

Ph.D. thesis

No. 2010/10

ISBN: 972-82-405-0227-0

Dual and unitary leadership: Managing ambiguity in pluralistic organizations

**BY
HILDE FJELLVÆR**

I dedicate this dissertation to my father Gunnar Fjellvær, who only saw the beginning of my long journey, and who would have been so proud.

Abstract

This thesis is about different leadership models in pluralistic organizations such as hospitals, universities, cultural organizations and newspapers, the kind of competing logics leaders meet in such organizations, and how they manage ambiguity due to competing logics.

The findings are based on in-depth interviews with 63 leaders in 27 organizations. Respondents came from hospitals, colleges and universities, museums, orchestras, theaters and newspapers.

In the first part of the study I investigate the types of leadership models that exist across various pluralistic contexts, and find that in addition to unitary and dual models, a variety of hybrid executive role constellations exist.

Pluralistic organizations are characterized by multiple domains and diverse goals. The diversity in goals originates in multiple logics making a profound influence on organizational life. In the second part of the study I investigate similarities and differences in logics within and across different contexts. I find that five logics commonly characterize these organizations. They are profession, mission, bureaucratic, resource and business logics. Associated with the overall logics are beliefs about appropriate control mechanisms. I identify three governance logics: command and control, accountability, and autonomy.

Multiple logics often co-exist and frequently compete. Although their expression varies within contexts I found four dominating, general types of competing logics. These are: profession logics, mission logics, mission versus bureaucratic logic, and mission versus money logics.

In the last part of the study I investigate what mechanisms organizations and leaders use to manage tension due to competing logics. My findings suggest that three main mechanisms are mobilized to manage the effects of competing logics. The first approach is to rely on structural separation or structural integration of domains representing various logics. Dual leadership is a form of structural separation, and unitary leadership is a form of structural integration. Leaders can also adopt different modes of integrating competing logics such as following a dominant logic, balancing between logics, or cycling between logics. Finally, leaders can adopt a range of relational, structural and cognitive practices to manage the effects of competing logics.

In the last part of the study I show how the various types of executive role constellations differ in the approaches used to manage the effects of competing logics and discuss the implications of this.

Acknowledgements

I never doubted this day would come, but often despaired over time passing and new obstacles, mostly of my own creation. However, the advantage of a long time frame is the chance to meet and work with different people. In their own way each contributed towards this dissertation. Foremost among them is Arent Greve. He has been a constant source of sound academic advice and inspiration. Always supportive both over academic as well as personal challenges. Never doubting that we would get there and with good results. Inger Stensaker and Ann Langley have been equally valuable. Inger knows my ideas almost better than I do, is always able to see how things fit in and draw the links between parts. Ann always cuts right to the core of things and often leaves me awed with her ability to see the weakest point and suggest possibilities for improvement. I especially thank her for all the work, encouragement and practical help she provided for my stay at HEC Montreal. From every committee meeting I walked away with words of encouragement and work that clearly needed to be done. Perhaps other doctoral candidates have dissertation committees like mine, but they don't come any better. I am deeply grateful for your willingness to share academic excellence as well as your friendship.

This dissertation would not be possible without the large group of leaders who took time out of their busy schedules to talk to me. I came away from every meeting impressed by their competence and dedication, thinking how interesting jobs people have. I thank each and every one.

The academic and social environment at the Department of Strategy and Management at NHH has provided a good working environment to continuously return to. Thank you to Joyce Falkenberg for encouraging me to embark on this process. With the passing years in the HAS and next in the PhD program I am now probably on my fourth generation of PhD students. I thank the first group of Anne Cathrin Haueng, Inger Beate Pettersen, Irene Nygårdsvik and Kristijane Cook Bulukin and of course Inger for being there my only full-time year in Bergen. I have enjoyed lunches and talks with Karen Modesta Olsen, Solfrid Mykland, Nina Iversen, Siv Skard and Christine Skjælaaen in the second half. You have followed my recurring frustrations over the actual PhD process with pa-

tience and humor. I also thank Birthe, Tina, Alexander, Jarle and Heidi for your lunch and dinner company. The department administrative staff have provided all the support possible. Thank you May-Britt, Anne, Mariann, Wenche and Paal.

My actual place of work even before the actual PhD project was under way has been at Trondheim Business School (TØH). Many people at TØH has helped and encouraged me along the way. I especially want to thank Lars Fallan for his constant support and encouragement. Thank you Mona Vanvikmyr for your friendship and support, and for sharing CISV with me. Thank you Espen Gressetvold and Morten Kringstad for being who you are. Thank you Kari Nyland for being such fun and for including me in your project. It has been good to work and discuss with people like Roar, Trond, Synnøve, Harry Arne, Frode, Tina, Grete and others. Thank you Magnus for helping out with tables. Many great students provided ample opportunity to remind me why we do research and teach about it.

A shining period in the dissertation process was my research stay in Canada. For the whole family the fact that we are Montreal fans for the rest of our lives is not only due to that great city's qualities, but also due to all the wonderful people we met. Thank you to Florian Kappler for sharing many lunches and life in the "bunker-office." Russ Frälich and Charlotte Cloutier - I look forward to keeping in touch with you. I am excited about the work and friendship with dual leadership colleague Wendy Reid.

Being me I could not hold back much on volunteer activities throughout this process. Thank you to all CISV friends for your enthusiasm, effort and patience. A very special thank you goes to Grethe Losnegaard who has provided a home away from home for nearly a decade. I will miss staying with you, but in the future perhaps we can enjoy Bergen more. Thank you to all my friends for the diversions you created. Kasia, Alicja and Abi made everyday life so much easier.

In more ways than I can tell my family has been important. Thank you to my sister Line for her encouragement, and brother-in-law Aksel for many discussions and inside information on academic life. I thank my mother Kari for all her help, but most especially for her active follow up of the girls and their numerous activities when both parents were out of town. Everyone should have a mother like you!

Thank you to my beautiful daughters Siri and Ida for your encouragement, your flexibility when things don't always go as planned and for being you. Finally, to Erik, whose faith in me never wavered, who made sure I took time off to keep healthy, who made sure we did new things and had so much fun. Thank you.

Table of contents

Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Findings	4
Outline	7
Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership: Literature Review	9
Dual Leadership: What, why and how	9
What is already known about dual leadership?	11
Dual leadership	12
Shared leadership	13
Distributed leadership	15
Co-leadership	16
Collective leadership	17
Top management teams	18
Discussion of dual leadership	19
Multiple goals and multiple domains	22
Competing logics	23
Managing the effects of competing logics	26
Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods	31
Introduction	31
Research Design	31
Research strategy	32
Sampling strategy	33
Levels and units of analysis	35
Data collection	38
Data analysis	40
Software	41
Process of data analysis	41
Methodological strengths and weaknesses	52
Objectivity	53
Internal validity	53
External validity	54
Reliability	55

Conclusion	56
Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership	57
Dimensions describing executive role constellations	57
Unitary leadership: One leader, one voice	60
Dual leadership: Two leaders, two voices	62
Hybrid executive role constellations: A variety of voices	65
Summary and Conclusions	71
Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics	75
Purpose logics	77
Profession logic: Who are we?	77
Mission logic: What do we do?	82
Bureaucratic logic: Who should act, and how	88
Resource logic: How to spend	90
Business logic: With an aim to gain	93
Purpose logics discussion	96
Governance logics	99
Command and Control	101
Autonomy logic	103
Accountability logic	105
Discussion and Conclusion	106
Chapter 6: Competing Logics	111
Types of competing logic	111
Profession versus profession logic	112
Mission versus mission logic	114
Mission versus bureaucratic logic	114
Mission versus money logics	115
Competing logics in pluralistic contexts	117
Competing logics in hospitals	117
Competing logics in educational organizations	123
Competing logics in cultural organizations	129
Competing logics in newspapers	135
Competing logics discussion	138
Profession-Profession	138
Mission-Mission	140
Mission-Bureaucratic	141
Mission-Money	143

Conclusions	144
Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics	147
Structural solutions	148
Modes of integrating logics	151
Dominant mode of integrating logics	152
Balancing mode of integrating logics	155
Cycling mode of integrating logics	157
Configurations of integrating logics	161
Practical approaches	164
Relational approaches	166
Structural approach	171
Cognitive approach	175
When are the different practices used?	183
Managing competing logics under different leadership structures	186
Unitary leadership	187
Dual leadership	189
Conclusion	191
Chapter 8: Conclusions	193
Contributions and Theoretical Implications	193
Contributions	193
Theoretical Implications	195
Limitations and Further Research	198
Practical Implications	202
Conclusion	204
Appendix 3.1 Case selection process	215
Appendix 3.2: Interview guides revised	216
Appendix 3.3: Interview schedule and mode of contact	219
Appendix 3.4 Parts of chart used to structure initial analysis	221
Appendix 3.5: Example of initial case report	222
Appendix 4.1: Summary constellation analysis	226
Appendix 5.1: Examples of profession logic expressions	237
Appendix 7.1: Examples of dominant mode of integration	239
Appendix 7.2: Examples of balancing mode of integration	241

Figures

Figure 1.1:	Overview of contents	8
Figure 3.1:	Cyclical data analysis	46
Figure 4.1:	Unitary executive role constellation	62
Figure 4.2:	Dual executive role constellation	64
Figure 4.3:	Hybrid executive role constellations	69
Figure 5.1:	Purpose and governance logics	76

Tables

Table 2.1:	Dual leadership literature	21
Table 2.2:	Coping mechanisms	29
Table 3.1:	Dimensions to include for case pool	34
Table 3.2:	Units and levels of analysis	37
Table 3.3:	Phases of analysis	43
Table 3.4:	Developing logics	48
Table 3.5:	Examples of competing logics in one context	50
Table 4.1:	Types of executive role constellations in pluralistic contexts	60
Table 4.2:	Hybrid executive role constellations	67
Table 5.1:	Indicators of profession logic across contexts	79
Table 5.2:	Mission logic: Expressions across contexts	83
Table 5.3:	Indicators of mission logic across contexts	87
Table 5.4:	Indicators of bureaucratic logic across contexts	89
Table 5.5:	Indicators of resource logic across contexts	92
Table 5.6:	Indicators of business logic across contexts	94
Table 5.7:	Purpose logics across contexts	98
Table 5.8:	Governance logics across contexts	100
Table 5.9:	Relationship between purpose and governance logics	108
Table 6.1:	Types of competing logics and their contexts	113
Table 6.2:	Key words of competing logics in different contexts	117
Table 7.1:	Dominant mode of integrating logics	153
Table 7.2:	Cycling mode of integrating competing logics illustration	159
Table 7.3:	Distribution of mode of integration in unitary and unitary hybrid constellations	161
Table 7.4:	Dual and dual hybrid configurations of modes of integration	164

Table 7.5:	Summary of practical approaches	165
Table 7.6:	Relational approaches to managing competing logics	167
Table 7.7:	Structural approaches to managing competing logics	171
Table 7.8:	Cognitive approaches to managing competing logics	176
Table 7.9:	Linking practices to types of competing logics	184
Table 7.10a:	Distribution mode of integration and practices unitary and unitary hybrid constellations	188
Table 7.10b:	Distribution mode of integration and practices dual and dual hybrid constellations	190

Chapter 1: Introduction

In this study I explore multiple executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations. Pluralistic organizations are characterized by multiple domains and groups encompassing “multiple objectives, diffuse power and knowledge-based work processes” (Denis et al., 2007). I am interested in dual and unitary leadership phenomena and how multiple understandings of purpose influence organizational life. Hospitals, orchestras and newspapers are examples of organizations in which different executives share power. Nurses, doctors and administrators in hospitals and curators and administrators in museums are examples of groups whose view on organizational purpose differs. In theaters actors focus on artistic performance and the audience’s experience whereas sales representatives are concerned with the ability of performances to generate income. One does not have to be an organization scholar to know that different groups represent different ways of thinking and that different groups represent different goals. The challenges increase when multiple groups with a variety of goals and interpretations exist within one organization. It is not so clear what organizations and their leaders do to manage the multiple realities under which various groups and individuals operate. Different interpretations of an organization’s goals and tasks represent inherent ambiguities that leaders need to address.

Some organizations face the situation with multiple equally mandated executives, while others rely on a unitary executive. My aim is to find out how these inherent ambiguities are managed under different management structures. If the primary purpose of a college is seen as research by one coalition, as teaching by another and as regional development by a third, then tension will result. I intend to map out sources of tension within and across pluralistic environments and determine how such tension is managed under unitary and dual leadership.

A longstanding interest in dual leadership lies behind this study. Dual leadership exists when two leaders of equal rank divide the top management position and functions between them so that each is responsible for and held accountable for clearly allocated domains within the organization. In Norway such executive role constellations are common in universities, hospitals, theaters and newspapers. As early as 1965 Hodgson, Levinson and Zalznik introduced the concept of multiple executive role constellation, understood as a management structure of multiple actors with a division of roles between them. However, despite the presence of dual structures in many organizations, unitary management is usually assumed to be the natural form of management by researchers and practitioners alike (Locke, 2003). Accordingly, several government reforms over the past two

decades have induced a change from dual to unitary leadership in many Norwegian organizations. Public debate often assumes that unitary leadership is more efficient than dual leadership. Yet little research has been done to test this assumption. In addition, formal structural changes are not necessarily adopted in the form envisaged by decision-makers (Denis et al., 2000). Consequently a good starting point for this study is to investigate what kinds of executive constellations are used in pluralistic organizations and whether they are restricted to the prescribed forms.

What does the literature have to say about such role constellations? The research on dual leadership is fragmented. Most of the literature understands dual leadership as one person sharing the position of CEO and Chairman of the Board, not as two persons equally mandated to fill the top executive positions. Studies on shared leadership, distributed leadership, top management teams and, especially, co-leadership and collective leadership all shed some light on the phenomenon. Hodgson, Levinson and Zalznik's (1965) understanding of the executive role constellation concept is a useful starting point for investigating variations in management structures. Yet no recent researchers, with the notable exception of Gronn (1999), Alvarez and Svejenova (2005), and Reid (2006), go to any length in describing mandated dual leadership. In addition, in my quest to understand dual leadership, I found no empirical studies comparing different executive role constellations and their similarities and differences in pluralistic contexts.

Pluralistic organizations are characterized by multiple goals underpinned by a variety of logics. Logics can be understood as the basis upon which an individual's goals, opinions, beliefs and actions are justified (Friedland & Alford, 1991; Townley, 1999). Organizations such as universities, theaters and hospitals face multiple co-existing logics, often leading to ambiguous goals and—when logics compete—giving rise to tension. Examples are aesthetic and commercial logic and market and editorial logics (Glynn, 2000; Voss et al., 2000; Thornton, 2002). Several studies report the presence of competing logics in one type of organization (Thornton & Ocasio, 1999; Glynn & Lounsbury, 2005), but few studies are conducted across multiple pluralistic contexts. The disadvantage of focusing on a single context is that challenges are seen as unique to that environment. For example, a study of how competing editorial and market logics influence the publishing industry provides insight into the antecedents and influence of competing logics in this industry (Thornton & Ocasio, 1999). However, comparing the publishing industry with other pluralistic environments (Thornton et al., 2005)

Chapter 1: Introduction

adds to our insight on how competing logics influence organizational life in general. Studying a range of pluralistic contexts gives one an opportunity to contrast and compare important sources of ambiguity within and across contexts. The presence of competing logics in pluralistic contexts offers a unique opportunity to compare and contrast the workings of a variety of executive role constellations. Simultaneously, multiple executive role constellations phenomena are well suited to uncover how competing logics influence pluralistic contexts. Thus the next question this thesis addresses is: What kind of competing logics exist in pluralistic organizations? Some examples are research versus teaching in education, care versus cure versus resources in hospitals, and commercial success versus public voice in newspapers.

A setting of multiple executive role constellations further presents a unique opportunity to study how tensions due to competing logics can be managed under different types of constellations. This will shed light on similarities and differences of different executive role constellations and contribute to our understanding of competing logics. An additional purpose of this study, then, is to determine how ambiguities and tensions arising from multiple goals are managed under multiple executive role constellations. I will examine, for example, how dual and unitary leadership represent different structural solutions what mode of integration and what kind of daily practices leaders in different constellations use.

Despite a belief in the hierarchical solution of unitary leadership or in the structural separation reflected in dual leadership, no studies have looked at how competing logics are managed under different executive role constellations. There has been little systematic research on how organizations manage ambiguity due to competing logics. Three types of mechanisms have been suggested. Westerman et al. (2006), for example, argue that organizations can rely on hierarchy or structural separation to manage tension and ambiguity resulting from competing logics. According to Thacher and Rein (2004), competing logics can be addressed through different modes of integrating logics. Other authors (Le Theule & Fronda, 2005) assert that various socialization strategies can alleviate tension due to competing logics. The final aim of this study is to investigate how tensions due to underlying competing logics are managed under dual, unitary or hybrid executive role constellations.

Thus I ask three research questions:

RQ 1: What multiple executive role constellations exist in pluralistic organizations?

RQ 2: What kinds of competing logics must be managed in pluralistic organizations?

RQ 3: How are ambiguities resulting from competing logics managed under different executive role constellations?

I designed a qualitative study to address the research questions. A total of 63 leaders in 27 organizations consented to be interviewed in depth. To capture the variety in executive role constellations, I included a range of organizations that fit the description of pluralistic. These organizations also shared the characteristic of distinct professional and administrative domains, which represents a “classical” dual role constellation, with both a professional and an administrative leader. Given the recent shift towards unitary constellations in many organizations, I expected to be able to capture a variety of adopted constellations. Organizations were drawn from a sample of organizations of a particular size in the cultural sector, the education sector, newspapers and hospitals.

Findings

This study contributes to the research literature in several ways. The first important contribution is a description of various executive role constellations used in pluralistic contexts. Although public debate has focused on the choice between unitary and dual executive role constellations, this study finds that constellations range from purely unitary to purely dual, with hybrid forms in between.

Next, the study identifies a multiplicity of logics similarly guiding organizational beliefs and actions across pluralistic contexts. Traces of many logics are found, but five main types of logic are identified across contexts. Profession, mission, bureaucratic, resource and business logics exist in all of the pluralistic contexts. For purposes of analysis, these can be described as purpose logics, as they all indicate a core purpose for organizational beliefs and actions. Attached to these—and significant in themselves—are three types of governance logic. Command and control, accountability, and autonomy logics represent beliefs about the core value upon which governance systems should be based.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Within hospitals, colleges, orchestras and newspapers, the identified logics co-exist and sometimes compete. Ambiguity and tension are often the result. For each organizational context, I describe how pairs of co-existing logics are competing. In hospitals, tension can be felt over patients' rights and resource constraints. Educational organizations experience ambiguity when a focus on research clashes with a focus on teaching, while orchestras can have difficulty finding a balance between artistic fulfillment and commercial success.

The expression and degree of tension due to competing logics varies, yet four clear types of competing logics are identified across contexts: competing profession logics, competing mission logics, mission versus bureaucratic logics, and mission versus money logics. Competing profession logics exist when multiple professions with their embedded logics co-exist and tension arises over jurisdiction, the appropriate leader for a position, and where and by whom decisions should be made. Competing mission logics exist when organizational actors do not agree on the core organizational purpose. For example, some may believe in an internally directed and others in an externally directed purpose, such as aesthetics versus entertainment or exhibition versus preservation of a collection. Competition between mission and bureaucratic logics occurs when one group sees core value in systems, routines and structures in themselves and another group sees the core purpose as what one is trying to achieve. Systems that are perceived as not directly supporting the aim are invariably seen as constraints. Ambiguity can arise over money as a constraint on the achievement of the core purpose. It can also arise due to conflict over whether the core purpose is commercial success or a mission such as patient care. This would be the case for competing mission versus money logics.

Finally, although beliefs about appropriate governance mechanisms are attributes of logics, they are also independent sources of tension and ambiguity. Consider, for example, organizational members accustomed to professional autonomy as a basic governance mechanism being subject to a hierarchical command and control governance mechanism. They may agree to different understandings with respect to purpose, but they will not easily adapt to a bureaucratic "report and obey" control system.

The fourth part of this study is an investigation of how different types of competing logics are managed and of any differences that may exist between types of executive role constellations. Three approaches are used to manage competing logics. The first is to rely on structural solutions. Organizations choose between

structural integration, such as unitary leadership, and structural separation, such as dual leadership. The second approach is to adopt one of the various modes of integrating logics. Leaders can adopt a dominant logic, which is usually the logic followed by their own coalition. They can balance between logics by taking a range of logics into consideration. Finally, a small number of leaders cycle between logics, alternating from one to the other. The last mechanism available for managing the effects of competing logics is to rely on various day-to-day practices. Leaders adopt a range of practices that can be classified as relational, structural or cognitive. Relational approaches are based on establishing and developing relationships between key actors from different coalitions. In structural approaches, leaders draw on individuals and groups from other parts of the formal structure in idea-generating and decision-making processes. Cognitive approaches rely on increasing or changing a member's understanding and interpretation of his or her own area of expertise as well as those of other coalitions. Under these categories I identify 10 different practices. Bridging, teaming and confrontation are relational practices. Abdicating and participating are structural practices. Familiarizing, confronting ideas, competence-building, probing and re-defining are cognitive practices.

The three identified mechanisms for managing the effects of competing logics are not independent. For the last set of findings in this study, I describe how some approaches are common across executive role constellations—which is a proxy for structural solutions—while others are specific to a particular structural solution. I indicate which kinds of approaches are most frequently used to manage different types of competing logics under different executive role constellations. Under dual leadership, for example, leaders who adopt a balancing mode of integrating logics rely on one relational and one structural practice to manage the effect of competing logics. On the other hand, unitary leaders from non-dominant coalitions, unlike those from dominant coalitions, tend to adopt a balancing mode of integrating logics and to rely on a range of cognitive practices in addition to relational and structural practices.

Outline

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2 I introduce key concepts and relevant streams of literature. I first examine the literature on dual leadership and related concepts. I then proceed to the literature on the logics behind beliefs and actions in organizations.

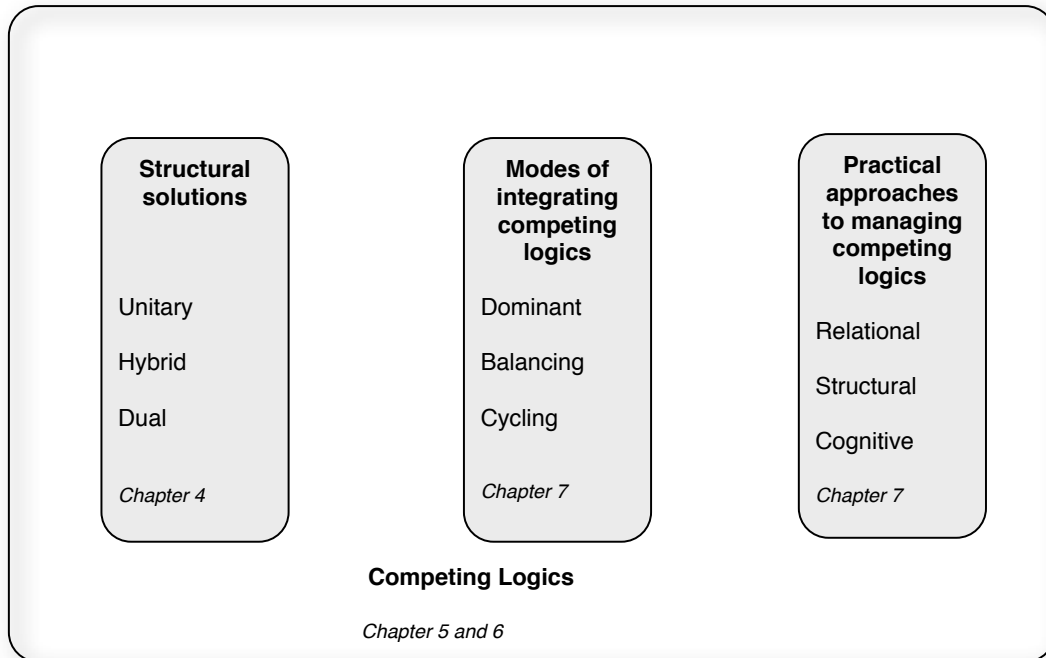
In Chapter 3 I present the research design and methodology for the study.

The analysis and findings are presented in Chapters 4 to 8. Figure 1.1, page 8 outlines the main findings of the study and where the different parts are discussed. Chapter 4 describes the main executive role constellations found, focusing on differences and similarities with respect to unitary, dual and hybrid structures, through dimensions such as reporting structure, degree of function separation, and degree and type of interaction between leaders. I pay particular attention to different hybrid forms originating from purely unitary or dual structures. In Chapter 5 I investigate the multiple logics at play across cases. Two types of logic are identified. Purpose logics exist when justification for decisions and actions is based on perceptions of core organizational and professional purposes. Governance logics are beliefs about legitimate and efficient forms of control. I build on this discussion in Chapter 6, first identifying the main tensions that arise because of competing logics in each context and then summarizing these findings and developing four types of competing logics that exist across cases and contexts: competing profession logics, competing mission logics, mission versus bureaucratic logic and mission versus money logics.

In Chapter 7 I tie the range of findings together. Leaders adopt three different modes of integrating competing logics, leading to various configurations of integration under different management structures. A dual leadership constellation where both leaders adopt a balancing mode of integration has a better chance of finding common solutions to ambiguity due to competing logics than a constellation where both leaders adopt a dominant mode of integration. I also investigate practices used by leaders to manage competing logics in their day-to-day work.

Each practice is linked to the type(s) of competing logic(s) it is meant to manage. For example, teaming and familiarizing are used to manage tension due to competing profession logics, while bridging is used to address the tension that results when mission logic meets bureaucratic logic. I sum up this chapter by linking different executive role constellations to configurations of integrating logics and practices used to manage ambiguity due to competing logics.

