The
 institutional entrepreneurs supported the change ini-
 tiative as they believed that the new market-based
 logics will lead to a better healthcare system. In con-
 trast, the perceived unethicity of the market-based
 logics in the minds of the change followers creates
 resentment. This resentment manifests itself in the
 37.5% and 28.57% judgments of the interviews of the
 nurses and support staff, suggesting that the *integrity*
 dynamics of trust were important to them, but were
 perceived as lacking. They suspected that the stated
 and implied objectives for change were different and
 were therefore not inclined to support these efforts.

Third, we must be careful not to draw a linear
 relationship between institutional logics and trust.
 Although, the acceptance of an institutional logic
 might positively influence trust, this axiomatic rela-
 tionship need not hold true always, if such logics
 violates the status or interests of an individual within
 an organization. This was clearly evidenced in the
 interviews of the nurses, some of who saw integra-
 tive services as beneficial to the client but resisted the
 change because they interpreted a lower status under
 the new system. We argue that such contradictions
 between organizing principles frequently occur in an
 organizational life. When these do occur, actors
 carefully try to use impression management tech-
 niques. While the institutional entrepreneurs justi-
 fied the ethical appropriateness of these new logics
 by focusing on how the new system would better
 meet prior organizational objectives, the change
 followers argued that the change was driven by
 logics that were inappropriate as they were based on
 economic principles.

1055 The overall conclusion of the article is that new
 1056 institutional logics do not simply get adopted with-
 1057 out negotiation. Rather, they are challenged, con-
 1058 tested, entrepreneured, and modified within the
 1059 confines of an organization (Ranson et al., 1980;
 1060 Reay and Hinings, 2005). In addition to the per-
 1061 ceived ethical appropriateness of new logics, the
 1062 champions should inspire trust in the eyes of the
 1063 members. If trust exists, then it has an additive effect
 1064 on the success of new logics. Else, both interact and
 1065 co-determine the direction of change.

1066 **Note**

1067 ¹ Note that government officials (who were not inter-
 1068 viewed) are considered at the top of the change hierarchy.
 1069 Physicians and top managers regard government officials as
 1070 the change agents to be trusted.
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