Figure 1.1: Overview of study



Finally, in Chapter 8 I discuss the implications of the findings for theory and practice, point out methodological weaknesses in the study and identify possibilities for further research.

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership: Literature Review

Dual Leadership: What, why and how

This thesis began with an interest in dual leadership, a management structure in which two leaders of equal standing divide the top management position and functions between them so that each is responsible for different organizational domains. In Norway, dual management structures are common in the field of health and education as well as in newspapers and some cultural organizations such as theaters and orchestras. The main characteristic of dual management organizations is that they are pluralistic, identified by “multiple objectives, diffuse power and knowledge-based work processes” (Denis et al., 2007). Although it is easy enough to find real-life examples of dual leadership, theoretically it is not easy. Scholars have traditionally argued that single or unitary leadership is a prerequisite for effective management (Mintzberg, 1973; Locke, 2003). More recently, however, scholars have contested this view, demonstrating both the existence and the merit of multiple executive leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005; Reid, 2007; Heenan & Bennis, 1999). As far back as 1965, in fact, Hodgson et al. introduced the concept of the multiple executive role constellation, understood as a leadership structure of multiple actors with a division of roles between them, as opposed to the prevailing view of a single leader.

Although executive role constellations has been ever changing and subject to reform in Norwegian hospitals, until recently the multiple constellation had a long and stable history in universities and colleges. Approximately a decade ago the Norwegian government introduced reforms intended to replace dual management structures with unitary ones at all levels in hospitals and at lower levels in universities and colleges. At the same time, discussions in the media and informally within the educational and hospital milieu suggested that, although dual structures had been formally dispensed with, positions had been created or adapted to ensure the continued existence of the functions associated with dual management, albeit under different labels.

It is well known that the actual coordination mechanisms of an organization may differ from those prescribed in its formal structure. Deviations may be the

result of incompatible external norms and what internally is seen as necessary for effective management (Brunsson, 2002). Adaptation can result from not only an inconsistency in external demands or an internal need for efficiency (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). For organizations with pluralistic goals in particular, “rationalized formal structures” (Meyer & Rowan, 1977) may not be appropriate. In such a situation, coordination is not routine and activities do not conform to the prescribed formal structure: A multiplicity of actors and groups may be pursuing a variety of goals (Denis et al., 2001). According to Hinings et al. (1996) a disconnect between official structure and actual division of roles and responsibilities can be the result of inconsistency in the values underlying sets of actions performed by organizational actors. This means that internal characteristics like values and actors’ interpretive schemes also play a role in how an organization functions. For example, Denis et al. (2001) found that specific leadership team constellations continued to exist in the health-care sector although formally the structure had changed. Due to the extreme pluralism of the organization, a dual structure persisted regardless of external factors. This insight, combined with the public debate on the appropriateness of different leadership structures, forms the backdrop for my first research question:

RQ 1: What kind of executive role constellations exist in pluralistic organizations?

In order to study the variation in executive role constellations across a range of pluralistic organizations, I must first see what previous research can tell me about dual leadership. Therefore, different types of studies focusing on multiple executive role constellations make up the first part of this review.

A common factor in organizations characterized by multiple executive role constellations is the existence of multiple goals. In fact, a dual management structure, or any structure, may be a way of coping with the multiple goals and coalitions that characterize hospitals, universities, newspapers and cultural organizations. Moreover, complex organizations feature not only multiple goals but those goals also represent different basic beliefs. In order to understand the differences between unitary and dual management structures, it is useful to look at how different role constellations cope in similar situations. Contexts characterized by multiple or even competing basic beliefs presents such an opportunity. Basic beliefs can otherwise be understood as logics. Logics are the basis upon which an individual’s goals, opinions, beliefs and actions are justified (Friedland

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership

& Alford, 1991; Townley, 1999) To tease out the differences, we might ask whether various executive role constellations manage the effects of competing logics differently. This question requires insight into the kinds of competing logics that exist in pluralistic organizations and, perhaps most importantly, insight into how they manage the effects of competing logics. In the second part of this review, therefore, I turn to the literature on how meaning or logics inform organizational actors. My purpose is to discover what is known about the existence of multiple logics, and in particular what the literature reveals about the management of tensions and ambiguities caused by competing logics.

This examination should provide the insight necessary to address the next two research questions:

RQ 2: What kind of competing logics are faced by managers in pluralistic organizations?

RQ 3: How are ambiguities due to competing logics managed under different executive role constellations?

What is already known about dual leadership?

The overwhelming majority of leadership studies explicitly or implicitly assume a vertical management structure with one leadership position at the top (Yukl, 2002; O'Toole et al., 2002). There are few studies that discuss the existence of other management structures or that question the usefulness of a single role structure. Still, over the last decade there has been increasing interest in pluralistic management structures, especially in terms of different kinds of emergent leadership roles (Pearce & Conger, 2003; O'Toole et al., 2002; Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005).

Although growing in numbers, studies that explicitly or implicitly investigate different types of executive role constellations are found under many headings and there is little consensus on the constructs used or the concepts studied. In one of the first studies to examine multiple leadership, Hodgson et al. (1965) introduced the multiple executive role constellation as a useful construct when focusing on a structure or group involving more than one leader at the top; in unitary management, in contrast, the top position involves a single leader or a single executive role responsible for all domains within the organization. Studies focusing on multiple leaders as opposed to unitary leadership roles alternate between

the constructs of dual, distributed, shared, co-, collective and collaborative forms of leadership. The top management team (TMT) literature addresses leadership in teams as well as investigating multiple role issues. I will now present each of these streams, beginning with the literature using dual leadership as the core construct.

Dual leadership

Based on direct experience with dual management structures and my preparations for this study, I understood dual leadership to be a situation wherein two persons of roughly equal rank divide the executive leadership roles and functions between them. In Norway, the dual leadership construct is frequently used in health care, education and especially the media. Yet the literature on the dual leadership construct is sparse and is not clear on its exact meaning. I identified two different dual leadership concepts. The most common concept of dual leadership is that defined as “different people holding the Chairman of the Board and Chief Executive Officer (CEO) positions” (Fosberg & Rosenberg, 2002). The literature falling under this definition includes studies that treat dual leadership as a mechanism of agency control (Fosberg, 2001; Fosberg & Nelson, 1999; Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994), examine the performance effects of dual leadership (Dahya & Travlos, 2000) and introduce dual leadership while investigating stakeholder beliefs in agency (Fosberg & Rosenberg, 2002). These various studies focus on hierarchical relationships but do not see roles and positions as equally ranked. The contributions focusing on the CEO-versus-Chair constellation thus do not fit the notion of multiple executive role constellations as understood here. Still, although unitary leadership is the basic assumption in these studies, and the leadership pairs are vertically rather than horizontally ranked, the possibility of mandated dual leadership is at least acknowledged.

Apart from those cited above, few authors employ the dual leadership concept at all, and even fewer discuss mandated dual executive role constellations (Reid, 2006). One of those few is deVoogt (2006), who demonstrates the existence of mandated dual leadership. DeVoogt investigates the shift from unitary leadership to a pair of equally mandated leaders—and not within vertical structures—yet, like the authors cited above, he assumes dual leadership to be a mechanism for preventing agency by one of the parties involved instead of focusing on the dyad itself. Stewart's (1991) focus is the Chair-CEO relationship in the health services

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership

field in the United Kingdom, rather than the mandated dual leadership that Reid (2006) discusses. Yet Stewart's study is pertinent to dual management structures, as she observes that common constraints such as financial position bind the two roles together. Further, she points out that both executives have a choice in how they interpret their role. She reports that the dyad's work roles are often complementary in the sense suggested by Hodgson et al. (1965). Stewart also notes that how the relationship of the two executives develops has a bearing on their effectiveness in managing their organization. This is interesting in terms of whether and how single and multiple executive role constellations differ. Almost two decades later, Reid (2006) focuses on mandated dual executive role constellations, particularly the nature of interpersonal relations. She investigates the development of conflict and trust between pairs of leaders to show the effect of multiple executive role constellations on operational functions, leadership attribution and organizational morale. Because she looks specifically at mandated dual leadership role constellations, Reid is one of few authors to acknowledge the existence of mandated equal multiple executive roles and describe some of their effects. The organizations studied are arts organizations of various types, and she shows that, contrary to conventional belief (Mintzberg, 1973), multiple executive role constellations are both common in certain settings and able to address issues connected to multiple goals, albeit differently from how they might be addressed by the single executive role.

CEO-Chair research makes a contribution through its explicit recognition of a dyad of leaders working together, but it leaves no doubt that the relationship is a vertical one. Although the literature assumes that the constellation can help to control agency, it gives no clue as to how this relates to a pluralistic environment; in fact, in such a context dual leadership is seen as a temporary structure. Reid's (2006) study, on the other hand, is based in a pluralistic context and with mandated dual constellations representing different domains. Her focus, however, is on how the relationship within the dyad will affect concrete intra-organizational dimensions, and for that reason she limits her study to one context.

Shared leadership

The largest group of studies on forms of leadership multiplicity are those that fall into the category of shared leadership or distributed leadership. Shared leadership is understood as member participation in decision-making in education

(Conway & Calzi, 1996; Floyd, 1994) or health care (Merkens & Spencer, 1998), or as a means of employee empowerment (Jackson, 2000; Walker, 2001) by having those most affected make decisions on day-to-day matters (McMahon, 1992). Some health-care-related articles specifically promote nurse and patient satisfaction through nurses' participation in day-to-day decision-making (Jackson, 2000). Although the literature on shared leadership focuses on the dissemination of information and the strengths of employee participation (Pearce et al., 2007), the basic assumption is a single executive actively involving his or her subordinates.

Like the literature on dual leadership, that on shared leadership falls into two groups. There are contributions on shared leadership challenging the notion of a single leadership role and the traditional top-down command-and-control system. In their anthology, Pearce and Conger (2003) define shared leadership as a "dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to achievement of group or organizational goals or both" The proponents of this view see leadership as a relational process (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Fletcher & Käufer, 2003) rather than as a specialized role (Yukl, 2002). Other studies investigate issues like team leaders and members sharing the leadership role (Pearce, 2004) or team empowerment (Pearce & Manz, 2005). However, given their focus on participation in decision-making and leadership as a process, these studies are for the most part concerned not with management structures as such but with the processes entailed in emergent leadership. For example, how vision created collectively can influence both team dynamics and performance (Pearce, 2004). Thus most of the shared leadership research is one step removed from analysis of dual management structures. The focus is on emergent rather than mandated executive roles, and there is a clear assumption that shared leadership originates from a unitary leader in a vertical structure. Despite the overwhelming focus on participation and empowerment as key characteristics, some authors do use the shared leadership construct to discuss the formation and functioning of multiple executive roles, as well as when and how such constellations might be advantageous (Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005). In a practice-oriented article, O'Toole et al. (2002) concentrate on a variety of executive role constellations. They present several examples of shared, co-, collective and joint leadership, and set out to identify antecedents to what they call co-leadership. Interestingly, they do include the possibility of multiple mandated leaders (O'Toole et al., 2002).

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership

The main contribution of shared leadership research to the study of dual leadership is that these authors acknowledge the existence as well as the merit of multiple executive role constellations, and they outline several dimensions that might be interesting for the study of dual leadership constellations. The main problem here is that, despite their focus on participation and empowerment, all of the authors except Alvarez and Svejenova (2005) assume a vertical structure with a unitary figure on top. While O'Toole et al. (2002) see the possibility of stable dyads, they do not address the question of shared authority and they implicitly assume the existence of overarching goals or goal agreement.

Distributed leadership

The research on distributed leadership is closely linked to that on shared leadership, and the constructs are sometimes used interchangeably. However, where most authors consider shared leadership as a process, distributed leadership is taken to be multiple roles. Barry (1991), for example, sees leadership as a collection of roles, a situation in which multiple executives assume complementary roles as opposed to sharing tasks. However, like the previous perspective his is one of a structure with emergent and fluctuating leadership roles rather than mandated or explicitly recognized leadership roles. Gronn has published several studies on multiple roles, both in the shared and distributed leadership categories (Gronn, 2002; Day, 2007). In the shared leadership category, O'Toole et al. (2002) point out possible antecedents to shared leadership. Gronn (2002) takes this a step further and presents a taxonomy of distributed leadership. He states that "conventional constructs of leadership have difficulty accommodating changes in division of labor in the workplace, especially new patterns of interdependence and coordination" (Gronn, 2002, p. 423). He recognizes the presence of multiple domains when he sees the technical and social division of labor as a starting point for distributed leadership roles. He proposes to present the different structures along a continuum beginning with "spontaneous collaboration." This is an emergent form of distributed leadership that occurs, for example, when two or three individuals pool their experience to solve a particular problem. The next is "intuitive working relations," in which a close working relationship develops over time. The third is the "institutionalized practice" of co-leadership, which may be designed (mandated) or adapted (emergent). The three forms, represent "successive stages in a process of institutionalization" (Gronn, 2002, p.431).

Distributed leadership takes us one step closer to dual leadership constellations, as these authors acknowledge both the existence and the dynamics of multiple roles. It also shows that it is not simply a question of whether roles are emergent or mandated, but that any study of multiple executive role constellations should consider a range of structures. Finally, this research looks explicitly at the influence of interdependencies in the development of executive role constellations. However, while Gronn (2002) identifies a variety of role constellations, especially in terms of their time span, there are no empirical studies on the different varieties, the importance of context is not addressed and the importance of pluralistic domains is not explicitly discussed.

Co-leadership

If dual leadership is understood as involving two leaders of equal standing, with interlocking roles based on specialization, differentiation and complementarity, the co-leadership concept is a promising one. Heenan and Bennis (1999) were among the first to elaborate on this. They understand co-leadership to be “about truly exceptional deputies—extremely talented and dedicated men and women often more capable than their more highly acclaimed superiors” (Heenan & Bennis, 1999, p. 6). Their focus is in line with that of shared or distributed leadership studies, but they take it a step further, as their unit of analysis is designated positions and people in explicit leadership roles. Theirs is a thorough study of 10 co-leader pairs. The analysis concerns vertical relationships and involvement, and they move the discussion forward by considering stable executive role constellations. Although they do not consider equally mandated constellation Heenan and Bennis (1991) thus appear to position co-leadership somewhere between Gronn’s (2002) intuitive working relations and institutionalized practice.

In addition to his series of studies of shared, distributed and multiple leadership roles (Gronn & Hamilton, 2004), Gronn also presents a historical case study of a leadership couple (1999). This is a case of formal or mandated vertical co-leadership, with tasks and responsibilities delegated between the two leaders. The co-leaders are found to be complementary in style and the success of their role-sharing build on a longstanding relationship and a common value base for their work. Based on this discussion, Gronn points to the need to develop a “spectrum or a template of possible leadership types and their distinguishing criteria against which to more accurately define cases and contexts” (p. 58). He partly answers

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership

the call for such work in a later article (Gronn, 2002). Like Gronn and Heenan and Bennis (1999), Sally (2002) provides a convincing argument for the existence of co-leadership. He compares co-leadership as practiced in ancient Rome with a host of current examples of multiple executive role constellations and defines co-leadership as a “uniquely structured team of two people” (Sally, 2002, p. 85). He explains why co-leaders emerge and what needs to be in place for co-leadership to work.

Alvarez and Svejnova (2005) represent the last significant contribution to the co-leadership literature. They look at different types of management structure, specifically dual and triple constellations. Their purpose is to refute the myth of a single leader and to argue for the existence of multiple executive role constellations (Hodgson et al., 1965) by focusing on “small numbers at the top” (Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005, p. 1). Based on role theory and by studying examples of co-leadership ranging from professional duos to united careers, they develop a framework for different types of role differentiation and role integration. The framework contributes to the development of a spectrum of different leadership types as called for by Gronn (1999).

In terms of magnitude, co-leadership research could be taken to illustrate that “small is beautiful.” Apart from Reid’s (2006) study, it is the stream of research that most closely aligns with the purpose of the present work. Co-leadership research represents mandated or stable multiple executive role constellations, in most cases dual leadership. It suggests frameworks for understanding role differentiation as well as a broad spectrum of existing constellations and documents a variety of structures. What is missing is more systematic research on co-leadership in general and the importance of multiple domains and comparisons across contexts in particular.

Collective leadership

During the checking and cross-referencing of literature on dual leadership and related themes, a set of contributions on collective leadership kept recurring. Denis, Langley and colleagues (1996, 2000, 2001) present a series of important contributions for anyone who wishes to study complex leadership constellations.

As with other contributions, here the key idea relevant for the study of dual leadership is Hodgson et al.’s (1965) notion of a leadership role constellation. In their original work, Hodgson et al. point out that there must be a degree of com-

plementarity between members such that all domains are covered and members of the constellation are allowed to function in their roles relatively independently. Denis, Langley and colleagues find that in a complex environment such as hospitals leadership is exercised in a context of diverging and multiple goals, ambiguous and fluid authority relations, dynamic membership in executive constellations and limited hierarchical power. The effectiveness of the executive role constellation depends on the complementarity of roles and the actors' interpretative schemes. They find that the sources of influence lie in these schemes as well as in the respective internal and external constituencies.

Common to these works is the fact that collective leadership is treated as a contextual element of the health sector, and important issues are the formalization and governance of pluralistic power structures (Denis et al., 2001). The focus is also on who the principal actors are, how they are related to one another, what their sources of legitimacy and power are, and what formal levers they control (Denis et al, 2001, p. 816)—precisely the kind of issues Reid (2006) deals with. Leadership role constellations in hospitals are influenced by their members, by their immediate constituencies and by professional groups as well as external agencies (Denis et al., 2001).

The empirical research on collective leadership confirms the existence of relatively stable multiple executive role constellations, and dual leadership as a phenomenon is explicitly recognized and identified. This research stream points out that members of executive role constellations have to deal with multiple objectives, limited hierarchical power and a high degree of interdependence, and as such is the only stream that explicitly introduces the existence and importance of multiple domains. However, the research is limited to the health-care sector and constellation membership is somewhat dynamic.

Top management teams

The literature on top management teams (TMT) is inspired by the work of Hambrick and Mason (1984). Three central elements of TMTs have been studied: the collective characteristics of team members, structure defined by the roles of the members and the relationships between them, and the nature of interaction among top managers (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Pettigrew, 1992). For dual leadership, however, a mapping or testing of heterogeneity versus homogeneity in itself is not really an issue, as heterogeneity can be seen as a defining charac-

teristic of dual leadership. Accordingly, those contributions to the TMT literature that investigates the effects of diversity on strategic choice (Knight et al., 1999; Boeker, 1997), decision-making (Miller et al., 1998) and performance (West & Schwenk, 1996; Murray, 1989) cannot help us to identify or explain dual leadership phenomena as such. Although there are many contributions investigating group heterogeneity, almost no attention is paid to how the diversity affects complementarities between roles. How diversity in general can positively or negatively affect performance (Milliken & Martins, 1996) or decision-making (Miller et al., 1998) is discussed, but diversity in terms of role division, and the possible overlapping of positions, is not included, nor how the team relates to multiple coalitions representing multiple domains.

Smith et al. (2006) find that when the top executive pair “incorporated different world views, as indicated by differences in functional background and industry experience” (Smith et al., 2006, p. 622) the TMT was associated with strong performance. Mehra et al. (2006) find that teams with certain kinds of decentralized leadership structures are associated with better-performing teams, thus, like much of the TMT literature, refuting the idea of single role executive as an overarching goal. Even when the TMT literature addresses issues related to structure, it often assumes the presence of a clear CEO and his or her team of people and, in addition, a team of more than two. The chief contributions of the TMT literature to the study of dual leadership are a wide variety of studies on multiple executive role constellations and the fact that team composition and dynamics influence a range of organizational issues.

Discussion of dual leadership

To summarize, the literature on dual leadership and related concepts is still fragmented, yet recently several authors have contributed to new insight about multiple role constellations. Many of the contributions take as a starting point the dominating single-role focus of leadership research. Others refer to Hodgson, Levinson and Zaleznik (1965) as among the first to clarify the need to look at executive role constellations from a perspective other than that of the traditional top-down command-and-control management structure (Pearce & Manz, 2005; Yukl, 2002). Table 2.1, page 21 summarizes the different research streams reviewed above. The contributions show that multiple executive role constellations are not uncommon, yet although the existence and importance of multiple roles

is acknowledged, the studies cited are concerned more with leadership-sharing processes than with the actual management structures that are in place. Most of the authors explicitly or implicitly assume that when multiple roles exist they are emergent roles and not mandated by either Board approval or CEO initiation. Notable exceptions are Reid (2005) and Gronn (1999, 2002), who focus specifically on the difference between emergent and mandated leadership roles. The lack of coherence in conceptual understanding of the phenomenon clearly indicates a need for more empirical research on multiple executive role phenomena in general and within as well as across pluralistic contexts in particular.

Gronn's (2002) continuum idea merits further investigation. There is a need for a conceptual framework for analyzing and discussing various executive role constellations. The notion of developing a taxonomy of structures that could help in developing dimensions to categorize different types follows from Gronn's idea of a continuum. Such a typology or framework could guide analysis of different types of executive role constellations. As the different streams of literature concerned with multiple executive role constellations focus on a range of constellations, from temporary to emergent to mandated, any future framework should encompass formal structures as well as adapted and emergent ones.

Alvarez and Svejenova (2005, p. 37) draw on Thompson (1967) in pointing out that "the challenge of managerial work is also one of political accommodation of heterogeneous positions and claims" The point is that the internal pluralism of organizations must somehow be managed. Gronn (1999) suggests that a shared commitment to an "overarching canopy of values ... is an important property of their relationship as a leadership couple" (Gronn, 1999, p. 43). Other authors suggest that the very existence of multiple goals can pave the way for co-leaders in a horizontal relationship (Hodgson et al., 1965; Alvarez et al., 2007). Values are one reason structures and functions deviate (Ranson et al., 1980). Given that dual leadership organizations are characterized by multiple goals and multiple domains, values provide a means for us to understand how single and multiple executive role constellations differ.

Table 2.1: Dual leadership literature

Literature	Contributions	Limitations
Dual leadership <i>Fosberg & Rosenberg (2002)</i> <i>Fosberg (2001)</i> <i>Fosberg & Nelson (1999)</i> <i>Finkelstein & D'Aveni (1994)</i> <i>Dahya & Travlos (2000)</i> <i>Stewart (1991)</i> <i>Reid (2007)</i> <i>De Vogt (2005)</i>	<p>When analyzing explicit mandated dual leadership recognize the importance of a pluralistic context and multiple domains.</p> <p>Common constraints bind roles together and executives have some choice in how they interpret their role.</p> <p>Relationship between leaders is indicated as important.</p>	<p>Most studies focus on vertical relationships and see dual leadership as a mechanism to control for agency.</p> <p>With notable exceptions, the studies do not consider multiple goals and multiple domains.</p>
Shared leadership <i>Conway & Calski (1996)</i> <i>Floyd (1994)</i> <i>Merkens & Spencer (1998)</i> <i>Jackson (2000)</i> <i>Walker (2001)</i> <i>McMahon (1992)</i> <i>Pearce, Conger & Locke (2007)</i> <i>Pearce (2004)</i> <i>Pearce & Manz (2005)</i> <i>Pearce & Ensley (2004)</i> <i>Alvarez & Svejnova (2005)</i> <i>O'Toole, Galbraith & Lawler (2002)</i>	<p>Recognizes the existence and merit of multiple executive roles.</p> <p>One important contribution outlines dimensions for analysis.</p>	<p>One large group of studies considers shared leadership as a leadership process of empowerment originating and functioning within the traditional unitary vertical structure.</p> <p>The studies discuss emergent leadership roles but lack a long-term focus and thus lack understanding of mandated or stable constellations.</p> <p>No focus on pluralistic environments.</p>
Distributed leadership <i>Barry (1991)</i> <i>Gronn (1999, 2002)</i> <i>Day et al. (2004)</i>	<p>Recognizes the existence of and dynamics associated with multiple executive roles.</p> <p>Recognizes the importance of multiple domains.</p> <p>Aware of the existence of a range of executive structures.</p> <p>Presents a typology for classification of a variety of structures.</p>	<p>Lack of empirical studies.</p> <p>No focus on context, and thus does not consider pluralistic environments.</p>
Co-leadership <i>Heenan & Bennis (1999)</i> <i>Gronn (2004)</i> <i>Sally (2002)</i> <i>Alvarez & Svejnova (2005)</i> <i>Hogdson, Levinson & Zaleznik (1965)</i>	<p>Recognizes and discusses mandated or stable executive role constellations.</p> <p>Suggests framework for understanding role constellations.</p> <p>Considers a variety of constellations.</p>	<p>Very few contributions; little empirical research.</p> <p>No consideration of pluralistic environments.</p> <p>No cross-context focus.</p>

Collective leadership <i>Denis, Langley & Cazale (1996)</i> <i>Denis, Langley & Pineault (2000)</i> <i>Denis, Lamothe & Langley (2001)</i>	<p>Confirms the existence of stable multiple executive role constellations.</p> <p>Recognizes the existence of and describes dual leadership.</p> <p>Focuses on the importance of interdependence both between leaders and between domains.</p> <p>Recognizes the importance of ambiguous authority in pluralistic contexts.</p>	<p>Focus on health care; no cross-context research.</p> <p>Stable constellations but these are mostly emergent leadership constellations.</p>
Top Management Team <i>Hambrick & Mason (1984)</i> <i>Pettigrew (1992)</i> <i>Finklestein & Hambrick (1996)</i> <i>Priem (1990)</i> <i>Knight et al. (1999)</i> <i>Boeker (1997)</i> <i>Miller, Burke & Glick (1998)</i> <i>West & Schwenk (1996)</i> <i>Murray (1989)</i> <i>Milliken & Martins (1996)</i> <i>Miller et al. (1998)</i> <i>Smith et al., 2006</i> <i>Mehra et al. (2006)</i>	<p>Demonstrates the effect of team composition and team dynamics on organizational issues.</p>	<p>The majority of studies focus on the effect of team diversity and do not consider the importance of role division or the influence of coalitions.</p>

Multiple goals and multiple domains

The phenomenon of dual leadership can be understood not only as two leaders of roughly equal standing, but also as representing multiple domains—for example, the editor-in-chief and executive director of a newspaper. A consideration of multiple domains in addition to multiple goals points to organizational actors whose very core of reasoning differs. Thus the presence of multiple goals, multiple domains and knowledge-based work (Denis, Langley & Rouleau, 2007) opens up a window of opportunity in terms of investigating the relationship between the variety of executive role constellations and the variety of reasons (Townley, 2008) or meanings (Zilber, 2002) that exist in pluralistic organizations.

Institutionally based values concerning domains, design and performance can be a starting point for the identification and classification of organizational design (Hinings et al., 1996, p. 892). However, Townley (1999) argues that even

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership

though organizational theorists consider the deviations between formal and actual organizational functioning, they rarely consider how the legitimacy upon which these deviations are built is constituted, understood or acted upon. Thus if rationalized myths (Meyer & Rowan, 1977) or inconsistent norms (Brunsson, 2002) influence the adaptation of formal structures, then it is reasonable to look at how values and beliefs guide organizational action. Certainly any analysis of pluralistic contexts should consider the interplay between meanings, actors and actions. The last is understood by Zilber (2002) as practices and structures. Zilber's point is that once an institution is established, "structures and procedures are assumed to go hand in hand with the 'obvious,' uncontested meanings" (Zilber, 2002, p. 235). Meanings or reasons link actors to action; they are what lie behind organizational life. "Social coordination requires the ascertaining of reasons. In order to understand what is being said or done there has to be some understanding of the underlying reasons for action or statement" (Townley, 2008, p. 2). Thus in a situation of multiple goals it makes sense to consider how reason "informs individuals' responses and provides them with a foundation with which to negotiate their organizational experience" (Townley, 2008, p. 3). This will enable an actual understanding of how different management structures vary.

Competing logics

A wide range of researchers have attempted to describe the grounds upon which actors base their decisions and actions (Cloutier, 2009), and there are myriad perspectives on the forces behind individual and organizational reasoning. In one stream of research, the authors base their discussion on a Weber-inspired typology of rationality (Kalberg, 1980; Townley, 2008; Dyck, 1997; Hewison, 2002). In this view, rationality is present when clearly defined and specified goals provide unambiguous criteria for selection among alternatives (Townley, 2008, p. 33). However, this is not a very practical approach, as assumptions about fixed and stable goals translated into stable structures reliant on hierarchical authority does not fit with pluralistic contexts such as those discussed here (Townley, 2008; O'Connell et al., 2005).

Within institutional theory, research has been inspired by the work of DiMaggio and Powell (1991) and, particularly, Friedland and Alford (1991) in their discussion of how institutional logics guide organizational action. Researchers interested in this line of investigation include Thornton and colleagues (1999,

2002, 2005), Lounsbury and colleagues (2002, 2007), and Rao et al. (2003). Friedland and Alford (1991, p.248) define institutional logic as a the material practices and symbolic constructions that constitute the organizing principles in a specific area. These logics, then, represent different beliefs and values about proper mechanisms of coordinated action in organizations. Thus the conventional understanding of institutions as supra-organizational patterns of organizing social life rooted in shared norms is inadequate, as it emphasizes an exterior normative rather than an interior cognitive order (Friedland & Alford, 1991, p. 242). As there are multiple institutional environments, there is no consensus on what structures and policies are appropriate for a particular type of action. Institutional environments are pluralistic and offer multiple sources of what constitutes legitimate practice (Townley, 1999). Townley furthers this argument by stating that within heterogeneous social environments there will be different belief systems supporting different types of social relations, thus permitting issues of legitimacy to be addressed more clearly (Townley, 2002). Thus, in complex organizations such as those discussed in this study, what is assumed to be necessary for well-coordinated action will depend not only on the organization's external demands and how it adapts to them, but also on its internal logics. In their original work, Friedland and Alford (1991, p. 248) propose five higher-order institutional worlds for accumulation and codification of human activity. These are capitalism, the bureaucratic state, democracy, family and religion. Thornton (2004) builds on this work and proposes a framework of six institutional orders: markets, corporations, professions, states, families and religions. For each order she proposes a set of key characteristics, of which economic system, sources of ideology, legitimacy and authority, as well as learning and control mechanisms (among others), can be useful for analysis.

The French sociologists Boltanski and Thévenot (2006) also present a framework for the identification of sets of beliefs and values that influence the possibilities for coordinated action in organizations. Their aim is to provide a tool for identifying the multiple and often conflicting 'rationalities' of individuals and collective actors at play in organizational contexts. Ultimately they identify six worlds: the inspired world, the domestic world, the world of fame, the civic world, the market world and the industrial world. For each of these worlds the authors present a set of attributes to draw out the essence of the underlying beliefs and the nature of relations as well as how these are expressed.

Chapter 2: Introduction to Dual Leadership

Building on the work of Anthony Giddens, Whittington (1992) presents yet another typology of meaning that is similar to the worlds of Boltanski and Thevenot (2006) and to Thornton's (2004) institutional orders. Whittington identifies these as communal, economic, domestic, political and intellectual activity systems and views dominant structures, basic resources, basic rules and organizations as dimensions for identification.

Other researchers have also focused on how organizational actors relate to and shape systems of meaning. Not addressed here are approaches that fall into the categories of frames (Creed et al., 2002; Benford & Snow, 2000; Chreim, 2006;), interpretive schemes (Bartunek, 1984; Mueller et al., 2003), schemas (Labianca et al., 2000) or values (Hinings et al., 1996; Denison et al., 1995; Glynn, 2000). However, these contributions demonstrate the importance that organization theorists ascribe to sources informing organizational life.

Different groups of researchers have sought to explain that within organizational life actors, action and meaning are part of a continuous interplay (Zilber, 2002). Rationality, logic, value and justification are ways to describe and explain how meanings guide organizational practices and structures. The conceptualization in the three frameworks is for the most part at the societal level. Logic is used for both macro-level institutional analysis and micro-level organizational analysis. There is also an increasing amount of empirical research on logics guiding organizational actors and action in the organizational field or organization level of analysis. In the remainder of this thesis I will primarily use the concept of logics.

Although many theorists discuss the importance of logics in shaping organizational life, in terms of structure, decisions and actions (Townley, 2008), what is interesting when focusing on pluralistic organizations is the presence of multiple logics. The frameworks presented include multiple logics, but due to the societal focus these are for the most part not discussed in terms of co-existence. Yet if we accept the notion that forms of rationality are institutionally defined, "it becomes almost self-evident that multiple, and more importantly, equally valid rationalities can co-exist in society, each based on a different institutional template" (Cloutier & Langley, 2006, p. 5). Within complex organizations multiple groups represent multiple domains that are carriers of different institutional logics.

Few studies specifically discuss the co-existence of multiple logics. Thornton and Occasio (1999) and Thornton (2002) investigate competing editorial and market logics in the publishing industry. They show that the two logics differ on a

range of dimensions tied to identity, legitimacy and authority structures. They also differ in the sense of mission, focus of attention, strategies and logic of investments. Although authors explicitly discuss the existence of more than one logic, few consider the co-existence of multiple or even competing logics. Rather than addressing multiple logics, the focus is often on studying a shift from one dominant logic to another (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). Glynn and Lounsbury (2005) for example, discuss forces behind a shift from one prevailing logic to another when an aesthetic and a commercially oriented logic co-exist. Lounsbury (2002) examines the transformation from a regulatory to a market logic in the field of finance. Other authors who explore the shift from one prevailing logic to another are Bartunek (1984), in a study of the restructuring of a religious order. Rao, Monin and Durand (2003), describe mechanisms behind a shift in logics within the world of haute cuisine. These authors, though aware of the presence of multiple and often competing logics, nevertheless implicitly or explicitly assume that the tension resulting from the presence of competing logics will eventually lead to stability as one logic becomes dominant.

Although the predominant focus is on the shift from one dominant logic to another, there are authors who explicitly address the issue of co-existing and competing logics. LeTheule and Fronda (2005) point out that many organizations “encompass a space of confrontations” between creativity needs and the integration of creative personalities and the routines, wisdom and accepted behavioral patterns of other actors (LeTheule & Fronda, 2005, p. 750). Glynn (2000) describes how an aesthetic and a commercial logic compete in the context of a symphony orchestra. Lounsbury (2007) points out that as institutions undergo shifts from one dominant logic to another, those competing logics continue to co-exist and offer alternative pathways for managers. He acknowledges the ongoing existence of competing logics, regardless of the spread of new practices, and recommends that more attention be paid to how these shape practice and decision-making within organizations.

Managing the effects of competing logics

If few authors explicitly address how multiple logics co-exist or compete, the discussion about how organizations should manage the effects of multiple and competing logics is more fragmented still. There are some, such as LeTheule and Fronda (2005), who suggest that organizations need to avoid confrontation

between different logics, as pursuing a dominant logic will lead to a destructive situation. Other authors point out that although one logic becomes dominant, other logics will not disappear (Lounsbury, 2007; Voronov et al., 2009). Particularly in pluralistic organizations, there is ongoing competition between different logics that has to be negotiated (Mueller et al., 2003). In the long term organizations must have elements of both worlds or, in the case of the “mercantile and inspired type of organization”, they will risk either a loss of capacity to innovate or a loss of economic and organizational stability (Le Theule and Fronda, 2005, p. 767). Those who present ways of managing situations characterized by competing logics tend to agree that pursuing a dominant logic is not a good solution—the proposed solutions are diverse.

Approaches to managing tension caused by competing logics can be loosely divided into three categories. Solutions are either structural, based on socialization or based on what we might call attention modes. A summary of these categories can be found in table 2.2 page 29. In the first category is LeTheule and Fronda’s (2005) suggestion that, in order to ensure complementarity between creation and routine (representing what they call inspired and rationalizing logics), there should be geographical and temporal distance—work should be structured such that creative work is separated from routine work both in space and in the deadlines set. Westerman et al. (2006) offer three different structural solutions to ensure that organizations promote both innovation and efficiency, one based on differentiation and the other two on integration. Denis et al. (2003) also find that spatial, temporal or structural separation is a way to manage issues related to multiple domains, as do Thacher and Rein (2004), Stewart (2006), and Kraatz and Block (2008). Grandori and Furnari (2008) suggest that we look for combinatory designs in order to accommodate different types of rules. Finally, Battilana and Dorado (2009) describe how new organizations in the micro-finance industry use different hiring strategies as a way to deal with competing logics.

Battilana and Dorado (2009) also show how organizations use deliberate socialization strategies to pursue a kind of hybridization between two co-existing logics. Few other authors focus specifically on the socialization of individual actors, but Voronov et al. (2009) describe how actors in the Canadian wine industry use discourse to selectively classify their practices to fit with prevailing logics of different constituencies. Le Theule and Fronda (2005) propose that bridges be established between creative processes, organization strategy and control modes.

They indicate that this should be done through means such as active listening and “nurturing and embracing the creative dimensions of strategy” (LeTheule & Fronda, 2005, p. 781), which could be seen as a socialization strategy.

Some authors propose different modes of integrating multiple logics. These could perhaps be described as attention modes. Mueller et al. (2003) identify different negotiating tactics or scripts “as practical means of dealing with the problem of colliding schemes” (p. 1984). However, although they identify five types of scripts, four of these (challenging, defending, cautioning and critiquing) are unidirectional, as the purpose seems to be to promote a priority interpretive scheme—in other words, to achieve a dominant logic. The fifth script, mediating, does consider multiple schemes. Thacher and Rein (2004) describe how actors make a trade-off between logics by considering two at the same time, cycle between logics by attending to values sequentially, or use specified forms of reasoning according to pre-defined categories and cases. Stewart (2006) builds on this work by adding hybridization (the merging of values to form one strategy), bias (the pursuit of a dominant logic as a single strategy) and incrementalism (short-stepped change as a short-term response). In a study of hospital mergers, Denis et al. (2003) found that in addition to structural separation, throughout the merger process different attention modes were introduced in an effort to manage multiple logics. One of these was to adopt a dominant logic. They also identified a transcendence strategy, or framing of the project as an overarching all-inclusive goal similar to the overarching goal described by Thacher and Rein (2004). The final strategy identified by Denis et al. (2003) is avoidance. Tensions caused by competing logics were not addressed—with a reliance instead, perhaps, on the sort of incrementalism discussed by Stewart (2006).

The literature summarized in Table 2.2, page 29, adds to our knowledge base as it recognizes the existence of competing logics as a key influence in pluralistic organizations. Although many authors focus on how organizations adopt or should adopt a dominant logic in a situation of opposing goals, three other approaches are also identified. The first is to consider structural solutions, in particular to strive for a separation of elements in time, space or structure. The second is to seek social or communicative means of reaching a hybridization of logics. The third approach is less straightforward and entails different attention modes. Although a dominant logic strategy is often assumed to be ideal, there are different modes for attending to the effects of multiple and competing logics. One is to try to transcend logics or pursue an overarching logic, one that brings all of the

competing logics together under a single umbrella. Another is to cycle between logics, attending to each in turn. A third option is to make a trade-off between logics, and a fourth is to use predetermined forms of reasoning on a case-by-case basis (casuistry). The final two modes are to adapt step by step (incrementalism) and to simply pursue a strategy of avoidance.

Although a number of approaches to managing the effects of competing logics have been outlined, there are two limitations in the literature. First, the presence of pluralistic environments is seldom considered when proposing ways to reconcile competing logics, and thus a degree of complexity is removed from the equation. Second, most contributions focus on attention modes, and thus offer little guidance as to how organizational actors should approach an organizational life that is wrought with tension due to competing logics. Finally, most of the theoretical research on logics deals with the societal level of logics, with its focus on worlds, order or activity systems. The empirical research on managing competing logics is concerned primarily with organizational levels of analysis.

Table 2.2: Coping mechanisms

Coping mechanism	Contribution	Limitation
Structural solution		
<i>Battilana & Dorado (2009)</i>	Strategic hiring of new employees	Newly formed organizations that may vary substantially from established pluralistic ones
<i>Westerman, McFarlan & Iansiti (2006)</i>	- Separate-early - Integrate-early - Wait-then- transform	Assumes that each require specific managerial action, but does not specify managerial action; does not explicitly consider pluralistic environment
<i>Thacher & Rein (2004)</i>	Firewalls	Does not consider multiple domains and multiple coalitions
<i>LeTheule & Fronda (2005)</i>	Temporal differences, separation or hybridization	Theoretical article that needs empirical follow-up; does not explicitly discuss multiple domains
<i>Stewart (2006)</i>	Separation	One context
<i>Denis et al. (2003)</i>	Spatial or structural separation	One context
<i>Grandori & Furnari (2008)</i>	Identify a design for both technical and relational rules; point to combinatory designs	Multiple domains not considered; not clear how the identified designs would work in practice
	Forge common identity through the formation of new institutions	
<i>Kraatz & Block (2008)</i>	Compartmentalize	Conceptual contribution offering little guidance as to how to manage tension due to competing logics

<p>Modes of attention</p> <p><i>Thacher & Rein (2004)</i></p> <p><i>LeTheule & Fronda (2005)</i></p> <p><i>Stewart (2006)</i></p> <p><i>Denis et al. (2003)</i></p> <p><i>Kraatz & Block (2008)</i></p>	<p>Overarching, trade-off, cycling, casuistry</p> <p>Move from confrontation to complementarity between logics</p> <p>Control-idea: learning process and loose coupling</p> <p>Hybridization, casuistry, incrementalism, bias or cycling</p> <p>Transcendence/abstraction</p> <p>Dominant perspective</p> <p>Avoidance</p> <p>Eliminate pluralism</p> <p>Balancing demands or dominant idea</p>	<p>Does not consider what the different types of attention mean in terms of everyday practices</p> <p>Does not consider multiple domains and multiple coalitions</p> <p>Theoretical contribution that needs empirical follow-up; does not explicitly discuss multiple domains</p> <p>One context</p> <p>Modes of attention associated with different phases of change process; unclear relevance for ongoing institutions</p> <p>Conceptual contribution offering little guidance as to how to manage tension due to competing logics</p>
<p>Socialization & Communication</p> <p><i>Voronov, De Clercq & Hinings (2009)</i></p> <p><i>Battilana & Dorado (2009)</i></p> <p><i>LeTheule & Fronda (2005)</i></p> <p><i>Mueller et al. (2003)</i></p>	<p>Organizations use selective classification of practices to adjust to prevailing logic of different constituencies</p> <p>Socialization through common training and referring to opposite practices</p> <p>Third-party intervention as facilitator, translator or catalyst</p> <p>Identify five types of scripts actors to follow in order to manage conflict over interpretive schemes</p>	<p>Focus on pluralism in external environment only</p> <p>Newly formed organizations that may vary substantially from established pluralistic ones</p> <p>Does not consider multiple domains and multiple coalitions</p> <p>Four out of five scripts are unidirectional - aimed at influencing one scheme; promoting a dominant logic</p>

These three shortcomings present opportunities to contribute to the literature. First, I intend to investigate pluralistic environments in more than one context. Second, I intend to identify the kinds of logics that exist in organizations and that must be dealt with by leaders and to then put these into a framework that ties them to overall types of logic. Finally, I intend to identify not only the kinds of approaches that leaders in pluralistic organizations use in order to manage the effects of competing logics, but also if and how different executive role constellations differ in their approach.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

Introduction

In this chapter I present the methodology for the study. I introduce the research settings and describe my approach to data collection and analysis. A large number of constructs are developed and presented in this thesis, and the process by which these came about and the relationships between them are not all straightforward. I therefore go into some detail about the different processes and phases of analysis, but I leave the presentation of the findings to the following chapters. I begin this chapter with a description of the research and sampling strategies before proceeding to the data-collection and data analysis processes, and, finally, discussing the methodological strengths and weaknesses of the study.

Research Design

The research design is a plan for getting from an initial set of research questions to the set of conclusions about these questions (Yin, 2003). This process includes the collection, analysis and interpretation of data (Yin, 2003; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). According to Yin (2003, p. 21), the main purpose of the research design is to plan the study with sufficient thoroughness to ensure that the evidence collected addresses the research questions posed. The design also considers the amount of theory that exists in the domain of interest (Richards & Morse, 2007). In this study the objective is to describe the different types of executive role constellations used in pluralistic environments and how competing logics are managed across the different constellations. The research questions outlined in the previous chapters are as follows:

1. What kinds of executive role constellations exist in pluralistic organizations?
2. What kinds of competing logics exist in pluralistic organizations?
3. How are competing logics managed under different executive role constellations?

The first question requires particular attention to variation in contexts both in terms of where pluralism stems from and what kinds of executive role constellations have traditionally been designed. The second set of questions requires par-

ticular attention to variation in the logics justifying beliefs and actions in pluralistic organizations and how they are managed.

Research strategy

In doctoral theses, questions about the choice of a qualitative or a quantitative design are often addressed in the methodology section. However, the important issue is not quantitative versus qualitative but, rather, what it is that determines the appropriateness of a research design (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). Different designs represent different research strategies, each entailing different ways of “collecting and analyzing empirical evidence” (Yin, 2003, p. 3). The design should be closely tied to the nature of the research questions. Qualitative studies involve “systematic inquiry which must occur in a natural setting, rather than in an artificially constructed one such as an experiment” (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p. 5) . In general, qualitative designs are most effective when the research concerns an area of scant knowledge, complex situations, multi-context data or shifting phenomena (Richards & Morse, 2007). They are appropriate if the researcher is seeking a detailed understanding of particular phenomena, wishes to learn from or fully understand respondents’ points of view, or is constructing a new theory (Richards & Morse, 2007; Yin, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994) . The present study fits several of the above criteria, as the phenomenon of dual leadership has not been well researched and the research questions require multiple context data.

Qualitative studies come in many shapes and forms. Different qualitative methods “offer different prisms through which to view the world, different perspectives on reality” (Richards & Morse, 2007, p.5) and provide a variety of ways of managing and organizing data and evidence (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As the aim of the present study was to capture across-context variation in executive role constellations within pluralistic organizations, a case study design seemed appropriate. In the words of Yin (2003), I “deliberately wanted to cover contextual conditions” (p. 13) and believed that a pluralistic environment would be “highly pertinent to [the] phenomenon of study” (p. 13). The existence of a variety of executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations fits these criteria. A single case study would not be able to capture the variety in role constellations or the variety in approaches to managing competing logics. Therefore, a multiple case study was deemed appropriate.

Sampling strategy

Research purposes and research questions should lead the investigator to particular data sources and particular strategies for analyzing the collected data. Generally, the aim is not to choose a large number of cases but to choose cases that ensure the best possible theoretical variation yet limit other sources of variation (Andersen, 1997). For this study, the principal requirement, both theoretically and empirically, was to situate data collection in a pluralistic environment. This was essential, as multiple and competing logics were believed to exist in such an environment. Indicators of pluralistic environments were thought to be multiple professions or, at a minimum, the presence of both administrative and professional domains. A certain size would be needed to accommodate the different domains associated with a variety of coalitions based on profession or functions. To allow for differences and similarities in types of executive role constellations and competing logics, I decided to include organizations from multiple pluralistic contexts and thus encompassing different professions and organizational fields. Finally, I considered whether some of the contexts were known to have a history or at least occurrences of dual leadership. Based on discussions with professionals from different domains, newspaper clippings, and the experiences of people in my own environment, I concluded that educational institutions, hospitals, newspapers, and cultural organizations such as theaters, orchestras and museums met the above criteria.

Sample selection was thus based on three criteria: ability to yield variation in executive role constellations across pluralistic contexts, presence of more than one coalition, and a minimum of 20 employees, and two professions/domains. The inclusion of newspapers was meant to ensure that both public and private enterprises would be part of the investigation. One could argue that newspapers served almost as a control group given their dual leadership status, yet newspapers represent a form of ownership that is different from that of the other organizations, which were public institutions.

The purpose was to ultimately develop and extend theory, and theoretical reasoning influenced the choice of cases (Eisenhardt, 1989). Thus pluralistic environments were carefully chosen based on the criteria presented above and summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Dimensions to include in case pool

Variables to consider	Context requirement	Possible contexts	Excluded contexts/cases
Capture variation in management structure	Multiple goals	Education and other research institutions	Research institutions for profit—dominant governance principle
Capture variation across pluralistic contexts	Multiple domains and/or professions	Health institutions	
Presence of ambiguity due to competing goals and/or competing logics	History of multiple role constellations	Range of culture organizations	Many culture organizations and types too small to include multiple domains or parallel/multiple reporting structures
Management structure and practice challenges due to competing logics	Size	Newspapers	
	Possible multiple reporting structures/patterns	Political systems organizations	Political organizations not clearly defined domains/coalitions
		Consulting and Auditing	Private ownerships—for profit dominant governance principle. Known problems with access

The distribution of organizations across the groups of hospitals, educational institutions, newspapers and cultural organizations was intended to reflect a portion of all the eligible organizations in that group. Thus the target number of hospitals reflected the fact that hospitals made up the largest group of all. One of the reasons for choosing random as opposed to theoretical sampling is to obtain evidence of variation within a population (Eisenhardt, 1989). The selected organizations met the criteria described above (size, context, pluralism). Moreover, as the aim was to investigate a presumed variation in executive role constellations, I randomly chose which organizations within each group to include. I did so by assigning each case a number. I randomly generated a list of numbers and then determined the initial selection of cases among those fitting the criteria. This served as a good starting point for the collection of data. As the interviewing proceeded I kept an eye on the theoretical reasons for case selection to make sure that ran-

domization did not lead to the exclusion of organizations representing distinct types of pluralism.

I therefore made two adaptations to the list to ensure proper distribution of cases. The first concerned the selected group of hospitals. At the time of data collection, Norway's health-care system was undergoing restructuring. Previously independent hospitals were being merged in regional health authorities. In addition, a law requiring hospitals to introduce unitary leadership at all levels had taken effect. This served to undermine my attempt to investigate variation in executive role constellations, since hospitals under the same health authority were similarly organized. Thus, rather than interview respondents from several hospitals within the same health authority, I added a hospital from another region.

Similarly, the random choice of educational institutions led to the selection of a wide variety of institutions. As the country's three largest universities differ from other educational institutions in Norway in that they are substantially larger, have a much longer history, and have different traditions and status, I believed that important perspectives would be lost if I did not include at least one of them in the sample. Finally, as data collection progressed, I felt, after interviewing leaders at three different regional colleges, that little new information had been added and thus I removed the fourth regional college from the list.

The process leading to the ultimate selection of 27 organizations and 63 respondents is illustrated in Appendix 3.1.

Levels and units of analysis

Langley (1999) points out that one of the challenges of qualitative research is to clearly isolate units of analysis. One of the reasons for embarking on this kind of research is to situate these units of analysis in context. Thus I studied pluralistic organizations of many kinds, and within those organizations I looked at formal management structures, yet I also examined role constellations and interactions between leaders in those constellations. The result is an analytical process involving multiple units and multiple levels of analysis.

The key entities are the statements of individual leaders reflecting what they thought about sources of tension and what they did to manage tension. To determine the characteristics of different executive role constellations, I investigated the division of tasks and functions, interdependencies, and interaction between leaders in different role constellations and between leader groups and

other levels of the organization. To distinguish between types of executive role constellations and to compare and distinguish between sets of competing logics within and across contexts, I analyzed case by case and context by context.

The first level of analysis is the cases. I took a case-by-case approach, looking for patterns of organizing often referred to as management structures. However, the aim was to properly understand how patterns of organizing work in practice. Thus the unit of analysis is the role constellations, and each organization had one or more such constellations. Sometimes the leader role constellation was made up of one person in one organization: one leader, one case. In other instances there were multiple role constellations in multiple units within the same organization.

The first aim of the analysis was to identify types of executive role constellations. To uncover how different types function each role constellation was analyzed to identify perceptions of tensions and practices used to manage uncertainty. Further, I studied each context—each group of organizations within the same field—to identify the prevalent competing logics. The grouping of cases on the basis of context also helped to preserve anonymity. While theaters, orchestras and museums were grouped together because of their many similarities, there are also similarities between science museums and educational institutions. However, to ensure anonymity museums were left in the culture group. Finally, I performed cross-context analysis to develop common or generic types of competing logics. The levels of analysis and the main purposes served are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Units and levels of analysis

Units of analysis	<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Executive Role constellation</i>	<i>Executive role constellation categories</i>	<i>Individual case</i>	<i>Context</i>
Level of analysis	<i>Individual</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Group and Organization</i>	<i>Group and Organization</i>	<i>Group and Organization</i>
Main variable studied:					
<i>Tension</i>	Initial evidence basis for developing logics	Comparing within role constellation			
<i>Practice</i>	Initial evidence, development of constructs	Checking for evidence of practices used	Practices used by unitary, hybrid, dual constellation		
<i>Management structure</i>	Description of functions, interaction and interdependence patterns	Comparing responses within role constellation		Identifying categories of executive role constellations	
<i>Identifying individual logics</i>	Identified tensions representing underlying logic			Checking for evidence of logics	Patterns of tensions context by context
<i>Sets of Competing logics</i>				Checking for evidence of competing logics	Identified sets of competing logics within and across context
<i>Linking competing logics and practice</i>				Cross-searching competing logics and practices	Cross-searching for overall patterns context by context
<i>Linking competing logics and executive role constellation category</i>			Cross-searching type of competing logic and type of executive role constellation		

Data collection

To uncover the variety of executive role constellations, as well as the difference between formal and actual practice, the study had to incorporate primary data such as interviews and observations and secondary data such as printed documents. For multiple case studies, Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that semi-structured interview guides be developed to ensure that the same topics will be covered across cases.

After reviewing the literature on dual leadership and its related strands, as well as newspaper clippings and other public sources of information on leadership and management structure in hospitals, educational institutions, newspapers and cultural organizations, I developed an interview guide. I amended the guide based on discussions with the advisory committee. Pilot-testing of the guide with one of the cases prompted further amendments, to ensure that actual working structures would be revealed and to enable a better understanding of the interrelationships between leaders and between leaders and the different coalitions. At the next set of interviews, some questions seemed to generate similar answers, as respondents indicated that issues had already been discussed. Moreover, the initial set of questions generated little information on the appropriateness of executive role constellations in terms of reaching managerial and organizational goals. Further, although respondents agreed to be interviewed and were prepared to answer the full range of questions, they were often pressed for time. Therefore I drew up a short version of the guide for use when time was limited. The revised interview guide and the short version can be found in Appendix 3.2.

Eisenhardt (1989) recommends that researchers adopt flexibility in interviewing to be better able to capture any interesting topics that may come up. In qualitative research, data collection and analysis should be interactive processes rather than conducted sequentially, so the researcher can take advantage of the possibilities inherent in this method. One example of this is the possibility to adjust the approach if respondents' answers are not pursued or questions posed does not reveal their beliefs about an issue. In this study take for instance, the question of what leaders saw as organizational success. Sometimes the answer would reveal little of what the leader felt. By taking reflective notes and transcribing the data, I became aware of this shortcoming. In a later interview when this information was not forthcoming I came up with the "Christmas party question:"

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

“In a few months when you have your annual Christmas party, what would you like to point out to your employees as something they did really well this year?” or “At the end of the year, what kind of things would you like to point out to your people as successful this year?” Framing questions in this way resulted in much more detailed and open responses on issues of purpose and goals than asking questions such as “What constitutes organizational success?”

The primary source of data was semi-structured interviews with 63 leaders in 27 organizations, along with charts and diagrams drawn by respondents or drafted by me and corrected or commented on by respondents during the course of the interview. All 63 interviews were conducted between late March and mid-June (when things closed down for the summer) and between mid-August and late November 2005. Several leaders had to cancel appointments due to other commitments. For example, it is hard to be insistent when a physician is scheduled for emergency heart surgery on the day of the appointment. Due to time constraints, some of these interviews could not be rescheduled. Two leaders were not available when I arrived for the scheduled interview.

All interviews were recorded. Recording is advantageous, especially when the researcher is interviewing alone, as it allows for better concentration and for more focus on the discussion. Recording interviews affords the researcher more opportunities to probe and follow up on interesting leads. However, recording can also be disadvantageous, as respondents may be less willing to discuss sensitive issues. In the present study, three to five respondents had reservations about being recorded. In two of these cases, the iPod was turned off during parts of the interview and I relied on note-taking. In the other cases, we discussed how the recorded data would be used and agreed on issues of anonymity and citation. All respondents were assured of anonymity. Although most respondents did not express concern about this, all respondents and organizations in the study have been kept anonymous. For the same reason, every respondent is referred to as “he” or “him.”

Notes and memos written immediately after the interview, based on observations during the interview, also provided valuable information. Most interviews lasted approximately an hour and a half; a few lasted roughly one hour and three lasted two hours. Interviews were for the most part arranged beforehand, but in three cases top leader respondents suggested I speak with intermediate-level leaders and arranged subsequent interviews, which were conducted in situ (see Appendix 3.3). In a few cases key informants other than designated leaders were

interviewed. These included a board member and a former CEO in the newspaper business (Appendix 3.3). I found leaders by reading Web pages and annual reports and through direct contact with organizations. Depending on the organization's policy, I was assigned leaders to interview or given a list of leaders to contact or (in most cases) contacted leaders directly via e-mail or letter describing the study and requesting an interview. A list of respondents with mode of contact is presented in Appendix 3.3.

The majority of interviewees were "upper echelon" leaders (Hambrick & Mason, 1984)— formal leaders at the top level of the organization. However, in the case of hospitals and universities, data from the first set of interviews indicated that it would be necessary to also interview leaders at the intermediate and lower levels of the organization. Leaders at these levels are the ones who face competing logics in their everyday work, although they are less representative than top-level leaders in terms of the various executive role constellations. This is in line with Eisenhardt's (1989) recommendation of opportunistic data collection, in that I took advantage of possibilities for further probing and insight regarding the organization in question.

Secondary sources of data were external sources such as newspaper or journal articles and a wealth of internal documents downloaded from the Internet or graciously provided by the organizations themselves. The latter included annual reports, strategic plans, and a range of memos and reports on reorganization processes. Art catalogues and sessional calendars were provided in the case of arts organizations and vocational training schools, respectively.

Data analysis

All data analysis has to do with classification and data reduction. The aim is to achieve what Richards (2005) refers to as methodological fit—"the ways in which question, data, ways of constructing an outcome and ways of justifying it fit together" (p. xi). To attain this is worked in a cyclical manner. First by collecting data in phases, allowing time for analysis and adjustment in between rounds of interviews. For example after each interview I wrote notes and memos to ensure that immediate impressions were recorded. Then a rough analysis was done and initial lists of classifications developed. In between new rounds of transcriptions and rough analysis, deeper analysis and reclassification of categories was performed. In the last phases findings were cross-searched and checked. Collecting,

sorting and analyzing data groups in a cyclical manner, the results presented in the next four chapters evolved through many phases, as illustrated in Table 3.3 page 43. While the process may appear sequential in the chart, the different phases did in fact overlap and in the later phases were cyclical rather than sequential in nature.

Software

This project involved a large amount of text: more than 1,500 pages of transcription plus a vast amount of written documentation from secondary sources. Through the use of NVivo 2.0 software, I was able to keep track of the material and to cross-reference the different findings and contexts far more efficiently than would otherwise be possible. I used the software differently at different stages of analysis, whether exploring the data, testing, comparing or cross-referencing. It enabled me to categorize the relevant pieces of information at increasing levels of refinement as analysis proceeded. Equally important was the process of cross-referencing all categories with respondent attributes such as position, type of organization and type of executive role constellation. An example of the process of increasing categorization and refinement was the sequence of coding everything that fit into a loose definition of “rationality” and then re-coding into two different groups of logics (purpose and governance). Next, distinct types of logic were identified within each context. The cross-referencing of all logics allowed for a clearer separation between them, while subsequent cross-referencing with context helped in the development of the initial sets of competing logics. I re-coded these sets in order to arrive at the four main types of competing logics. A similar process was used to develop practices. Finally, sets of competing logics were cross-referenced with practices to single out which practices were used to manage which kinds of competing logics.

Process of data analysis

The data analysis and development of results evolved over several phases. In this section I describe the activities during the different phases and also present the constructs and the connection between them. Table 3.3 page 43 outlines the activities involved in the different phases. For each phase, it presents the part of the research questions addressed, the main data sources used, the cases included and the analytical activities conducted. In qualitative research, a range of tools

are used to synthesize and present evidence. The table includes the different tools, with an overview of the main findings and a description of how one phase is followed up in the next. Analytical activity shifted throughout the different phases.

Phase one

Even before I qualified for the PhD program, my research was geared towards the dual leadership phenomenon reflected in the following question: What kind of executive role constellations exist in pluralistic organizations? This served as the point of departure for my initial data analysis. I began with an enormous amount of raw data in the form of recorded and transcribed interviews, and a large amount of written material on the organizations and their fields, from both internal and external sources. My first aim was to map out the varieties of executive role constellations across cases. In this quest I opted for a “top-down” approach, which I understand as a process of taking a step back from the data and reflecting on what is currently known about a specific phenomenon. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), this can be done by making interim case summaries. Based on everything I had learned about each organization, I drew a figure illustrating the role constellation for each case. I adjusted this draft after consulting my interview notes, charts drawn during interviews and written sources such as annual reports or official organization charts on Web pages. The result was 27 sets of organizational charts depicting the different executive role constellations and the organizational structure of which they were a part. I sorted the charts into groups of seemingly similar cases. In order to determine whether all cases within each category were in fact similar, I proceeded to describe each according to the following dimensions: role constellation, reporting structure up and down the hierarchy, professional background of role constellation leaders, role differentiation and role complementarities.

Table 3.3: Phases of analysis

Phase in process	Aim	Type of analysis	Data sources	Illustration used	Results
1	Initial description of executive role constellations	“Top-down”: describe different structures such as I saw them, supported by written illustrations from interviews and document sources	Interviews Drawings/ notes from interviews. Documents.	Short descriptions. Official and described org charts.	Six initial categories
2	Develop further detail and description for executive role constellation categories.	Write short stories/summaries of typical cases: what is most interesting and why, role overlap, kind of interaction/relationship, functions. What areas are not covered, any problems, challenges	Interviews. Notes from interviews. Documents.	Stories of typical cases	Kept initial categories but for further analysis divided into unitary, hybrid, dual.
3	Develop initial list of tensions and practices to manage tension.	“Bottom-up” - detailed coding and analysis of all cases. Cases divided into groups representing all contexts. All interviews in each case coded together to observe differences in opinion and presentation between leaders. Case summaries, memos on interesting topics	Transcribed interviews.	Tables with initial categories. Memos for each concept, emerging themes, research questions, analytical categories.	Initial list of logics and reconciliation mechanism.
4	Identify multiplicity of logics across contexts. Then develop sets of competing logics.	Based on initial list of tensions analyze each context separately to tease out most common logics within- and across contexts. Cross-checked with all cases. Within context competing logics compared across contexts	Transcribed interviews. Previous analysis. Memos. Literature on logics, rationality, values, frames.	Tables defining, describing each category including quotes.	Typology of multiple logics. Types of competing logics.
5	Develop typology of practices used to manage competing logics.	Bottom-up” coding of all data, checking evidence of practices used to manage different types of tensions. Initial practices cross-checked with all cases for consistency. Initial practices with little support excluded.	Transcribed interviews. Previous analysis. Memos.	Tables defining, describing each practice including illustrative quotes.	10 practices representing three different approaches.
6	Link previous findings; show executive role constellation, practice and competing logic relation.	Developing sets of competing logics. Revise and refine the developed multiplicity of logics. Cross-check within cases where applicable, and within contexts. Developing sets of tensions for each context illustrated with quotes and descriptions.		Matrixes of cases, role constellations, mode of integration and practices used. Table linking competing logics and practices	Framework illustrating link between role constellation and approach to manage competing logic effects.

For each category, I identified and described one or two “typical” cases. To guide the analysis and keep track of the material, I developed a chart including facts about cases and categories in some rows and my own questions, comments in separate rows (see Appendix 3.3). The initial phase led to the identification of six types of executive role constellations ranging from purely unitary to purely dual and four hybrids, two originating in a formal unitary constellation and two originating in a formal dual constellation. The identified executive constellations are presented in Chapter 4.

Phase two

In the next phase I proceeded to develop and refine these categories. For each category, a typical case was selected and thoroughly probed. The analytical method was to write a short report on each case. They were developed by asking what was the most interesting aspect of the organization, its role constellation and why these aspects were important. I focused on whether there was any role overlapping; what kinds of interactions and/or relations existed between leaders at the same level as well as up and down the organizational hierarchy; what kind of functions were covered and apparently not covered; what kinds of problems and challenges faced the organization and/or its leaders; and, finally, what made the organization typical. To develop the stories I studied the transcriptions and consulted the comments, notes, diagrams and written information about the organization. In doing so, I looked for information supplied by leaders on their own position and background, how they described their leader group, their relationship with the leader group and relations within the group, and the importance of professional groups. I also searched for information on who initiated policies, the level at which decisions were made, and sources of uncertainty as well as thoughts on the command structure. Of special interest were leaders’ perceptions about type and degree of interdependence between domains, the extent to which they thought there was agreement on goals and, especially, how evaluation of those goals was conducted—in theory and in practice. An example of such a report can be found in Appendix 3.4.

The selection of cases was a “top-down” process. The first requirement was that they be “interesting” (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Cases were identified as interesting partly on the basis of whether I tended to talk about them in discussions with peers and the advisory committee. Upon further probing of such cases, they

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

were characterized by either some actual or potential tension such as a discrepancy between what people say they do and what they actually do, or very clear ideas about role constellation interdependence, interaction and relations. The results of phases one and two are presented in Chapter 4. Here, I describe the different executive role constellations, type and degree of interaction between leaders in the same kind of constellation, and reporting and communication patterns up and down the organizational hierarchy.

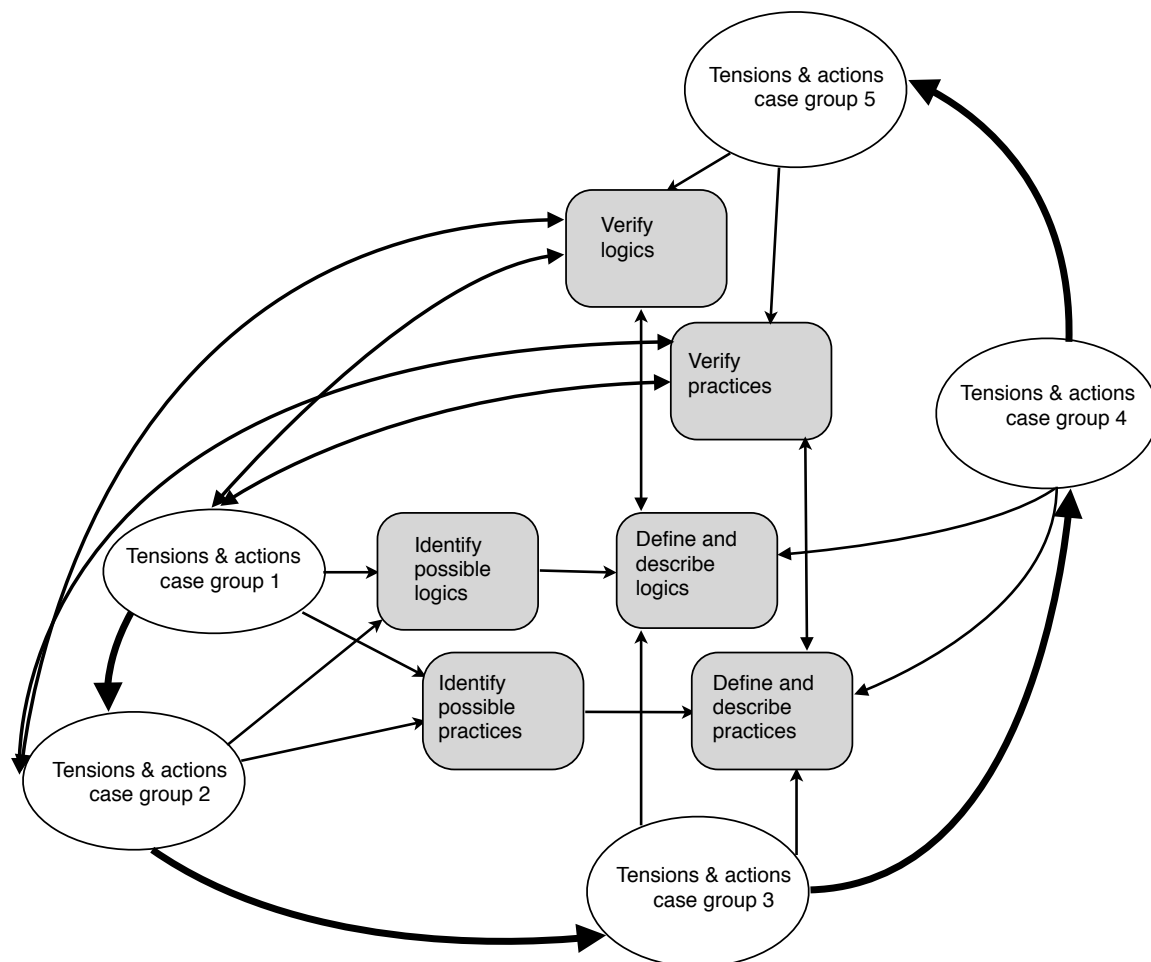
Phase three

As I continued to look for differences and similarities in different executive role constellations, evidence of practical differences in the management of ambiguity was never far away. Although one of my aims was to gain a thorough understanding of the tensions faced by leaders in pluralistic organizations, another was to find evidence of how the same tensions or opposites were managed. In phase three, therefore, I turned my attention to perceptions of tensions, the origin of tensions and what leaders were doing to manage ambiguity. This phase was the start of a cyclical process that continued through the rest of the analysis and the writing up of the results. An initial search for tensions associated leader action led to an understanding of what kinds of logics the tensions represented. This ultimately resulted in a refined understanding of the types of competing logics present within as well as across cases and contexts. The same process led to the identification of different approaches to the management of competing logics.

From this point on, the analysis was “bottom-up”. Starting from the raw data and with the aid of NVivo software, I performed detailed coding and analysis of all cases. In practice the cases were divided into groups of five or six organizations and 11 to 16 interviews representing all four contexts. All interviews from the same organization were analyzed in the same group. This allowed me to better observe differences in opinion and presentation between leaders within the same organization. As well as developing categories and coding passages from interviews into these categories, I added comments on specific quotes or topics as links in the software; these served as sort of electronic Post-it notes. I also wrote summaries of cases and memos about interesting topics. This phase involved extensive data reduction and category refining, as I sought to become intimate with and fully understand the data, recognize topics, and identify similarities and differences in cases. I sought to identify dimensions and categories that would

provide a firm basis on which to present the evidence. This lengthy phase overlapped with phases four and five, because as I continued to probe new groups of cases I also went back and worked on specific topics and findings. Figure 3.1 page 46 illustrates the process.

Figure 3.1: Cyclical analysis



Phase four

Having identified a range of tensions within and across cases in phase three, I set out to identify the most important types of competing logics both within and across contexts—in other words, the kinds of competing logics that must be managed in a pluralistic organization. I had already generated categories of instances where ambiguity was thought to exist. All quoted terms in categories such as “tension” and “uncertainty,” were collapsed into a large “competing logics” category. I printed the entire file and then assessed each quote for the kind of logic it seemed to represent. I was looking for evidence of multiple issues that either had to be addressed because of conflict or bewilderment expressed about another group, or had to do with representatives of a certain domain. I analyzed the selected quotes context by context. For each context, the “competing logics” category was first cross-searched with each case and each interview to ensure that all had been included in the preliminary analysis. The subsequent analysis revealed an initial list of categories of logics and all of the material was then re-coded according to that list. This enabled a reconsideration of my previous interpretations. Next, each category of logic was independently analyzed for consistency in the kind of evidence collected, to ensure that all of the instances in one category did in fact represent similar ideas. At this stage I also went back to the literature to see how logics had previously been empirically defined and described. I mapped all proposed logics in a matrix to clarify ideas and to see more clearly where they overlapped or differed. Table 3.4 page 48 shows a part of this matrix.

I initially proposed 12 different logics. I checked each for consistency by first comparing similar respondents and similar organizations and then comparing them across contexts. The list of logics was cross-searched both within and across contexts to see whether each was unique to a context or whether it is typical of pluralistic organizations. Based on how well each could be defined and described, as well as its frequency, I ultimately decided I had grounds for identifying five of what I called purpose logics. These were logics upon which ideas about core purpose rested. In addition, and closely tied to these, three kinds of governance logics were identified. The results of this analysis are presented in Chapter 5.

Table 3.4: Developing logics

Logic	Description	Discussion
Profession	<p>Justification is based on values attached to professional identity and represented by belonging to a certain domain or coalition whether doctors or nurses in hospitals, actors or musicians as artists in culture, professors (or wannabe professors) in education and journalists in newspapers. Across organizational types one can also find professional identities such as accountants, lawyers, etc (who often fulfill the formal definitions of a ‘professional’).</p> <p>Justification of decisions and actions based on professional norms, values and guidelines. Task distinctiveness, peer control, autonomy of action etc. The presence of jurisdiction issues is a strong indicator of professional logic. Expectations tied to who should make decisions and hold certain positions are also strong indicators of a professional logic.</p>	<p>The distinction between a professional purpose and a content purpose is obviously a fine one, and the two are often very closely linked. Just as the close relationship between professional and content logics and specific governance logics. Purpose and governance logics are still both included in the research model as both purpose and governance logics make up bases of justification for actors. This can be seen in the material as respondents uphold specific governance principles as independent principles and at other times purpose and governance logics are intertwined.</p> <p>The material is full of examples of respondents’ discussion of competing logics both referring to purpose logics and in their discussion of governance principles.</p>
Resource	<p>Justification is based on the belief that the organizations purpose is to manage resources as efficiently as possible. The efficient use of resources is a purpose in itself and builds on the desire to ensure financial stability and security.</p> <p>Voss et al. (2000) calls this a financial dimension and describe it as ensuring the financial stability and security of the theatre. It follows a well established Norwegian value of not using more than you have—or don’t play with borrowed money. Better to consider what you have than what you want.</p>	<p>Easily contradict and conflict with content and professional logics as well as business logic. Under those logics financial stability is not a purpose in itself, it is only interesting if it can help ensure the maximum content development possible. Thus if one could get away with not keeping budgets one would not really try to keep them.</p> <p>Cash flow and liquidity communicates whether we are in control, but it may lead to defensive budgeting and we don’t want that. Every time there is a surplus we evaluate – what happened – did we become defensive and offer too little theatre? (Artistic director)</p> <p>Fewer quotes than I expected when setting up this logic. However fits with the idea of financial value that Voss et al describes and several respondents will govern according to a “do not use more than you have logic” whereas another is willing to use more than they have to achieve a strategic priority (spend to expand financial base).</p>

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

Based on the identified multiple logics, I next aimed to develop a set of competing logics, first within each context and then across contexts. These sets of competing logics would later be linked to specific role constellations and practices.

Identifying the range of logics across contexts constituted a typical “bottom-up” analysis, with extensive probing and working with the raw data. To develop sets of competing logics within each context, however, I began with a “top-down” approach, writing up the most obvious competing logics within each case. For each context, I used the software to cross-check all logics for each case, sorting by position and profession. The reports generated were probed for predominant tensions. Some were referred to directly, with respondents specifically citing opposing logics influencing their everyday work. Others emerged when statements by one respondent was contrasted by respondents of different position or profession. Still others were identified when leaders in one profession focused exclusively on their type of justification for action, apparently taking other domains or coalitions for granted. I employed matrices (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to illustrate emerging patterns and to clarify what kind of justifications were used by whom and representing what kinds of opposites. Table 3.5, page 50 is one such illustration. The result was one to three sets of competing logics for each context. In education, for example, there is the schism between teaching and research, in culture there is disagreement about who has the authority to represent and interpret art, in hospitals there is a dissent over patient focus, and in newspapers there is ongoing discussion about whether newspapers constitute primarily a public voice or a business. The competing logics for each context are described and illustrated with quotes in Chapter 6.

To identify general types of competing logics, I took a closer look at the similarities and differences in sets of competing logics across contexts. I used the software to cross-search the similarities and differences in the various instances that made up each category. Comparison of the characteristics of each logic soon revealed those that were based essentially on the same kind of justification and tension. Four sets of predominant tensions or competing logics appeared to exist across contexts. Before writing definitions and descriptions, I recoded all findings according to the overall types of competing logic and cross-checked each category for consistency with the evidence. The final categories of competing logics were profession versus profession, mission versus mission, mission versus bureaucracy, and mission versus money. The analysis and results are discussed in Chapter 6.

Table 3.5: Examples of competing logics in one context

Hospitals: Summary of logics findings	
Profession	Clear presence of professional identity among all profession groups. Jurisdiction issues are important and leader role is frequently seen as a profession extension. Autonomy important for professional actors.
Content	Internal: Focus on patients and patient needs. Difference between professions whether focus is on the individual patient or groups of patients. Competence and competence development important as part of university hospital. External: focus on responsibility to uphold and further competence on behalf of society. Patient rights and patient advocacy.
Resources	One group of leaders aim for accountable use of resources (pragmatics). Another group clearly skeptical to the effects of resource logic guiding decisions and actions. Concern about opposite demands being made on professional work.
Bureaucratic	Opposition and skepticism to the effects of measurement, counting and reporting.
Business	Some fear that patient groups with complex problems will suffer if market forces are put more into play. But no examples of leaders who express the need for or support the introduction of market forces represented by private actors.

Phase five

Phases three and four simultaneously produced categories of data focusing on tensions, managing tensions, and ideas about the link between logics and approaches to managing the resulting ambiguity.

In the fifth phase the analytical focus was narrowed, as I sought to identify approaches taken by leaders across cases to manage ambiguity. I was especially looking for evidence on how leaders balanced professional and administrative needs or different professional needs. When a large number of documents are being coded, as in phase two, there is a danger that the coder's understanding of a specific category or concept will change over time, resulting in similar pieces of evidence being coded differently. To minimize this danger, I collapsed categories understood as a form of management of ambiguity and uncertainty into one cat-

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

egory, to ensure that all approaches to managing tension and uncertainty were included. I cross-referenced this category (labelled “reconciliation”) with all respondents to identify those who had little coding and thus perhaps had received insufficient attention. In those cases, interviews were re-coded, thus rendering the analysis very much an iterative process.

For each citation I considered whether it in fact represented an effort to manage ambiguity, and if so, what kind of action it represented. In this way, I developed a list of practices and re-coded all the data accordingly. By doing this in two operations, I was able to see whether different respondents were discussing the same kind of practice and was also able to reconsider as I did the re-coding. Next, I cross-checked each practice to see if everything placed there was referring to the same kind of action. Data that deviated or seemed to be unclear were either checked against the original transcription, or moved to a miscellaneous category for later analysis. After several rounds of refining the types of identified practices (including those in the miscellaneous category), I worked with tables and matrices (Miles & Huberman, 1994), defining and describing each practice, including illustrative quotes. Ultimately, 10 practices of three different kinds were identified. Traces of other practices were also found. In some of these cases the practice was mentioned by only one or two respondents, while in others the material was not sufficiently rich to substantiate its definition and description as an independent practice. Thus some practices received insufficient support and were excluded. Two practices that were engaged in or spoken of by few respondents were nevertheless included, as I believed they represented distinct practices. The practices are described in Chapter 7.

Phase six

For the last phase of analysis the aim was to link the different variables to determine how each type of competing logic is managed under different types of executive role constellations. The process used to demonstrate the link between competing logics and actual practices reveals the cyclical nature of the present analysis. I first cross-referenced each set of competing logics with each practice. Initially these seemed to be almost independent, with almost no overlapping references. I was dismayed, needless to say, but decided to return to the data. This time I probed each practice, and I realized that as these practices had been developed in the earlier phases of analysis their description and supporting data

originated from before the development of types of competing logics. By re-examining all practices and using the software to enlarge the area of text I was able to identify the kind of ambiguity each incident referred to. The results are presented in Chapter 7. Executive role constellation was entered as an attribute of each document and could therefore be linked to practices. Thus a list of who used what practice, in terms of position, profession and constellation, could be developed. These results are also presented in Chapter 7.

Methodological strengths and weaknesses

There is a tendency for different research evaluation criteria to be presented, depending on the research paradigm or research tradition in which the researcher finds herself. However, for every researcher the point is to strive for openness and transparency in presenting the choices made and the processes and analytical tools used instead of committing oneself to a particular practice. In the earlier sections of this chapter I tried to present a detailed and structured account of my research choices, hopefully without overwhelming the reader with too much detail. In this section I discuss the choices made based on certain criteria. Different researchers and research traditions will place different emphases on the criteria by which empirical research should be evaluated. According to Langley (1999), one of the aims of an empirical work is to ensure that the analytical design and process serve to “generate theory.” Further, the nature of an empirical inquiry should be such that “the findings ... are worth paying attention to” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Guba and Lincoln (1982, p. 246) recommend investigating the following:

- how to establish confidence in the “truth” of the findings for a group of respondents and/or a context
- how to determine whether the findings are applicable in other contexts
- how to determine whether the findings can be repeated in a similar context or with similar respondents
- how to establish whether the findings are in fact determined by the respondents and not by the researcher’s perceptions, motivations or interests

Although Guba and Lincoln (1982, 1985) favors other labels, Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that generally accepted answers to these questions can be found in what are commonly known as objectivity, reliability, internal validity

and external validity. These are what they call “standards for the quality of conclusions”—in other words, “how good is this work?” (p. 277-278).

Objectivity

Miles and Huberman (1994) offer a range of questions that researchers can ask to test for objectivity, also called confirmability or neutrality. Any case study will inevitably be marked by a degree of subjective interpretation or individual compiling of evidence about relationships among variables (Leonard-Barton, 1990). It is neither feasible nor desirable to claim total objectivity. Thus Miles and Huberman (1994) place the emphasis on replicability—in other words, the assurance that other researchers will be able to repeat the study by following explicit and detailed methods and procedures.

To the best of my ability, I have presented a detailed account of the data collection as well as its processing and codification. The accounts of the process as well as the findings are illustrated through definitions, descriptions and quotes and through the use of figures and charts throughout the thesis. All information gathered through interviews, observations and documents was filed separately for each case. Each interview was transcribed and coded using NVivo software and filed electronically. In addition, the analyses were documented through extensive use of matrixes and charts. These materials and the research trail followed are accessible to other researchers.

The empirical discussions and conclusions presented in Chapters 4 to 7 have been subjected to review and commentary by people knowledgeable in the different fields to ensure external verification of the findings. However, the respondents have not had access to the material, partly due to the large number of respondents and partly for the purpose of anonymity: Because of the number of respondents, the analytical process was more manageable when I could relate to real names rather than aliases.

Internal validity

Another requirement has to do with “the types of understanding that may emerge from a study” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 278). The question is, in other words, whether the study can be considered to have truth value—or how to establish “confidence in the ‘truth’ of the findings of a particular inquiry” (Guba & Lincoln, 1982, p. 246). Researchers want to establish whether the findings make sense

both for those who were the subject of the study and for any other interested party. Maxwell (1992) uses four dimensions on which to consider this question. The first is descriptive—does it explain what happened in a specific situation? The second is interpretative—what did it mean to the people involved? The theoretical dimension has to do with the concepts used and developed as well as their interrelationships and how they are used to explain action and meaning. Finally, the evaluative dimension concerns the judgements of the worth or value of actions and meanings. Construct validity is a part of this measurement. The question is whether there is a coherent relationship between constructs and their measurement. This is often assured through a process of refining the definitions of a construct and building evidence through the measurement of the same constructs (Eisenhardt, 1989). In this study I used multiple sources of evidence, mostly through multiple interviews but also by considering internal documents and external sources such as newspaper articles. The software allowed for continuous cross-referencing of evidence and for truly taking advantage of multiple sources. The actual singling out of evidence was done over many months. Rather than relying on inspiration, I used multiple cross-checks and refinement to support the descriptions, definitions and illustrations of constructs as meaningful and durable. Construct validity is, however, insufficient for considering the credibility of the findings. Internal validity also depends on the quality of relationships among concepts—whether in fact the concepts are systematically related (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). The question is, for example, whether the identified practices are techniques for managing competing logics. As illustrated in Figure 3.1 page 46, the findings were checked with parts of the database other than where they originally arose (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I continuously cross-checked the coding using software, prints of incidents within each concept and relations between them, and I developed matrixes for considering issues from more than one perspective in order to validate the relationships among concepts.

External validity

External validity concerns the question of whether the findings have meaning beyond the present study, whether they are transferable to other analytical or empirical contexts. This is the classical test where, according to Cook and Campbell (1979), the aim is to determine the extent to which any causal relationship “can be generalized to and across” contexts and time (p. 317). However, in a study

such as this, a more fitting criterion may be *transferability* of the findings to other contexts (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Miles and Huberman (1994) propose three indicators of whether the conclusions of a study are transferable to other settings. First, there is the question of whether the sample is described in such a manner as to permit comparison in other settings. In the present study, a discussion of pluralistic organizations is provided, and the diverse settings both fulfill such a definition and allow the reader to imagine other settings that could fit these descriptions. Second, there is the question of whether the sample is sufficiently diverse to be applicable to other settings. Although grouped into four, there are in fact at least six different organizational settings represented in the sample. Thus I would argue that this criterion is met. The third question is whether population representatives deem the findings to be consistent with their experience. The findings have been presented at academic staff seminars, conferences and workshops with representatives from various contexts and have received support in these fora.

Reliability

Reliability concerns not only the quality of the findings but the process of the study. The question is whether a study “is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 278). Do the constructs and the findings have relevance and embeddedness in theory? This can be assessed by looking at whether different researchers, using the same methods and following the same procedures, would arrive at the same conclusions. Given that different researchers would focus on the same issues and would interpret the data and data reduction in a similar manner, I could claim a degree of reliability for this study. However, given the amount of data, and knowing that much of the data points to issues that were not pursued within the scope of this study, this would be an unlikely claim to make. Still, there are several things that it would be reasonable to expect in a qualitative study such as this. These include, first and foremost, clear research questions, congruent design and a clear researcher role. One would also expect to arrive at findings that are meaningful across data sources and to have clear specifications of analytic constructs. Finally, one would expect that coding checks have been done and that the findings have been subjected to peer review (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this chapter, as well as in those that are focused on analysis and discussion, I have attempted to

present a coherent and detailed account of the process. For a researcher working alone, coding checks and peer reviews during the process are difficult to achieve. And while control and documentation of the process are easily achievable in the case of a single researcher, a possible weakness is that it is difficult to have the process confirmed. I sought to accommodate this weakness by keeping a detailed log, especially during all of the data-collection phases and during the first four analytical phases. The log, coded data, documents and memos combined should provide an analytical trail for anyone wishing to go down that path. It is thus possible for other researchers to trace the process of this study.

Conclusion

Methodological issues have been the focus of this chapter. In the first part I discussed the research design and the requirements that it should meet. For this study a qualitative design was thought appropriate to provide a detailed understanding of a particular phenomenon and the need for multiple context data. The research strategy had to provide the possibility to study multiple contexts and the ability to yield variation in executive role constellations studied. The presence of more than one coalition in each organization was one requirement. As a minimum the organizations had to include an administrative and a professional domain, or more than one professional domain. The size of the organization had to provide the opportunity for more than one leader. Hospitals, universities and colleges, cultural organizations and newspapers were included to as they fit the criteria as pluralistic organizations.

The process of analysis was very much a cyclical process going through a series of phases. In the first phases I aimed at identifying, developing and describing the various constructs and concepts. Later phases also aimed at deepening the analysis and verifying or falsifying initial findings. Data analysis was both inductive - driven by the data, and deductive - based on previous research.

In the last part of the chapter I discussed strengths and weaknesses of the methodology.

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

Over the past two decades organizations like hospitals and universities have experienced shifts between so-called dual and unitary leadership. The current trend is based on a belief in unitary structures with a focus on hierarchical governing systems (Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005; Reid, 2006). In order to understand how ambiguity and tension due to multiple domains and pluralistic goals is managed, I decided to investigate what kind of executive role constellations exist in pluralistic organizations. The results are presented in this chapter. The study of organizations with an administrative as well as one or more professional domains showed that both unitary and dual constellations exist. However, I also found several hybrid structures, ranging from a formal unitary structure with an influential support position to teams and situations in which one leader dominated the situation despite a formal dual structure. Thus, although they formally have governance structures that prescribe either one or two leaders, organizations have developed varieties of structures in between these two constellation types.

To be able to separate the different executive role constellations, I look at four different dimensions: degree of structural separation; leaders' functions or specialization, or what some call the technological and social division of labor; level or degree of interaction between leaders; and degree of role differentiation. By looking at these dimensions, I was able to identify several hybrid constellations, in addition to clearly unitary and clearly dual constellations. In this chapter I first discuss the four dimensions upon which I base my typology and then present each type of executive role constellation, before discussing how this might add to our understanding of multiple executive role constellations.

Dimensions describing executive role constellations

As seen in Chapter 2, our knowledge and understanding of multiple executive role constellations are limited. In order to identify and discuss a potential range of such constellations, I had to determine the dimensions by which different existing executive role constellations could be analyzed and discussed.

Simply put, the first issue was to find out who does what. Hodgson et al. (1965) consider specialization important in the discussion of different executive role constellations. They argue that functions performed and emotional qualities expressed can be ways of describing each executive's specializations. Similarly,

Gronn (2002) describes specialization as the technological and social division of labour, while Alvarez and Svejenova (2005) speak of the material and emotional division of labor. In line with this type of reasoning, and for the purpose of describing existing executive role constellations, I take specialization to be the division of technological and social tasks. However, the range of technological and social tasks that could potentially be identified is such that a detailed description of each would not be practical. The pluralistic organizations examined here are all characterized by multiple domains. Although the tasks and functions performed vary substantially between, for example, a hospital and a theatre, an approach that fits all contexts is to group tasks either as administrative or as having a specific professional focus. Sometimes the difference in specialization is not administrative or professional but instead comes down to a choice between external and internal focus. For the purpose of this study, specialization is characterized as administrative, as professional, or as having an external or internal focus.

Formal governance structures such as those depicted in official charts and documents should also be included in any analysis, as the organization's official image usually represents the original role constellation. But it is more important to follow up from there on who, according to the data, reports to whom about what, as an indicator of how different domains are managed. This is closely related to what happens when organizations choose structural separation as a way to manage multiple domains (Denis et al., 2003; Westerman et al., 2006). In practice, structural separation means that there are parallel hierarchies in organizations, one for each domain or each set of domains. Thus, whether members of organizations report according to a traditional hierarchy, according to two separate, parallel hierarchies, or according to something in between these two models will be useful for differentiating between types of constellations.

Although one can identify the specific technological and social tasks performed by executives, this tells us little about the actual roles played by each person in an executive role constellation. A set of technological and social functions can be combined in many different ways, and differentiation can be understood as a combination of tasks and social specializations that is distinguishable from other combinations. Role differentiation can be identified by studying sets of tasks and social responsibilities, and overlap of functions can be high or low. Alvarez and Svejenova (2005) suggest that high-differentiation roles are clearly distinguishable one from the other, whereas low-differentiation roles are difficult or impossible to separate. In practice, differentiation is measured by identifiable dif-

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

ferences in specific domains or tasks attached to constellation members, as well as through groups of subordinates from identifiable domains who report to each person within the executive role constellation.

Ideally, the last dimension on which the different constellations are characterized will be complementarity. This is understood to be the degree of effectiveness of the combined constellation. A proxy for the effectiveness of each combination would be to be able to identify the range of functions covered by each executive role constellation. However this would require more in-depth data surrounding each constellation than what is available in most of my cases. For the purpose of understanding how different types of constellations manage the tension and ambiguity that is inherent in pluralistic organizations, it is still necessary to know how different types of constellations function. Thus, to be able to include some of the issue of complementarity in the discussion, the last variable included in the analysis is interaction. While information on amount and type of interaction between members of an executive role constellation and with their domains adds little to the description of each type of role constellation, it does contribute to our understanding of how pluralistic environments are managed under different constellations.

I identified four dimensions for this analysis. First of all, the technological and social division of labor is an important issue (Gronn, 2002; Hogdson et al., 1965), and whether roles overlap or are separate can help differentiate between different models (Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005). Understanding who reports to whom, and thus the degree of structural separation, will help identify members of a specific constellation. How members of a constellation interact, and the frequency of their interactions, could add to our knowledge about working relationships. The analysis of each constellation is summarized in Appendix 4.1, page 226. Based on these dimensions, I identified three main types of constellations. The remainder of this chapter is structured around each of these. Table 4.1 page 60 presents an overview of the different types.

Table 4.1: Types of executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations

Executive role constellation	Structural separation	Specialization	Role differentiation
Unitary	<i>Low</i> Everyone reports directly to the unitary leader through hierarchy.	Responsible for both administrative and professional functions.	<i>Low</i> Everyone knows who is responsible. No deputy or other to whom all of either administrative or professional role is delegated.
Hybrid	<i>Medium</i> Multiple leaders. Subordinates either report in separate lines also outside own domain or one subordinate report to more than one leader.	Administrative and professional functions divided among several people.	<i>Medium to high</i> Role differentiation and task division not always clear to the organization.
Dual	<i>High</i> Two equally mandated leaders with distinct domains reporting in separate lines to one of the leaders. Everyone knows who is in charge of what.	Each leader has his task specialization and is responsible for distinct functions such as administration or specific professional task areas.	<i>High</i> Role differentiation is stable and recognizable for the entire organization.

Unitary leadership: One leader, one voice

The foremost characteristic of a leader in a purely unitary executive role constellation is that followers from all domains report to him/her, either directly or through the hierarchy. At the executive level, responsibility for tasks or functions is not delegated and responsibility for the administrative and professional domains rests with the unitary leader. Specific tasks may, of course, be delegated, but in such cases the deputy to whom they are delegated will be found at a lower level of the hierarchy. This person would report to the leader; he would be aware of this relationship, as would the rest of the organization. Given the fact that the leader covers the full range of technological and social functions, role differentiation is low. This does not imply that interaction with domain representatives is

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

necessarily low. Many unitary executives have a leader group with whom they work closely; they discuss the full range of relevant issues with this group and make decisions based on those discussions. Still, at the end of the day the unitary leader will make the final decision.

A unitary executive role constellation is illustrated in Figure 4.1. on page 62.

Among the 43 executive role constellations studied, I found 18 unitary constellations in hospitals, educational organizations and museums. Museum D represents a typical case of a unitary role constellation.

The leader of museum D is a professor and his museum comprises four professional departments and an administrative section, each headed by a section leader. All section leaders report to the museum director. The museum director is responsible for all administrative and professional domains and functions within the museum, whether the planning of a large exhibition, the construction of new buildings, the reorganization of administrative functions or follow-up on some aspect of the various collections. In his day-to-day work, the museum director understands his priorities to be as follows:

They all report directly to me, although of course much of the practical case-by-case documentation is transferred to the deputy director or the office manager. I have defined my role as focused on strategic planning, working with the Board and the constituencies that are relevant for me in my role as the top executive. (Professional Director, Museum D)

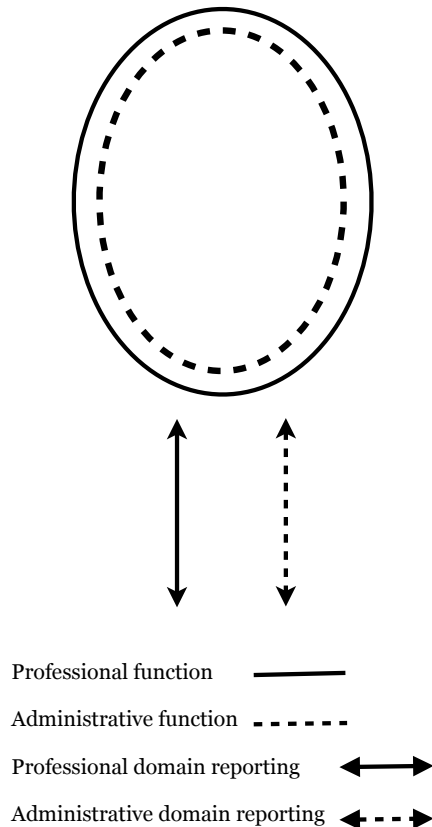
He is highly conscious of the responsibility that rests on his shoulders and the fact that multiple tasks and domains are part of what he must consider on a daily basis:

Imagine the variety between a family visiting an exhibition, a bachelor's student and a visiting professor from abroad. They all come here—it's part of what we do every day—but they come from three different worlds. Still, if you combine administrative and professional competence in one person, instead of sharing it, then at least it will be easier for that person to communicate with all of those [worlds]. Sure, that person may not be a specialist in public relations or exhibition pedagogy, but he will at least understand the importance of communicating with an audience. A researcher will never understand this—it is not important to him. In addition, a leader will understand the importance of boring budget meetings, because he knows that your budgets influence everything else and are some of your most important strategic tools, whereas a researcher would just focus on getting enough money for his project; the more the merrier—where the money comes from, and how, doesn't matter as long as

Hilde Fjellvær

he gets enough. But a leader has to understand how the issues are related. (Professional Director, Museum D)

Figure 4.1: Unitary executive role constellation



Dual leadership: Two leaders, two voices

A dual executive role constellation in its purest form consists of two equally mandated leaders. If the executive role constellation in question consists of two top leaders, both are employed by and report directly to the Board. Each leader heads a separate part of the organization, in terms of both people and tasks, and the parts are largely independent. Members of a particular domain or coalition always report to the same leader. Thus each leader has a specific set of tasks and functions and is responsible for a clearly defined part of the organization. There are few grey areas, and the leaders themselves, as well as every other member of

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

the organization, know what functions and responsibilities fall to whom. It follows from this that dual-leadership organizations feature a high degree of role differentiation and that this role differentiation is stable and is apparent to every member of the organization. This does not mean that members of the constellation will not discuss or make joint decisions on common issues, but many decisions will ultimately be associated with one domain and one leader. Interactions between dual-leadership executives can be at a high level and of high quality. Most dual-leadership leaders emphasize that interaction between their roles represents a crucial link between separate domains on which both leaders, if not the entire organization, depend. Of the 43 constellations in this study, 9 were purely dual in nature.

A dual executive role constellation is illustrated in Figure 4.2 page 64.

Newspaper A is a good example of a dual-leadership organization. In this organization, the two executive role constellation members have clearly defined tasks and functions and head completely separate groups of people. In general, staff from one domain do not work with staff from the other domain. The editor-in-chief describes the situation as follows:

What is special for us is the dual-leadership solution. Both the executive director and myself report directly to the Board. We are equally mandated but with separate domains. To put it simply, you could say that he takes care of the money and markets and I'm in charge of the content. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper A)

Similarly, the executive director describes it like this:

It isn't complicated. It may look complicated on paper but it's really very simple. With the editorial stuff it is him, and for the rest it is me. (Executive Director, Newspaper A)

Dual-leadership leaders are often located in different areas or on different floors of the building, surrounded by their constituents. In newspaper A, the two leaders have a medium-level frequency of interaction, meaning that they meet approximately once a week. Both describe a very good working relationship within the dyad and believe this is crucial for organizational success. It is interesting to note that, at the same time, both leaders say that their respective coalitions are probably not aware of how open the communication between them is and that this is probably a good thing.

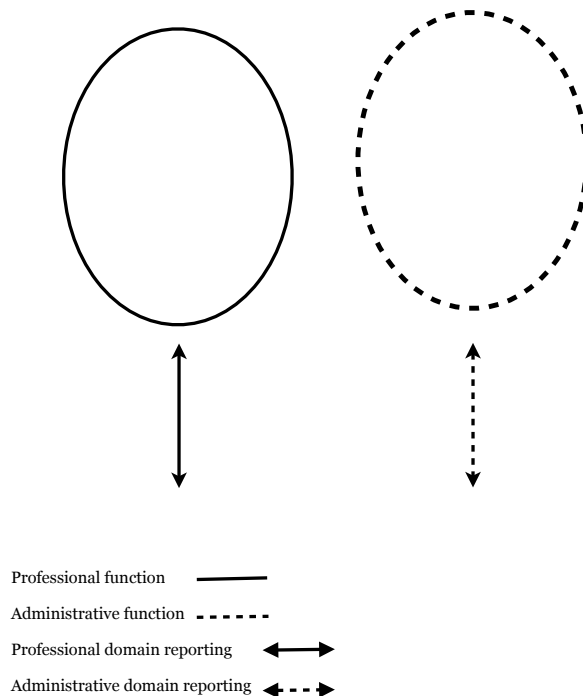
Purely dual executive role constellations are found in newspapers, theaters and educational institutions. A dual-leadership constellation consists of a profes-

sional leader and an administrative leader. This is where we find the dean and the director, the artist and the administrator, the journalist and the business leader.

The fact that tasks are highly specialized does not mean that there is a low degree of interdependence between domains—after all, the organization relies on a combined effort for its ultimate product, whether it is newspapers or theatrical performances. The high degree of interdependence is managed mostly by routine and a division of tasks that has long been in place, but partly by the two leaders acting as a bridge between the functional areas—for example, the professional leader attending the administrative leader’s group meetings. Usually it will not do for an administrator to attend a professional leader’s group meetings!

It’s not the way it used to be. We used to have a leader group and there was an editorial forum I could attend if I wanted to. If I had joined the editors today, we would have had to call an ambulance because there would have been a bunch of dead editors, so I couldn’t do that. (Executive Director, Newspaper B)

Figure 4.2: Dual executive role constellation



Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

The leaders are highly aware of their bridging role, and although sometimes they cannot even be found on the same official organizational chart, they make up the top management of the organization together. This means that interaction is often not formalized beyond the professional leader attending administrative meetings. Still, many report that they speak frequently—from several times a day to several times a week—while others say they meet on a weekly or bi-weekly basis in formal meetings.

Just as function and structure are clearly divided, so are roles. The professional leader, whether editor, art director or dean, is usually the leader who is most visible externally. Internally the authority bases are different, especially concerning the professional coalitions where the leader's background is an important factor in itself. For the administrative staff, a leader's on-the-job performance is usually more important.

Hybrid executive role constellations: A variety of voices

Although public debate and theoretical discussion about executive roles favor constellations with either one or two leaders, an interesting finding of this study is the existence of a variety of hybrid constellations. Hybrid executive role constellations originate in a unitary or dual model that for some reason deviates from its origins. The degree of structural separation, specialization or role differentiation does not match that of a purely unitary or purely dual constellation. Adaptations can be mandated or emergent. Pure types can display either low structural separation/low role differentiation (unitary) or high structural separation/high role differentiation (dual). Hybrids range between these types, revealing a variety of possible constellations. If we add the dimension of task and social division of labour, the variety increases even more. Of the 43 constellations studied, 16 were classified as hybrids. The shaded areas in Table 4.2 page 67 show the distribution of hybrid constellation according to variation in structural separation and role differentiation. The darker color denotes a higher frequency of the type.

Table 4.2 page 67 shows that the majority of hybrid constellations are characterized by *medium role differentiation* and *medium structural separation* (cell A). Hybrid constellations follow neither strict hierarchical reporting nor complete structural separation. The pattern varies across constellations. In most cases in this group, subordinates cross-report. Middle-level leaders are responsible for one or more domains and report to both leaders above and not in one line. In

other words, there is no clear structural separation such as that associated with a dual type nor is there a clear hierarchy such as that associated with a unitary type. Similarly, role differentiation shows degrees of overlap, either because both executives are involved in both or all domains or because the constellation consists of more than two leaders. In addition, task specialization could be lopsided concerning the magnitude of responsibilities. In the case of department B in hospital A, for example, the medical advisor has no social responsibilities but has task responsibilities in one of several professional domains. A more typical example of this hybrid is university C. The formal constellation is a dual one, but changes have been made so that the professional director has taken on part of the administrative domain and departmental leaders report both to him and to the director:

Well, I'd say that we have both. As far as the law allows, we have moved towards a unitary model. You have that right. The reason for this is that any professional decision has administrative consequences. It makes no sense to have two leaders on top. It's nonsense. Then again, there are some formal roles to be fulfilled, and we do follow what the law prescribes. Thus, regarding relations with the Board, we have decided that the executive director will present motions to the Board to ensure the independence of the rector and so on. We maintain that separation, so I guess we have both. We try to clarify our roles versus the Board, and in our day-to-day work we try to unify as efficiently as possible. (Professional Director, University C)

This type of hybrid can originate in either a unitary or a dual constellation and can be both mandated and emergent. Role differentiation is medium to low despite the presence of multiple executives. Example A in figure 4.3 on page 69 is one illustration of the relationships.

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

Table 4.2: Hybrid executive role constellations

Degree of Structural Separation	High		<p>B</p> <p><i>Structural separation yet roles overlap or one role expands into other area.</i></p> <p>Examples: Universities and orchestra.</p>	<p><i>High degree of structural separation and high degree of role differentiation.</i></p> <p>Dual</p>
	Medium		<p>A</p> <p><i>Some structural separation but not throughout, resulting in cross-reporting. Role overlap due to roles merging or because tasks are taken over from other domain(s).</i></p> <p>Examples: Hospital departments, University and colleges. Museum.</p>	<p><i>High degree of role differentiation but subordinates cross-report, as lines are not structurally separated.</i></p> <p>Examples: Hospital and college.</p>
	Low	<p><i>No structural separation and no role overlap. Executive in charge of all domains.</i></p> <p>Unitary</p>	<p><i>Role differentiation by one dominant role and deputy. No structural separation - all report to dominant leader.</i></p> <p>Examples: University faculties.</p>	<p>C</p> <p><i>High degree of role differentiation but one role dominant. Hierarchical reporting in one line except for strict professional performance.</i></p> <p>Example: Orchestra.</p>
		Low	Medium	High
		Degree of Role Differentiation		

In the case of college B, for example, the dean and the director perceive themselves and are perceived as almost one unit. The role overlap is substantial, as one executive may participate in or initiate action in the other's domain regardless of initial task specializations. Departmental leaders report to both executives rather than according to the idea of structural separation, and at the same time some department-level coordinators report directly to the professional director and the education director rather than through the deans:

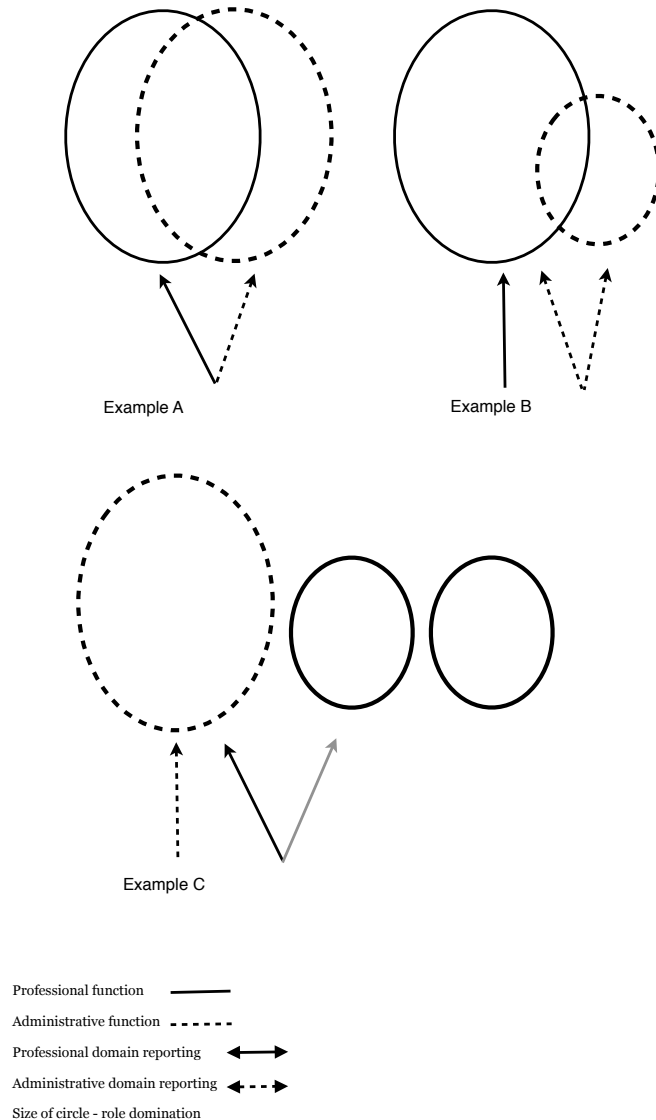
We are a team—a more unified team than most. There's no great difference between us in our everyday work ... We want to develop better relations with the different program coordinators. It's not that we don't trust the deans that they report to—it's just that we like to keep direct contact. (Professional Director, College B)

In this example, the hybrid emerged as a result of a working relationship within the original dual model. In other instances this kind of hybrid could be mandated, as is the case with educational institutions and hospital departments that are unwilling to fully implement the prescribed unitary model:

We have determined that the leader team should be leaders for all clinic personnel. This means that the office manager is in charge of the doctors in terms of administrative routines, the nurse leader makes sure all work on the ward is well coordinated between all professions for the good of the patient, so she can lead doctors as much as I in that respect; she has to continuously deal with resource allocations involving all domains. She is as much a leader of the doctors, in terms of both professional and administrative issues, as I am. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital E)

Another type of hybrid is characterized by a *high degree of structural separation but a medium degree of role differentiation* (Table 4.2, page 67, cell B). This means that, as a rule, subordinates report in separate hierarchical lines, according to their domain, but, for different reasons, roles overlap. Role adaptations can be mandated when an administrative executive with independent tasks and subordinates is either retained or added despite the introduction of a formal unitary leader. For other constellations, role overlap occurs due to either a professional director moving into the administrative domain or an executive director moving into the professional domain. Example B in figure 4.3 on page 69 can illustrate such a case, and university B is one example.

Figure 4.3: Hybrid executive role constellation examples



University B has a formal dual model but its rector has a strong interest in co-directing parts of the administrative domain and counts several members of the administrative staff among his close associates. He communicates directly with these leaders and sees them as natural additions to his original group of leaders. At the same time, large parts of the administrative domain are not under his con-

Hilde Fjellvær

trol and the majority of members of the administrative domain report only to the executive director:

Who reports to whom? Well, the assistant director reports to the university director and the deputy rector reports to me, but the idea of working in a team is, of course, that you work as a team. Initially the information director was supposed to report to the university director—you can see the link on the organization chart—but he's been a very close associate of mine in a number of instances. ... administrative and professional issues constantly merge, and the idea behind this team was to make sure we were all working on the same thing. Two of the university director's groups, in particular, have worked closely with me—the information director and his people and the people in the research department. I insisted that the research department be part of my domain, and I made sure we hired a special advisor to work on external funding. Strictly speaking, he should report through the research director and the university director but I need him as an advisor and administrator. (Professional Director, University B)

The third hybrid example is a *high level of role differentiation yet no clear structural separation* (Table 4.2, page 67, cell C). In dual leadership we would expect to have two mandated executive roles. In this hybrid, there is a high degree of role differentiation and task specialization is clearly defined. However, reporting is not in two separate lines, instead subordinates may report to one executive only. Orchestra A is the only constellation of this type. The case is illustrated as example C in figure 4.3 on page 69. The executive director is formally responsible for the administrative domain, including commercial issues such as marketing. Two artistic directors share responsibility for all artistic decisions in the professional domain. This model is quite common among orchestras. The challenge is that artistic directors are present only a limited amount of time during the year, so how the model is played out in practice varies widely from one organization to the next. In the case of the Oslo Philharmonic Orchestra under artistic director Mariss Janssons, Wennes (2002) found that there was no role overlap between the executive director and the artistic director even though the latter was present only about 10 weeks a year. In the case of orchestra A, there is slight role overlap and members of the professional domain report largely to the executive director. The artistic directors are clearly responsible for the artistic domain in ways that do not overlap with the responsibilities of the executive director; yet their roles are substantially smaller, in terms of organizational interaction, than that of the executive director. Thus when there are two artistic directors who are present

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

only part of the time, the executive director intervenes more often and more directly with the musicians than is often the case with such organizations.

The way we look at the professional leader role nowadays, two things are different—yes, they are here more often than visiting conductors, but still only about four to six weeks each season of 40 weeks. That's not nearly enough to execute proper artistic leadership in an institution.

I'm not on the auditioning committee—I tried to have access but was denied. I feel that I have a right to be there, but this is an important tradition so I haven't pushed that issue. Still, in the end I'm left with the responsibility, so if we do make the wrong decision then I'll be the one stuck with the problem because of legal rights and so forth.

We are quite close to a "one director on the top who decides" model, but in these kinds of organizations you have to take care to respect the professional and artistic domains, so my responsibility must be to motivate people to take the direction that is best for the organization. (Executive Director, Orchestra A)

Table 4.2 page 67 shows other hybrid varieties of executive role constellations. I will not describe these here, as my aim is not to describe each potential hybrid but to demonstrate the existence of a variety of hybrid constellations not discussed in the leadership literature. My second aim is to demonstrate how dimensions such as degree of structural separation, specialization and role differentiation can help researchers to distinguish between different types of executive role constellations in general. They can also serve as a framework for distinguishing between yet other types of multiple executive role constellations.

Summary and Conclusions

I have presented three main types of executive role constellations and have characterized them according to degree of structural separation, technological and social specialization, and role differentiation. The findings are summarized in Table 4.1 page 60. As expected, I found both purely unitary and purely dual role constellations. *Unitary executive role constellations* are characterized by a low degree of role differentiation and by reporting through the hierarchy to a single leader, who is responsible for all domains. *Dual executive role constellations* are characterized by high degree of role differentiation and by reporting in separate structures to two leaders, who are responsible for clearly separate domains. In

general, *hybrid executive role constellations* are characterized by a medium level of role differentiation and by reporting structures that are neither completely hierarchical nor completely separate structurally. I have presented three examples of hybrids here, but Table 4.2 page 67 presents hybrids that are different from those I have thoroughly described; this is a result of finely distinguishing between types of specialization, reporting structures and degree of role differentiation. The important issue is not to determine the number of possible hybrids but to acknowledge the existence and characteristics of hybrid executive role constellations.

Antecedents to the different hybrids are not easy to uncover, nor has this been an explicit aim of this study. It is important to note, though, that in the education sector, for example, the last governance reform prescribed unitary leadership for departments and sections. At the top level, however, the general rule is dual leadership with an elected rector and an appointed director. Thus regardless of whether the executive role constellation at the top ended up as dual or unitary, with unitary constellations at the lower levels and two at the top, the structural separation throughout the organizations disappeared. The result was not the presumably intended clarification of reporting structures; instead, organizations developed hybrids that differed in degree of role differentiation but shared patterns of cross-reporting, resulting in neither structural separation nor a clear hierarchy (structural integration).

This outcome is linked to the realization that adaptations leading to hybrid constellations can be both mandated and emergent. Reid (2006) distinguishes between emergent and mandated dual leadership to draw attention to the fact that dual leadership often means the existence of stable working role constellations even though much of the leadership literature does not recognize this possibility. Gronn (2002) presents a continuum, from spontaneous collaboration, through intuitive working reactions, to institutionalized practice. He points out that multiple executive role constellations may have a variety of origins, and in fact his continuum can be interpreted as a movement from emergent to mandated adaptations. The continuum also points to movement from a unitary to a multiple constellation. What this continuum does not predict is movement in the opposite direction, from a dual constellation towards a hybrid or even a unitary constellation. However, the use of an emergent versus mandated dimension will cover both developments. Adding the dimension of emergent and mandated constellations to the analysis gives us an opportunity to make a prediction regarding

Chapter 4: Categories of Unitary and Dual leadership

the stability of a given constellation and to discuss some potential gains and losses. If interaction is added as an explanatory variable the framework's ability to predict constellation stability will be further strengthened. In the case of orchestra B, for example, the hybrid constellation is emergent due to poor working relationships and inferior communication within the dyad. One leader tries to expand his role so that it overlaps with the role of the other leader. Interaction in the dyad is kept to a minimum, and mostly in writing. Thus interaction and emergent/mandated roles are variables that may be useful in the analysis of specific cases of executive role constellations, variables that can be employed in future empirical work.

Although specialization and role differentiation have been introduced by several authors (Hodgson et al., 1965; Gronn, 2002; Alvarez & Svejnova, 2005), they have not been widely used for the purpose of empirically categorizing different types of executive role constellations. The findings presented here show that, together with degree of structural separation, these dimensions are useful tools for studying and characterizing different types of executive role constellations. In the quest to identify a variety of multiple executive role constellations, structural separation and role differentiation can be useful for distinguishing between constellations. If information about task specialization and type of interaction engaged in by the constellation is included, one can substantially increase understanding of each constellation's specificity. Also, the organizations employed in this study are perhaps not alone in having different constellations operating at different levels of the organization. However, the framework is useful regardless of the organizational level being considered.

Hilde Fjellvør

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

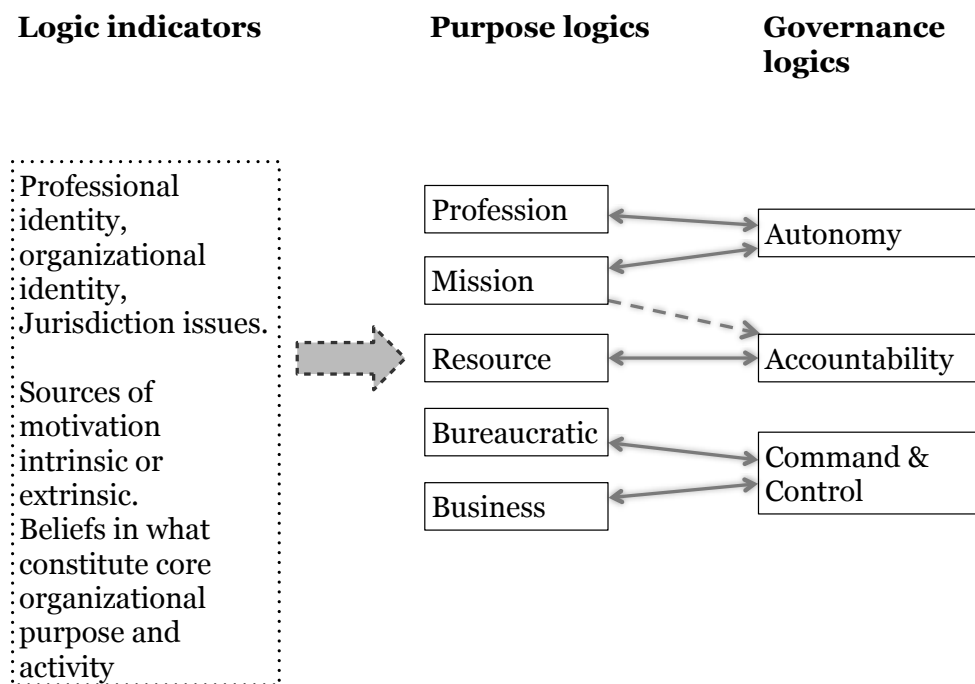
In this chapter I present the multiple logics found in pluralistic organizations and how they are expressed across contexts. This chapter also serves as a gateway to the next chapter, in which I investigate what kind of competing logics are prevalent in each context as well as what sets of competing logics can be said to exist across contexts.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate how different types of executive role constellations manage challenges due to their pluralistic environments. As previously discussed, pluralistic organizations are characterized by multiple goals and multiple domains (Denis et al., 2007). In Chapter 2 I discussed how multiple goals may stem from the presence of multiple institutional logics. Institutional orders or worlds are well described at the societal level, and in addition several empirical works have demonstrated the shape that institutional logics take within specific contexts. Several authors (Glynn & Lounsbury, 2005; Lounsbury, 2002; Rao et al., 2003) also show how fields undergo a shift from one dominant institutional logic to another. I take this further and investigate what kind of logics are at play, and what similarities and differences exist in how they are represented across pluralistic contexts.

The literature review in Chapter 2 revealed how logic means the different sets of beliefs, goals and values that guide action. The institutional logics literature outlines a few ideal types (Friedland & Alford, 1991; Thornton, 2004) and empirical studies of prevailing logics in certain fields have shown the expression of varieties of these logics (e.g., Glynn & Lounsbury, 2005; Lounsbury, 2007; Thornton, 2004). Here, I propose that two distinct groups of logics simultaneously guide decisions and actions. These are purpose logics and governance logics. Purpose logics guide action based on an organizational and professional purpose. Purpose logic has to do with questions such as, What is considered important to achieve and protect? and What is the rationale upon which actions are based? In what follows I present five types of logics identified across pluralistic environments and discuss how their representation varies across contexts. In addition, I propose that although it can be argued that control mechanisms are an attribute of a specific logic (Thornton, 2004) it is also beneficial to consider these as an independent influence. Governance logics refer to actions based on beliefs about control. Should control follow a hierarchical structure, or is autonomy the essence? Is loyalty owed primarily to the profession or to the organization? Governance logics are related to and can be viewed as an extension of purpose logics. However, for some leaders ideas about governance reinforce general ideas

whereas for others they represent purpose in specific situations. The ultimate aim here is to discover how tension and ambiguity due to competing logics are managed under different executive role constellations. This calls for a closer look at how decisions and actions are justified based on specific governance logics. The relationship between purpose logics and governance logics is illustrated in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Organizational purpose and governance logics



In Figure 5.1, column 1 shows a range of indicators that can be used to identify each type of logic. Column 2 identifies five different purpose logics. Although governance mechanism is seen as an attribute of logics, the figure shows that it can also be a powerful source of justification for organizational actors.

In the next section I will present logics that mainly influence the pluralistic organizations in this study. Evidence of other logics were also found, but either these were limited to a few respondents or I failed to clearly demonstrate how they differed from other identified logics. Thus in this chapter I will first discuss five purpose logics and then look at three types of governance logics.

Purpose logics

Purpose logics rests on essential beliefs about what constitutes the core purpose of work. It is based on the identity of a profession, a task or the content of a work. Purpose logics varies in terms of the importance of professional identity, including the importance of jurisdictional issues, the degree to which personal determination or motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, and the type of governance ideals represented. Two groups of purpose logics were identified. At one extreme are profession and mission logics, characterized by strong professional identification, a high degree of intrinsic motivation, a strong belief in what constitutes the core activities and need for independent work practices. At the other extreme are logics characterized by little or no importance placed on professional identification, little reliance on intrinsic motivation and an external focus. The farthest away from profession and content logics is business logic, and in between are bureaucratic and resource logics. I will discuss each in turn.

Profession logic: Who are we?

In all pluralistic organizations, the impact of professional coalitions is substantial. Among the different professions, a powerful logic stands out regardless of the actual profession. With profession logic, justification of decisions and actions are based on professional norms, values and guidelines, and a need for autonomy in professional development. The presence and importance of jurisdictional issues is a strong indicator of profession logic, as this is a defining dimension of professions. Hand in hand with jurisdictional issues are clear expectations as to who should hold leadership positions and make decisions on behalf of the profession. The leadership role is often seen more as an extension of the profession than as a part of the organizational management structure. Identity is deeply embedded in the professional role. For example to be a professor means more to the individual than the collection of tasks and relationships expected of a leadership position:

One of my colleagues said that he couldn't care less about the school as long as he could work on his projects. "I'm a historian. This means that I belong to the historian's world—a coalition of historians. I'm not a part of this school—my loyalty is to my subject." (Middle-level Professional Director, College B)

The upholding of professional ideals, identity and pride are closely associated with the profession or coalition. Profession logic is found in all organizational

types and is embedded in professional identity, whether that identity is doctor or nurse, university professor, curator, actor, musician or journalist. It is clearly manifested when respondents speak about leaders, leadership roles and leader legitimacy. Across organizations and organizational types, there is evidence of a strong professional identity and an emphasis on upholding professional norms and values in order to ensure legitimate practice. The emphasis is on how jurisdictional issues influence coalitions and leadership roles are expected to be filled by legitimate representatives of the profession. Profession logic is found across contexts but its expression varies. Table 5.1 on page 79 provides an overview of the presence of profession logic across organizational types. The table shows that although indicators of profession logic are found in all organizational types, the emphasis and expression of profession logic varies. In *hospitals*, for example, profession logic is evident when respondents express clear beliefs and ideas about who they see as appropriate holders of leadership positions:

I: You came in as the new leader and the two of you agreed that you should fill that role and that the doctor should be your medical advisor. Could he have been the leader?

R: No, I don't think so. After all, it is nurses who work in this department. It would be strange for them to have a doctor as their leader. (Lower-level Professional Director B, Hospital A)

Views on what is considered appropriate in terms of professional background, competence or even methods of developing competence are also indicators of profession logic. Respondents made a strong connection between profession and idiosyncratic competence, which underlines the importance of promoting leaders from their own professional domain:

The medical profession has clearly been more concerned with professional development—research—than the other groups ... And there is an increased emphasis, on the part of the health authorities, on research in the nursing field as well. But I think they are concerned that it should be sound research, and previously the nurses focused very much on qualitative studies rather than quantitative—and it is often difficult to generalize the results of qualitative studies. It is easier to gain specific insight from quantitative studies. (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital C)

Table 5.1: Indicators of profession logic across contexts

Organizational type	Profession logic indicators
Hospitals	Professional identity is important across professional groups. Jurisdictional issues are important even though respondents frequently claim that the issue is lower on the agenda than it used to be. Leadership roles are frequently understood as an extension of the profession.
Education	Professional identity is strong among faculty, and the leadership role is frequently seen as an extension of the profession. There is concern over jurisdiction, expressed in terms of protecting one's area of expertise. Professionals' identity and allegiance will be to subject area before faculty role. Level of competence has a strong bearing on professional identity. This is more evident in universities than in colleges.
Culture	There is an emphasis on the professional's independence and the importance of intrinsic motivation. In the arts, there is structural separation between professional and administrative domains and accompanying legitimacy issues. In museums, there are strong jurisdictional issues between different professional groups.
Newspapers	The leadership role is seen as an extension and defender of the profession. There is a strong emphasis on jurisdictional issues in terms of the professional and administrative domains. Journalistic identity and independence are emphasized.

The expression of professional norms and values is also a strong indicator of profession logics in hospitals:

Nurses' culture and doctors' culture are very different. If you don't understand that, you've missed something. They need different stimuli and have different frames of reference. And then they need to cooperate, because they are united on behalf of the patient. But you have to understand the different cultures and what they consider opportunities for development. There's no need to value one more than the other. (CEO advisor, Hospital A)

Within *educational* organizations, profession logic is expressed through an emphasis on who has influence. The focus is thus less on jurisdiction and role division and more on securing independence and influence for the individual. The question of what profession leadership candidates come from may be lower on

the agenda in education than in hospitals. Respondents agree that such positions in education must be filled by highly qualified faculty. Still, there are examples of professional jurisdiction challenges across departmental and faculty divides. Profession logic here seems to manifest in a profession before administration, department before institution, our group before the other group. It is also manifested through a strong emphasis on the need for bottom-up idea-generating and decision-making processes.

There is an interesting difference between universities and colleges. University respondents stress the importance of professional identity, autonomy and certification tied to a PhD or a professorship. University respondents, whether professionals or administrators, speak with one voice when they say that any leader to whom professionals report must not only hold a PhD but also be an established and well recognized full professor:

Well, we're looking for professors. Really, it's not even enough to be a professor. You have to have proper standing in the academic community so as to embody influence, authority and trust. (Executive Director, University A)

Respondents from regional colleges place much less emphasis on both profession logic and the accompanying governance logic. This is especially notable when they discuss who should hold leadership positions. They often agree that leaders should have some professional background, but they place less emphasis on the certified professional competence attached to a PhD or a full professorship. Regional colleges as they exist today are the result of a 1994 reform that merged all smaller regional colleges and educational institutions outside of universities and what were called “scientific schools” (business schools, veterinary schools, schools of technology). The new regional colleges, meanwhile, merged nursing schools, teachers’ colleges, engineering schools and business schools. For the most part, these had been founded as vocational schools and had no research tradition, few faculty with PhDs and education programs of no more than three years. Since that time, however, the demands placed on universities and colleges have been brought closer together through a series of reforms. Financing systems are based on research merit as well as on student performance, and a certain number of PhD holders and professors are required for advanced education programs to be accepted by the ministry of education. The demands placed on regional colleges are much the same as those placed on universities, and although some groups within colleges, due to a university background, welcome this situ-

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

ation and have long been upholding such ideals, for many others the situation is alien.

In a *cultural* context, profession logic is pervasive within both science museums and arts and culture organizations although it is expressed somewhat differently. Here, as in the other organizational types, profession logic is expressed by a focus on jurisdiction, with an emphasis on the professional role relative to the administrative role or professional domain versus professional domain:

This is the dilemma, of course: Unless you have researchers in leadership positions and staff perceive them as legitimate leaders, the staff won't take any advice or direction. They will argue, "Why listen to him? What does he know about what I need?" But if you've been there, and they know it, it's a different matter. (Professional Director, Museum D)

Where respondents in science museums are concerned about leaders having the proper professional background, respondents in arts organizations are concerned about professional competence being properly recognized. They see something elevating in the role of the professional exercising professional competence:

There's something about auditioning, for example. What is an audition, really? For musicians, there's a special meaning attached to it. It is incredibly important. You go through hell to land a job, play the best that you can. Of course, you might question whether the playing is all that matters—what about the person?—but, really, if anyone gets a job outside of winning it through an audition, it would be so unusual ... I don't know that it has ever happened in Norway. (Artistic Director, Orchestra B)

In *newspapers*, profession logic is especially evident in the emphasis placed on who should fill leadership positions. Leader legitimacy rests on the leader's journalistic identity, and justification is based on the idea that every leadership position must be filled by someone recognized as "one of us." There is a strong belief that this is vital for furthering and protecting professional integrity. Jurisdictional issues influence profession logic here as well. In general, tasks are clearly divided between commercial and editorial staffs, but journalists are still sensitive about who has a say in how their tasks and roles are developed and will not accept interference from the commercial side:

The editor-in-chief has to be right in the thick of things. The problem is—just as in the theatre, where actors cannot bear to relate to anyone but the artistic director—the editorial staff will only relate to the person who upholds the principles ... the most im-

portant leader—the editor-in-chief. No one can replace the editor-in-chief. (Board member, Newspapers B and C)

Appendix 5.1 page 237 provides further examples of how profession logic is expressed and how it is related to the different characteristics of this type of logic across all contexts.

Mission logic: What do we do?

Although closely connected to profession logic, mission logic is about purpose beyond profession. While core components of profession logic are tied directly to professional identity, jurisdiction and roles, mission logic builds on the foundation of professional and organizational identity to pursue creativity and innovation motivated by strong intrinsic factors. Identity is tied less to the role and more to the special insight possessed by individuals, and it is this special insight that drives decisions and actions. Members justify their priorities based on what they see as core activities for the profession and organization in question. The core idea(s) is often closely linked to profession logics, yet organizational actors can hold these beliefs without being representatives of the corresponding profession logic. One could say that while profession logic is embedded in the need for professional identity and legitimacy, mission logic is important for high-quality professional execution.

Mission logic differs according to context. Previous works focusing on change from one dominant logic to another can thus be seen as identifying various context-specific representations. Examples include aesthetic logic, artistic logic, editorial logic and trustee logic (e.g. Glynn, 2002; Thornton, 2001; Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). For organizational actors mission logic is marked by a strong intrinsic drive, continuously striving to enhance one's own understanding and perspective, and with little consideration of what the outside world think they should focus on. Examples are research, art and journalism. At the same time, many demonstrate an equally strong external orientation in which ideas about who we are here to serve and what we can offer to the outside world are important. Actors understand that they serve some public need based on the professionals' competence and dedication. Examples are educating the public, enriching or entertaining the public, or maintaining some kind of competence on behalf of the public. Table 5.2 page 83 shows the variety of mission logics identified in this study.

Table 5.2: Mission logic: Expressions across contexts

Organizational type	Hospitals	Education	Culture	Newspapers
Expressions of mission logic	* Care/cure * Research * Developing competence base	* Research * Educate	* Artistry * Preservation * Enrichment * Exhibition * Information	* Journalism * Watchdog * Information

Many respondents display beliefs in more than one mission. Some of these, however, understand one mission to be dominant and view other purposes as secondary—perhaps needed to create legitimacy or to generate resources but not recognized as core purposes. At the core, then, is a mission, and while profession logic is manifested in similar ways across contexts, mission logic takes on different expressions yet shares a drive for quality, a need for independence and a constant search for creative development.

The organizational type most marked by professional identity issues is *hospitals*, and mission logic is manifested in a focus on two issues: patients and competence. Justification for decisions and actions is based on beliefs regarding patient cure, patient care and developing one's competence base:

Most of those who choose to be educated in the health field have ... in the past it was often referred to as a "calling"—it sounds dramatic, but it remains that most have a desire to help others. For health-care workers, getting validation that one actually does help is important. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital E)

First and foremost, we are looking to develop a high degree of critical thinking with our personnel regarding their own practices. "Why do you do such and such and how does it work?" (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

In addition many hospital respondents particularly in the administrative domain emphasize the importance of focusing on patients' rights. Others are conscious of their role in developing a competence base for society to safeguard the quality of care provided. Doctors in particular are conscious of the need to pursue research. Leaders in non-dominant professions see research as an avenue for increasing

Hilde Fjellvær

the legitimacy of their own practice as well as for developing better-quality care for their patients:

Competence is incredibly important and this is why I said earlier that I am pleased about the increased focus on research. I have been constantly pushing for this because we have very few employees with the academic qualifications to do research. I believe the work we are starting now will raise the competence level in a few years, and this will give us a firmer platform to survive as a department. (Lower-level Professional Director, Hospital C)

While in hospitals the passion concerns patients and issues of professional competence, in *universities* it concerns research. There is a drive to constantly develop new areas, to pursue new knowledge, to challenge that which we think we know and to probe and investigate that which we do not yet know. This quest is guided by individual dispositions and curiosity. Just as artists understand that to be true artists their artistic projects must be entirely their own, scientists see it as natural that their research projects be motivated by curiosity and an internal drive to better understand and develop an area of expertise:

The question is, what kind of responsibility do we have to sustain our knowledge bank? To uphold knowledge for which there is little quantifiable need but which we must nevertheless uphold. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

This research, however, takes place within educational institutions whose role is to teach young people in the hope that they will become valuable members of society. The organizations, as institutions, are formally dedicated to both quests, yet individuals and even institutions might consider one much more important than the other. In universities, faculty members and administrators alike understand research to be a purpose in itself as well as a foundation for teaching. In colleges, on the other hand, I found that research and teaching are more often seen as separate purposes, sometimes even as competing; I will discuss this further in the next chapter.

The different types of *cultural* organizations share a deep passion for their subject, but their direction differs. Within performing arts organizations, such as theaters or orchestras, the intrinsic drive and determination is directed at producing art for art's sake. Artists enjoy the fact that audiences enjoy—but this ultimately means that it is more important not to compromise art than to attract audiences:

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

As an artist, I feel that my task is to fight for the artistic projects. I feel I have to fight for the ideas, and I see this as my most important job in the theatre, to make sure that ideas are realized. It doesn't mean that I can step aside from the money and allow carte blanche for artistic projects, but I am the only one fighting for the idea. (Artistic Director, Theatre A)

Within museums, the competence developed by each professional is represented in the collection and a core mission is to preserve that collection. One respondent said that sometimes it is necessary to remind curators that the collection is not their own but something they manage on behalf of society:

... the working conditions here are the curator's responsibility. It is difficult at times to make them realize that the collection is not theirs personally—they are so protective of the collection you'd think it was their personal property. (Middle-level Professional Director A, Museum A)

Personal development for the audience is close to the hearts of performing arts and museum representatives. For those outside the natural science domains in particular, the idea of challenging the public and contributing to their personal growth is paramount. This quest may be grounded either in a desire to extend one's personal understanding to the audience or in the more general role of education as a means of communicating facts:

People tell me, "You are an art historian. You are concerned with art. Why do you have to get others interested? Why can't you just leave them alone—let them attend soccer matches?" My answer is that I truly believe that this is a quality-of-life issue. It depends, of course, on how much of a missionary you are. If you really don't want to [be a missionary], you don't have to [be one]. But you really shouldn't reject [this approach] until you've had a chance to try it—that is what we are doing; we believe that art and culture enhance one's quality of life—and then consider how much of a missionary you want to be. (Professional Director, Museum C)

It has a lot to do with ... what the audience receives. Is it quality? You can discuss what is meant by quality, but really, are these important experiences? Do they play at their best? Do they impart something important, human? Do they play good music—in a good way? Do they communicate—do they touch the audience? (Artistic Director, Orchestra B)

In newspapers, a true journalistic identity includes a passion for journalism. The journalist or editor understands the ability to capture and explore important issues on behalf of individuals, groups and society. This goes beyond mere report-

Hilde Fjellvær

ing. It has to do with developing content and resembles what researchers do by using pieces of information and observations to create a story that conveys an important message or spreads knowledge. At the same time, newspapers have another mission: to inform and report by serving as an independent voice and also as official watchdog. This role is seen to legitimize newspapers as important social institutions, similar to universities:

... the owners and management need to respect the fact that this is more than a money-making machine, that we have a role to play as a partner in society ... A newspaper ... is supposed to ensure people's enlightenment, democracy and so forth, which is part of the editorial charter—that is what people expect from us. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper B)

We've always been aware—you know, it isn't paper production that we do here, what we do is information-gathering and information-processing ... so I think that the ... comparison between a university and a newspaper is not so silly. The executive director doesn't approve of my calling the newspaper an institution, but I say that it is an institution, a public institution—it is the financial and the spiritual worlds. And we are in - some like to call it the cathedral, and I agree—ours is a public responsibility. (Professional Director, Newspaper C)

Table 5.3 on page 87 summarizes the different expressions and indicators of mission logic across organizations.

Table 5.3: Indicators of mission logic across contexts

Organizational type	Mission logic indicators
Hospitals	<p>In the professional domains emphasis is on patients and patient needs. The patient view differs across professions. The focus is individual patients or specific groups of patients.</p> <p>For others the emphasis is primarily on patient rights or to fulfill the role of patient advocate.</p> <p>Constantly maintaining and developing a high level of competence is considered important by all leaders but especially those in university hospitals. They have a responsibility to develop and maintain a certain level of competence on behalf of society.</p>
Education	<p>Within universities, justification is tied to research areas, pride in building competence, and an emphasis on creativity and autonomy.</p> <p>Within colleges, there are individuals and departments with a similar focus but also professional leaders who favor teaching and student satisfaction over research.</p>
Culture	<p>There is a strong emphasis on art as an elevated and informed creative process, seen as inaccessible to the uninformed and uninitiated. Importance is accorded to independent and creative processes.</p> <p>For museums, the emphasis is on developing and ensuring competence and on developing and preserving collections. Identity is tied to the collection.</p>
Newspapers	<p>Journalism as a creative force and an independent voice, reliant on intrinsic motivation.</p> <p>Role as communicator and watchdog, societal mission. A newspaper is an institution similar to a university, something that is inherent in a civilized society.</p>

Mission logic, then, is beliefs in what organizations should be doing. Different contexts mean different representations. The internal focus in hospitals is curing, caring and research, while in educational institutions it is research. Mission is seen as the expression of an artistic idea in performing arts organizations and as the preservation of objects in museums. Mission has an internal direction in newspapers, along much the same lines as in the performing arts, in that it has to do with exploring and developing an idea. Mission can also have an external direction. Examples include the obligation of professionals in hospitals and in edu-

cational institutions to constantly develop a competence base; for educational and cultural institutions to educate directly or indirectly through exhibitions and other means of communication; and for newspapers to act as a public watchdog and to provide information.

Bureaucratic logic: Who should act, and how

With bureaucratic logic, the emphasis is on systems, routines and structures and also in the belief that authority rests on a formal mandate. Systems and routines have value in and of themselves in addition to being prerequisites for the functioning of complex organizations. Justification for one's actions is found in a charter drawn up by a governing body. Positions are viewed in terms of their official mandates. This is clear when respondents emphasize their right to make decisions based on a mandate of some kind:

It says [in the strategic plan] that we should be "an open, collaborative theatre." It may sound like an empty phrase, but that's what's behind our discussions about whether to be part of this film festival. And that is my mandate—to say, yes, we are going to participate. There's been opposition, of course ... but I don't have to worry about my mandate; I can look at it and see that they are a natural partner. People may agree or disagree, but it's right here in the mandate. (Executive Director, Theatre B)

In dual leadership, for example, a charter can be used both to enhance the scope of decisions in which an administrative leader may engage and it can be used as an overall legitimizing device for the priorities set by a unitary leader. Thus decision-making authority that might otherwise become ambiguous is reinforced. Table 5.4 page 89 shows how bureaucratic logic is expressed in different contexts.

Table 5.4: Indicators of bureaucratic logic across contexts

Organizational type	Bureaucratic logic indicators
Hospitals	There is little direct evidence of bureaucratic logic, but many examples of opposition to or skepticism about the effects of pervasive systems and structures involving quantitative rather than qualitative measuring and reporting systems.
Education	Expressed through a belief in governance structures and systems and the need for rules and mandates with respect to work, often tied to a belief in command and control with respect to hierarchy. Many respondents are concerned about growing bureaucratic domains and the ensuing limitations on professional autonomy and their ability to achieve research and teaching goals.
Culture	Some emphasis on mandate or charter serving to legitimize roles and decisions. Administrators stress the importance of rules, regulations and structures while professionals feel the constraints of the same rules, regulations and structures.
Newspapers	Little evidence. Belief in the need for pervasive systems for activity planning and for guidelines and frameworks.

Bureaucratic logic is rarely expressed by *hospital* respondents, but some leaders understand the mandate to be important in guiding their decisions and actions:

They told me that I had to have a medical background, so I said, no, I don't. I have management experience and other skills, but all the doctors are responsible for what they do and the department directors are ... responsible for the people they manage, and everyone has to make sure that everything ... is done responsibly. So I have supervisory responsibilities and make sure that everything is administered properly.
(Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital A)

In the field of *education* there is a difference between colleges and universities. In colleges, both professional and administrative leaders are concerned with prudently following systems and meeting government obligations. In universities, some administrative leaders are concerned with systems and routines, but instead of emphasizing these as independent goals they state that systems are important as frameworks for professional activities:

Hilde Fjellvær

We are—the ministry has agreed—we are a college that has very strongly prioritized what we call implementation of official management systems. (Professional Director, College C)

We have introduced regular dialogue meetings at every level. The strategy is set, and in the last few years we have developed action plans. And we follow up on these. We have to have them. Here, we have tried to push for an all-inclusive system and now we are a try-out department for a total governance system. (Middle-level Executive Director B, University A)

Cultural respondents show little direct evidence of bureaucratic logic, and again the expression of this logic evidences pluralistic organizations as executive directors refer to their charters, bestowed by the government or their Board. As illustrated above, page 89, one cultural director used the external charter to support the decision to take part in a local festival. The dominant professional coalition was opposed to this decision, as they saw it as a way of redirecting resources that could have been channelled into internal professional development. There are few traces of bureaucratic logic in *newspapers*, although one executive director discusses the need to introduce strategies and plans, as well as indicators to measure the implementation of the plans in all areas of the newspaper. Another director strongly emphasizes the need for everyone to follow the same rules and standards:

But everyone has to draw up official activity plans. It applies to the entire house. The editorial staff as well. We have action plans for every single department. Starting from the annual meeting. Every section has an annual meeting where they write up their action plans of what they will prioritize and accomplish for the next year. It is part of the budget process too. That way plans can be adjusted if there is neither funds nor space for them (Executive Director, Newspaper B)

Resource logic: How to spend

For many professionals, financial resources are a source of anxiety. Others see resource management as an important part of the organization and their position. When organizational purpose is understood as managing resources as efficiently as possible, resource logic is active. Here, justification for decisions and actions rests in the goal of financial stability and security and in the quest for accountable and responsible resource management. It is important not to spend more than one has—to save for “a rainy day.” Resource logic is manifested in a focus on

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

budgetary and financial control systems and in a view of these as essential tools for achieving the goal of financial accountability. Intrinsic motivation is of little importance, and in terms of internally and externally directed logics, resource logic lies somewhere in between:

We are concerned with deciding on some goals. It has to do with the total quality management process. We have to set demands and standards—and assign research time based on how much faculty actually produces, so that we can start to focus on those who really do publish. (Executive Director, College C)

A high degree of resource focus is induced by external stakeholders, and external influence often justifies respondents' concerns about prudent resource management:

I am perhaps a product of my own experiences. In my opinion, they take government money. But it is the owner's interests that should prevail. That's whose interests should be taken care of first and foremost. Faculty will disagree, of course. They think that their interests should come first. We have an organization that delegates upwards. I think there's too little control with such huge resources. (Middle-level Executive Director B, University A)

Resource logic is different from mission logic in that its representation does not vary much across contexts. It does, however, demonstrate the influence of pluralistic contexts, as resource logic is not typically found among coalition representatives whose beliefs are consistent with profession or mission logic. Administrators, non-dominant professionals and some respondents who, despite their professional position, express little belief in profession or mission logic do express beliefs that are consistent with resource logic. Table 5.5, page 92 shows how resource logic is represented across contexts.

Table 5.5: Indicators of resource logic across contexts

Organizational type	Resource logic indicators
Hospitals	Focus on prudent use of resources and a strong belief in sound resource management. Some leaders see accountable resource management as an important part of management even if they see other purposes as more central.
Education	Respecting resource limitations is viewed as part of the role of administrators and some professional leaders. Research and teaching are seen from a resource perspective, in terms of ability to generate revenue and prudent management of resources.
Culture	Administrators and unitary leaders emphasize issues of responsibility and accountability; they value control over resources and the management of resources either for profit or for the fulfillment of a mandate.
Newspapers	Little evidence, but one leader views budgets and management accounting systems as a purpose in themselves.

Although no *hospital* respondents demonstrate an adherence to resource logic, its existence is evidenced when respondents discuss resource management ideas or show awareness of the issue. Although they may question the effect of dominant resource logics, they are pragmatic and to some extent accept this way of thinking. In the field of *education*, the beliefs of administrative leaders are consistent with resource logic:

We are in control of our finances and we have a budget model that is generally perceived as fair. We don't have the same kind of overspending as College C, either. We operate within our budget ... if some department has a deficit or a large profit in a given year, the Board would be on to it immediately, asking the dean to appear before the Board with an explanation. The Board is very competent in this respect. (Executive Director, College D)

In *cultural* and *news* organizations respondents with a sharp focus on resources are administrators, and their views are very different from those represented in profession and mission logics:

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

You draw up a budget when you decide to take on a project. Then it is the project manager's responsibility to see the project through to the assigned deadline—for example, the opening of an exhibition—while keeping to the budget. (Executive Director, Museum C)

Business logic: With an aim to gain

When business logic guides decisions and actions, an organization is seen as any commercial enterprise having to adapt to the demands of the market. Purpose is closely linked to issues of performance. Although financial performance can be an important measure of success, indicators such as meeting the needs of a market, clients or customers interested in what the organization has to offer are just as important for the organizations in this study. According to business logic, organizations should adapt to an external market in order to access resources (e.g., students, patients, audience members or readers) or to ensure market access for clients (students). One should aim for external recognition through ranking or some other external quality measure such as number of tickets sold. For *educational* organizations, for example, this means that students are seen as clients or products. *Cultural* organizations can be seen as operating in an entertainment market, along with all kinds of entertainment venues, rather than as concerned with developing and presenting high-quality art. The logic is indicated by an external focus and definitions of success are also based on external rather than internal perspectives:

Nowadays the different academic communities have to constantly consider some kind of market. That's difficult. We've seen a dot.com market. It's been down and now it is coming up—and it looks better than it used to ... but we need to educate attractive candidates, and program plans can't be all carved in stone. We have to be willing to make adjustments and still be careful so that those adjustments don't hurt the basic structure of the program. Business leaders who come in are quick to warn that we must keep up the basics—not to lose sight of the basic competence. (Middle-level Executive Director A, University A)

Table 5.6 page 94, presents a summary of how business logic is represented in the different contexts.

Table 5.6: Indicators of business logic across contexts

Organizational type	Business logic indicators
Hospitals	No direct examples of leaders expressing the need for or supporting the introduction of market forces. Some respondents fear the effects of introducing more private actors.
Education	Research and teaching are seen as important generators of revenue if the purpose boils down to institutional survival. Teaching is seen as successful if graduates enter relevant job markets.
Culture	Achievement is measured in terms of audience numbers and tickets sold. One professional director displays a market focus when he is concerned with avoiding cannibalism between productions. A focus on market size and development displayed by administrators and some professional leaders.
Newspapers	The focus is on commercial viability, profit centers, financial management, return on investment, owner expectations, market size and market development.

The overwhelming majority of examples of business logic are found among *newspaper* respondents. Executive directors in particular speak of return on investment, obligations to shareholders, products and market relations, and in general stress the importance of financial returns as a vital goal. Several respondents indicated that new ownership constellations had shifted the focus towards business logic:

Top management, the Board and I ... are very concerned that enterprises such as ours cooperate with other regional enterprises in order to be stronger in the Norwegian market—to operate on the national market—so we spend a great deal of time ... striving for a strong and dominating position in our part of the country, where we should be the largest in all channels. We're not there yet, but we have to get to that point—on the Internet and in radio and TV as well. (Executive Director, Newspaper C)

Media ownership has changed. In a way, owners are more professional than they used to be. Having moved from a political party press and many family-owned media businesses, ... now they are all listed on the stock exchange, at least the owners are listed, and thus the demands for return on investment are much greater. (Executive Director, Newspaper A)

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

No respondents from *hospitals* directly express beliefs according to business logic, but its presence is evidenced by several who are skeptical and discuss the real or potential effects of such guiding principles in a hospital setting:

We met the demand there, and in a way demonstrated that we could deliver, that we were capable of producing what is asked for. They didn't know that we gave courses before—"Courses, what on earth are those?" Previously there had been an asthma class, and perhaps a stop-smoking class and a few diabetes classes. But "What is this—they are doing this?" So we invited them in and showed them—this is what we do. (Lower-level Professional Director, Hospital C)

Some *educational* organizations focus on production and adaptation to reach expected performance expressed as quantifiable measures. Students are seen as clients or products and researchers are seen as members of a production team. Organizations are willing to adapt to a market because of concern either for their clients (students get jobs) or for their own survival—to get enough applicants. There is a marked difference here between university and college respondents. Universities are not concerned with their own survival, whereas colleges are. Respondents can be roughly divided into two groups, one in which business logic is expressed through a focus on client and product image or “student production”—that is, the number of credits awarded each year in order to secure the institutions’ budgets. The other is expressed through talk about adapting to a market in a classical demand and supply sense:

There may be around 850 to 900 students passing through over the course of the year, but nowadays we think in terms of student credit production, and last year we produced about 830 60-point credits, or the equivalent, earned by full-time students. And that, in fact, is approximately the number of students who take an exam or so. (Middle-level Professional Director, College B)

These poor ones, the five people in the forestry department, we have a challenge here. They are entitled to decent treatment, but we cannot keep them here year in and year out when there is no demand for their competency. (Professional Director, College C)

In universities there is less of a focus on adapting to student demand, and certainly not to let external interests influence internal priorities. Still, academic fields like technology are facing constant and rapid change, leading to a focus on securing their graduates appropriate employment by providing students with the latest knowledge and expertise:

Hilde Fjellvær

We have to be very careful what we do, and also a little courageous when we decide what to teach students. If they don't learn what they need to know, they'll be in trouble on the job market. If we teach them the wrong things—if their knowledge is not appropriate for the job—they're in trouble. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

In *cultural* organizations one might expect a business focus to be quite common. This was not the case in the present study, which could be due to the small number of executive leaders interviewed. Still, there are examples, such as one respondent who sees the purpose as providing entertainment products:

But I think in order to succeed in the fight for audiences, with the intense competition that keeps getting tougher and tougher, you need to go in new directions. (Executive Director, Orchestra B)

Other executive directors are concerned not so much with financial performance as with achievement in terms of audience outreach. Success, then, is understood in terms of what audiences can be reached, and in what numbers.

Business logic and resource logic are connected but differ in terms of the activity the basic belief triggers. A resource logic perspective triggers activities aimed at preserving existing resources, not to overspend and accumulate reserves. Business logic on the other hand aims for increased production, adapting to market and increasing financial performance. On the other hand these two logics share a focus on financial resources and keeping the interests of external stakeholders in mind. Although the data did not provide sufficient evidence to support its inclusion traces of a market logic was also found. Facing co-existing profession or mission logics the two (or three) money-related logics lead to similar tensions in organizations. For the purpose of discussion competing logics in Chapter 6 it can therefore be useful to think of these as a combined money logic.

Purpose logics discussion

Thornton (2004, p. 41) says that institutional logics specify ideal models of practice and symbol systems. This is helpful when we want to uncover the underlying meaning of points of conflict and conformity in decision-making. In the first part of this chapter I described attributes of five such types and how they are repres-

ented across contexts. Table 5.7 page 98 summarizes how the different purpose logics are represented across contexts.

The study shows that multiple logics co-exist in pluralistic environments. Co-existing purpose logics will sometimes create conflicting and competing logics in organizations. The existence of competing logics is the topic for chapter 6.

The identified logics uncovered in pluralistic organizations were described according to attributes tied to motivation, identity and logic of action. In addition to these attributes, Thornton (2004) notes how control mechanisms characterizing one logic may be different under another logic. Control or governance mechanisms can thus be seen as an attribute of logics. Here, however, I propose that it might be equally beneficial to consider control mechanisms not only as attributes of different logics but also as a set of governance logics dependent on the underlying logic, which I call purpose logics. This is illustrated in Figure 5.1 page 76.

For many respondents in this study, governance mechanisms also seem to represent a justification in itself. For some actors, following governance logic is at least as important as justifications embedded in purpose logic. There is another reason to distinguish between purpose and governance logics. While multiple and competing purpose logics in themselves lead to challenges and ambiguity, the tension increases when organizational actors firmly set in one type of purpose and its accompanying governance logic meet what is considered an opposing governance logic. First there is the presence of other domains and coalitions whose basic thinking is different from one's own, and then there is the fact that the accompanying governance logic is applied to one's own working environment.

Table 5.7: Purpose logics across contexts

	Hospitals	Education	Culture	Newspapers
Profession logic	Strong in all domains. Influences perceptions of who are legitimate leaders, how tasks should be divided and interaction between professions.	Strong faculty allegiance to profession influences opinions about who should hold leadership positions. Little focus on jurisdictional issues.	Professional identity is important. No jurisdictional issues except in museums. Importance is accorded to intrinsic motivation.	Professional identity is very important. Clear professional/ administrative division of roles and tasks.
Mission	Strong belief in mission. Focus is on patient care, patient cure or to ensure equal treatment of all patient groups. Strong commitment to developing new knowledge.	Belief in and commitment to research. In universities this is attached to a related commitment - teaching. In colleges the commitment is often to either teaching or research.	Belief in and commitment to developing and making art; building and preserving collection. Belief in communicating with and educating the public.	Belief in and commitment to journalistic creativity. Emphasis on the role of creativity and the intrinsic motivation it requires. Equally important to act as public watchdog and to inform the public.
Bureaucratic	Little direct evidence. Skepticism about time and resources spent on systems and structures for quantitative reporting and performance measurement.	Belief in need for governance structure and systems.	Charter or mandate legitimizing roles and decisions. Some emphasis on the importance of designing proper systems and routines.	Belief in the need for activity planning systems, guidelines and administrative frameworks.
Resource	The focus of non-dominant professions in particular is the prudent resource management attached to leadership.	Research and teaching as seen from a resource perspective, in terms of both ability to generate revenue and systems designed for appropriate resource management.	Some emphasis on issues of responsibility and accountability embedded in leadership positions.	Little evidence.
Business	Little evidence. Fear about the introduction of market forces in health care.	Research and teaching seen as generators of revenue.	Achievement orientation: Success is measured in quantitative terms such as number of tickets sold.	Focus on financial performance, market share and return on investment.

Governance logics

While purpose logics comprise a variety of justifications for decisions and actions related to organizational or professional purposes, governance logics is understood as the values and beliefs defining the principles by which organizations are governed. These are the various beliefs that different actors hold to be legitimate control structures and systems, as depicted in Figure 5.1 page 76. I propose that governance logics follow from purpose logics and often are representations of purpose logics but are important for other reasons as well. First, governance logics can represent a purpose in itself if a belief in the type of governance mechanism is a dominant motivator for leader action rather than a purpose logic. Next, as different coalitions in an organization believe in different purpose logics and this belief is reinforced by the existence of different governance logics, powerful competing logics could be at play. Finally, governance logics are important because they may strongly influence what mechanisms leaders use to cope with competing logics. Three governance logics were identified. I have named them command and control logic, accountability logic, and autonomy logic. Table 5.8 shows how the different governance logics are represented across contexts. The cells in the table have been shaded to illustrate the frequency of occurrence.

From the table we see that belief in a command and control (C&C) mechanism applies mostly to administrative leaders in cultural and news organizations. Autonomy as a governing principle is strong among professionals across all contexts. Accountability logic lies somewhere between the other two logics and is found in hospitals and some educational organizations. It represents a different kind of thinking about control and also seems to be used as a reconciliation mechanism in the face of multiple interests and domains.

Table 5.8: Governance logics across contexts

	Command and control	Accountability	Autonomy
Hospitals	Few respondents express a belief in hierarchical control, but there are references to challenges due to meeting this logic.	Leaders express a belief in accountability logic as a way to fulfill the obligations inherent in the leadership role. Non-dominant professionals especially are concerned that this is a way to govern multiple interests and domains.	Many respondents see the importance of autonomous working conditions for professionals, especially doctors.
Education	Several respondents in professional and administrative positions at colleges express a belief that this control mechanism is the solution to tensions arising from multiple logics and domains.	Less emphasis on leadership role as it is frequently considered a part of the profession. Accountability is seen to rest with the individual, as a way to reconcile the external demand for control with the internal need for autonomy. The idea seems to be that as long as members only use available resources, there will be minimal interference.	Importance accorded to the need for individual and professional autonomy. In universities, both professional and administrative leaders agree on this. In colleges, personal autonomy is given more attention than domain.
Culture	Administrators and unitary leaders in museums express a belief in hierarchical control.	Belief that accountability is personal rather than attached to position. Few examples.	The emphasis is on individual rather than professional autonomy. No opportunity for anyone outside the professional domain to have input into the creative or research process.
Newspapers	Some indication that hierarchical control could work in the administrative domain. One administrator claims that it makes no sense not to use this system for all.	Little evidence. One editor uses the budget as an example of how the Executive Director can exercise power.	Strong emphasis on individual autonomy and influence in the creative process and on the importance of protecting professional interests. Less emphasis on the need for individual autonomy in the administrative domain than in the other contexts.

Command and Control

Command and control logic rests on a strong belief in following a formal chain of command. Emphasis is placed on the hierarchical structure. Where in the hierarchy decisions should be made is important. Loyalty is expected to be directed towards one's formal superiors and thus authority lies in the position, not in leader competence or background. Anyone in a leadership position should know where to direct his or her loyalty, and this is always up the line:

I have always emphasized the importance of the chain of command. I have repeated time and again that respecting the chain of command is the only thing that can save us. We come from five different cultures, five old structures set deep in people's minds. A number of people have worked here for 30 or 40 years ... Thus, I have continuously pointed out that the only thing that can save us is never diverting from the line. Decisions filter both downwards and upwards, and so critique and so on from below should also come up through the lines. You don't go to anyone but the closest manager, and I try to emphasize this all the time. It is starting to work. (Executive Director, Museum C)

Respondents who express the belief that decisions and actions should follow command and control logic express beliefs that are consistent with bureaucratic or business logics. Direct evidence of control and command is predominant among administrators in cultural and news organizations, such as illustrated above. Indirect evidence is found among respondents who see challenges and tensions associated with the presence of command and control logic:

I: Is the deans meeting also an arena for changing decisions and policy?

R: Yes, absolutely. It is an important function. But with the current Board I have occasionally found that this does not fall on fertile soil. When the rector specifies that he has clarified an issue with the deans, it doesn't tally with what is close to their hearts—"We are the Board" [and the decision is ours to make]. (Executive Director, University B)

Belief in command and control as an appropriate governance mechanism is least proclaimed in *hospitals*. Here, no respondents personally express a belief in command and control logic but several mention that they have encountered this kind of thinking. The example of a former CEO is notable and serves as a reminder that this type of governance logic exists also in hospital contexts:

Hilde Fjellvær

As a new CEO, he reorganized the hospital and made four divisions, each headed by a director. You know, just this idea of introducing directors in a hospital, where everyone else was talking about clinics and departments, was alien. We had division directors, a corporate enterprise model - and he was the CEO. It was all split up, but almost all of the somatic part of the hospital was one division. And they almost always came out with a deficit—it was much too big. (CEO Advisor, Hospital A)

In *cultural* and *news* organizations, command and control logic is associated with administrators. The difference is that administrators in newspapers are aware that this type of governance mechanism will meet opposition outside the administrative domain, whereas cultural administrators see it as an appropriate mechanism regardless of domain:

He [the artistic director] has no personnel responsibility—the artistic director is under contract—it is important to understand that he is employed here on contract and that he has no personnel responsibilities. He has become more aware of this—previously he may have understood that he had personnel responsibilities. It isn't very clear ... he cannot summon an artist to correct the course—well, not without me. (Executive Director, Orchestra B)

Educational organizations are perhaps the most interesting in this respect. On the one hand, there are those who believe in the virtues of hierarchical structure and see it as a means of clarifying responsibilities or where loyalties should be directed. On the other hand, there are many who see this type of governance as problematic and, as I will show in the discussion on competing logics in the next chapter, many who insist that it is detrimental to university life .

The issue isn't really unitary or dual leadership. The issue is to design a system where professional leadership is visible in a straight line from top to bottom. Hierarchy provides a system throughout. (Executive Director, University A)

In my opinion we would be better off with one leader in charge of everything. Not doing everything - but with overall responsibility. I don't see how this different here than for any other large enterprise. (Executive Director, College C)

It is a tragedy. As long as we submit written reports they think everything is in order. But it just doesn't work that way around here. In research results can take a long time to make an impact. People win the Nobel prize for projects they worked on 30 years ago. Now all they want us to do is count and report. We keep measuring and counting. But what do the numbers really tell you? There simply is no trust in this system any more. (Professional Director, University B)

Autonomy logic

Autonomy logic rests on a belief in individuals' need and willingness to follow standards set by a profession. Control relies on ethics and peer surveillance, and decisions are as much bottom-up as top-down. Proponents of this logic of governance believe that decisions and actions should be based on the strength of actors' competence, expertise and professional judgement. Systems are aimed at addressing the need of individual professionals for autonomy in their daily work and loyalty is directed so as to uphold professional integrity and to develop professional competence. Emphasis is placed on how things should be done and by whom, and authority rests with competence—not automatically with formal position:

If we consider the relationship between the military command system and its influence on academic production, I'd say that it is as good as nothing. It doesn't apply in this kind of context. I think everyone appreciates that the military command structure isn't suited to academic development. It isn't a useful approach. (Professional Director, College F)

In *hospitals*, autonomy as a guiding principle is held up as an important factor in motivating professional employees in general and doctors in particular. One leader points out that ensuring professionals' autonomy is a cornerstone of establishing his own credibility and legitimacy as a leader of the department:

I think acceptance comes from the fact that we have a structure, and I think they agree that we have accomplished things. So I think that their acceptance of management depends on whether their work situation is as good as it used to be, in the sense that they know what they should do and have room to maneuver ... The closer to the profession ... or the closer to the practice of the profession, the closer to the profession a leader has to be? Yes, I have never considered it that way but it is an appropriate reflection. Thus my legitimacy would disappear the moment I no longer took the doctors and their input seriously—not giving them room to maneuver. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

Although autonomy is also emphasized in *cultural* institutions, in these organizations the focus is more on individual professional development and independence and less on autonomy as an overall governance principle for the organization. This can be explained by the fact that in both theaters and orchestras each member is an independent artist yet the relationship between the artists and the artistic director is hierarchical and follows established rules (Wennes, 2002).

Hilde Fjellvær

Some of the motivation was, of course, the enthusiasm for the work and for the goals. Working in a museum ... you lose some of that enthusiasm if you feel that you aren't involved in controlling the work ... With museum culture, it can be very difficult to accept the fact that something is decided if you haven't been a part of the decision-making. (Professional Director, Museum C)

For individual journalists in *newspapers*, independence and a focus on professional development is as important as it is for professionals in the other contexts, and it is vital for the editor-in-chief to be associated with these ideals, in terms of his legitimacy. Yet, it is interesting to note that in newspapers another factor influences one's views about appropriate governing principles. A journalist is like an actor who has to perform every evening on the stage:

My only allegiance is to the deadline—that is what I have to relate to. No one else can decide what I do. (Newspaper illustrator, Newspaper C)

The strong emphasis on the need for autonomous working conditions within educational organizations is not surprising. Within universities, the importance of such forms of governance is recognized by both administrative and professional staff. This is also the case for the two small educational institutions in the cultural domain.

It's a university, after all. People don't work on orders from the boss. Each and every person is working for himself. It would be nonsensical to try and control people in the professional domain. I try to keep an eye on whether they publish, and if something obviously doesn't work within teaching or research, I can intervene. But we expect everyone to be autonomous. (Lower-level Professional Director B, University A)

The biggest challenge, and a clear danger nowadays, is that professors turn their back on the university. It is a natural reaction if you no longer feel that you have any influence. Every professor has a range of arenas in which to express himself. The university is only one of those arenas. If he is pushed too far he can just choose a different arena. It would be hard to do anything about it. So we have to take care not to put ourselves in a situation where faculty turn their backs on us. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

What perhaps is surprising is the substantial difference between university respondents and regional college respondents. Among the latter there is much less focus on this in general, and some respondents are directly opposed to the call for autonomy.

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

Well, universities/colleges and the national public health service, which I know well, are in great need of people who have administrative/financial insight and dexterity. It is a prerequisite for a well-functioning organization that financial/administrative systems work. Regardless of who gets a management position, unless standards for management and control are adhered to, they will go bankrupt. If you let academia and the professions run loose, it will all go wrong. (Professional Director, College C)

The tension resulting from these competing logics will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

Accountability logic

Accountability logic falls somewhere between command and control logic and autonomy logic. It rests on a commitment to meeting explicit and implicit expectations with regard to a leader's authority. The guiding principle is accountable decision-making and behavior. The emphasis is on what needs to be done, given internal and external constraints, and the key is prioritization. Loyalty is expected with respect to assigned roles and tasks in order to get the work done through responsible resource management:

They have their own budgets and control those within the department or section. One of the departments make it a clear priority to limit administrative expenses—they prioritize research—and as long as they deliver along expected dimensions we accept that. (Middle-level Executive Director A, University A)

I found accountability logic primarily within *hospitals*. Respondents representing a belief in this ideal say that leaders must understand that they are directly responsible for the outcomes of their departments. Leaders from non-dominant coalitions in particular stress that they are accountable for the performance of all coalitions and therefore must support them in their endeavors:

I have ... management experience, but I have 18 doctors, 10 chief physicians, a professor and assistant doctors ... and for them to have a nurse as their leader, and no longer in a so-called unitary - dual or whatever it was called at that time ... I had to be crystal clear that around here I also have responsibility for medical quality. I have total responsibility for my part of the organization. I am the administrative director of the clinic, so if any of the doctors make a mistake, I'm the one formally responsible. Therefore, it is my responsibility to make sure that they are competent. Some of them saw this as quite an experiment in the beginning, but I think they have ceased to do so. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

Hilde Fjellvær

In *educational* organizations the focus is less on leadership responsibility and more on individual responsibility throughout the organization. This goes hand in hand with autonomy logic and the idea of accountability, and thus can be a way to reconcile the desire for autonomous working relationships with the external demand for more direct control:

It is important to make the operative level responsible—they have to face the consequences of their ... actions. I do not believe it is healthy for any institution or ... entity to just go to “Mom and Dad” to bail them out. The result of that is that they won’t have to take full responsibility for adapting to the changes in their environment. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

Within *cultural* organizations and *newspapers*, belief in accountability as a governing principle seems to be more personal and less attached to position, although most of those who express such beliefs are in the administrative domain:

We are pulling in opposite directions, but you could say that disagreement is a good thing. And there certainly is disagreement. An artistic director who will be around for only four years will see no reason to set aside a million NOK to upgrade the building—he’d rather use that million on the stage. So we’re pulling at opposite ends. My job is to consider the long-term consequences and the commercial and contractual issues within the proper limits. (Executive Director, Theatre B)

Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter I have identified and described the multiple kinds of logics upon which leaders in pluralistic organizations base their decisions and actions. Two categories of logics were identified: purpose and governance. Purpose logics are different sets of beliefs, held by organizational actors, about what constitute the core purposes of their work, position or organization. Governance logics are beliefs about what it is that constitute appropriate systems of control in organizations.

Based on the data in this study, five different types of purpose logics were identified: profession, mission, bureaucratic, resource and business. *Profession logic* has to do with beliefs attached to the establishment and development of professional identity through a focus on jurisdiction, norms and values, and expectations with regard to the professional background of those in leadership positions. *Mission logics* are the beliefs tied to what is seen as the personal and organizational mission. Decisions and actions are guided by what actors believe is

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

the organization's core tasks. *Bureaucratic logic* is based on the belief that mandate, systems, structures and routines will guide decisions and actions. *Resource logic* is based on prudent resource management. Finally, *business logic* is grounded in the belief that the primary purpose is to serve the needs of the owner, the market and the customer. Evidence of the identified logics was found in all organizational contexts, with some being more common in particular contexts than others. Profession and mission logics are strongly felt across contexts, while bureaucratic logic is common among administrators in education and the arts. It is experienced as a constraint by professionals in hospitals and educational institutions. Resource logic is most common in education, and business logic is met primarily in newspapers and cultural organizations, with some evidence found also in education.

Attached to purpose logics but important in themselves are governance logics. Three types of governance logic were identified. *Control and command logic* is built on the notion that control can be achieved only by adhering to the hierarchical chain of command. *Autonomy logic* rests on a belief that the best possible results will be achieved when professionals driven by intrinsic motivation are allowed and encouraged to have a high degree of control over the content and organization of their work. *Accountability logic* builds on a sense of responsibility for procedures and performance embedded in taking on a leadership position. Governance logic is perhaps more readily identifiable in managerial action than purpose logics, and it explicitly influences the work lives of organizational members. Thus tension due to conflicting governance logics can be powerful. While control mechanisms are attributes of purpose logics, governance logics therefore have a strong influence on pluralistic organizations in themselves. This is especially true if a specific governance logic is applied to organizational members whose coalition is attached to another governance logic. This type of tension will be further discussed in Chapter 6. My analysis reveals a clear relationship between purpose logics and governance logic, as illustrated in Figure 5.1 page 76 and again in Table 5.9 page 108.

Table 5.9: Relationship between purpose and governance logics

Type of logic	Command and control	Accountability	Autonomy
Profession	One respondent clearly expresses a belief in C&C yet almost takes profession logic for granted. Two others cite challenges in profession logic, in terms of control, but realize that C&C is not the answer.	Several respondents express the need to prioritize in the professional context and the need for administrative systems that can support professional activity without transferring control of the administrative domain to the professional domain.	Clear link. Jurisdictional issue is addressed by many in relation to leader legitimacy and authority. Many cite detrimental effects of non-autonomy with regard to professional identification and participation.
Mission	No link	Respondents from hospitals and from non-dominant professions stress the need to prioritize goals.	Clear link. Many respondents state that the core purpose can be achieved only by ensuring autonomous working conditions and allowing room for individual creativity.
Bureaucratic	Few respondents. Clear link. Some respondents favor C&C logic but hold out little hope for this due to the prevalence of profession logic.	A few examples of a link. Respondents who mix the two see this as a way of reconciling the need for systems and routines with the challenges associated with professional priorities.	Respondents explain that C&C logic cannot be used in these contexts and they therefore must work with autonomy logic.
Resource	No link	Clear link between belief in core purpose attached to resource management and accountability in terms of clear priorities.	No link
Business	Some respondents indicate that it is impossible to make money unless C&C logic is in place. Others see no difference between hospitals, education, culture organizations and regular business enterprises.	Very little evidence of a link.	Very little evidence of a link.

Chapter 5: A Multitude of Logics

As Table 5.9 shows, profession and mission logics are clearly linked to autonomy governance logic. At the other extreme, bureaucratic and business logics are clearly linked to command and control governance logic. There are examples of respondents who indicate that they support a governance logic that is not consistent with the purpose logic to which they also indicate allegiance. These respondents are few, however. Accountability logic seems to be a hybrid of the other two governance logics in that it lies somewhere between command and control and autonomy logics and in that its followers justify their actions from different bases. This is found, for example, in situations where mission logic is the actor's primary guide for action but, because of multiple and perhaps competing goals, priorities must be based on accountability logic.

An important finding in this chapter is that multiple logics exist side by side in different contexts, which suggests the existence of powerful competing logics. In the next chapter I will explore the main sets of competing logics and how they play out in different contexts. This will serve as a backdrop for the ensuing discussion of how organizations cope with competing logics under different executive role constellations. In this chapter I have not pursued the question of which logics are most representative of competing logics, but it will probably come as no surprise that mission and bureaucratic logics are often competing. There are also competing profession logics and competing mission logics. Of course, mission and money—whether money is seen as a resource or as an aim in itself—create powerful tensions across contexts.

Hilde Fjellvør

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

In Chapter 5 I discussed the existence of multiple logics in pluralistic organizations. In this chapter I take the investigation one step further and develop a set of general types of competing logics and consider whether and how they are expressed in the different contexts. This paves the way for an investigation into how organizations manage tensions due to competing logics under different executive role constellations. A core characteristic of pluralistic organizations is the presence of not only multiple but also competing logics. In fact much of the evidence detailing the logics identified in Chapter 5 appears in the form of negatives. Logics are evidenced by respondents' reaction to some value or belief contradictory to their own, and consequently respondents simultaneously indicate the existence of two sets of beliefs. In every case, ambiguous and sometimes contradictory forces are at play. There is the simultaneous presence of opposites (Denison et al., 1995), as logics deeply embedded in professional associations and identity guide the goals, beliefs and practices of individuals and groups. Dilemmas and tensions arising from competing logics are different from ambiguities resulting from simple misunderstandings or differences of opinion on a specific issue. Ambiguities due to different basic beliefs cannot be dispelled by means of a single decisive action but will have to be constantly addressed through a variety of measures. This calls for an understanding of different types of tensions and what they represent.

This chapter is organized as follows. In the next section I describe each type of competing logics. Four types are identified: competing profession logics, competing mission logics, mission logic versus bureaucratic logic, and mission logic versus money logics. After presenting all types, I discuss one context at the time, investigating the types of competing logics found and how they are expressed. Whether a context is influenced by one type of competing logic or all types, the various types will be discussed together. Finally, I return to each type of competing logic and sum up the characteristics by discussing commonalities and differences in how each type influences different contexts.

Types of competing logic

In this chapter, based on the five purpose logics identified in Chapter 5, I develop types of competing logic that are recognized across contexts. Four sets of competing logics are identified: profession versus profession logic, mission versus mission logic, mission versus bureaucratic logic, and mission versus money logics.

All four are identified by means of cross-referencing the evidence for each of the previously identified logics and checking for expressed sources of tension and ambiguity in and across contexts. In Table 6.1 on page 113 I briefly describe the characteristics of each type of competing logic (CL) and indicate where these characteristics are to be found.

Table 6.1 page 113 shows that the presence and importance of each type of logic vary across contexts. For example, hospitals experience all of the tensions whereas newspapers experience three and are concerned primarily with just one. I will present each type in turn before discussing how competing logics play out in different contexts. At the end of the chapter I will discuss similarities and differences across contexts for each type of competing logic, before summarizing the findings and indicate how they are related to the rest of the study.

Profession versus profession logic

Pluralistic organizations are characterized by the co-existence of two or more professions. The different professions are largely autonomous yet are dependent on the work of and services provided by other professions. This interdependence represents challenges in terms of reaching agreement on jurisdiction, coordination and common goals. Although professions do find ways to divide work on an everyday basis, conflict and negotiation over jurisdictional boundaries are a recurring theme. This means that although different professional coalitions may unite in the face of bureaucratic interference in professional work, tensions will arise due to competing professional logics. When multiple professions, with their embedded logics, co-exist within an organization, the result is typically tension over jurisdiction, leadership and decision-making. Competing profession logics come into play:

Table 6.1: Types of competing logics and their contexts

Type of competing logic	Description	Context representation
Profession-Profession	Co-existing profession logics within organizations results in tension over jurisdiction, leadership positions, and where decisions are made and by whom.	Clearly present in <i>hospitals</i> and <i>cultural</i> organizations. Some evidence in <i>education</i> on the issue of leadership positions.
Mission-Mission	Different co-existing conceptualizations of the organization's core purpose. Results in tension over a range of strategic priorities.	Clearly present in <i>hospitals</i> , <i>education</i> and <i>cultural</i> organizations. Some evidence in <i>newspapers</i> with respect to internal/external mission focus.
Mission-Bureaucratic	Different understandings of why organizational actors engage in work. The core purpose for the specific type of organization or belief is that work is based on organizational need for systems, routines and structures. Results in tension over the appropriateness of systems and routines in furthering the organizational mission and the appropriateness of governance mechanisms.	Clearly present in <i>hospitals</i> and <i>education</i> concerning performance measurement systems and appropriateness of governance mechanisms. Some evidence in <i>newspapers</i> with respect to appropriateness of governance systems.
Mission-Money	Different co-existing understandings of organizational purpose: to pursue long-term societal goal or to make money? Tension results when fulfillment of the core organizational purpose is constrained due to lack of resources.	Clearly present in <i>cultural</i> organizations and <i>newspapers</i> as to whether the organization is a commercial enterprise or a social institution. Clearly present in <i>hospitals</i> and <i>education</i> in that money is a constraint on mission fulfillment.

Some departments can't handle interdisciplinary management teams. This is due to strong head nurses still caught up in professional conflict - they think that it is very important to have more or less separate management structures for each profession and want to be managed by their own profession. They are ideologically opposed to cooperation. Their agenda is to promote their own profession. (Professional Director, Hospital E)

An obvious example of this type of competing logic is provided by hospitals. Although many respondents claimed that competition among professions was a

thing of the past, the above comment shows that jurisdictional issues can still be found. Other examples were found in museums and educational institutions.

Mission versus mission logic

Mission logic is concerned with purpose beyond the profession. The form or representation of mission logic varies across contexts, but all forms and representations share the belief that organizational purpose is concerned with autonomous, high-quality professional work based on individual creativity and competence. However, the actual functions and tasks executed to fulfill the purpose go hand in hand with professional background and vary with context. Thus individuals and coalitions may have different ideas about what their purpose is and organizations can face competing mission logics. Competing mission logics emerge if different groups or coalitions within the organization believe in different purposes, such as aesthetics versus entertainment or research versus the maintenance and preservation of a collection. As profession and mission logics often go hand in hand, one could say that, in general, the more professions there are within an organization, the greater the probability that tensions will arise due to competing mission logics.

The teachers here probably see themselves first and foremost as practicing musicians who happen to teach. Sure, we greatly emphasize the role of teaching, but they are performing musicians—that is their identity. (Professional Director, College G)

Mission versus bureaucratic logic

The third set of competing logics is one recognized by all respondents and all academics and casual commentators: the tension that arises in organizations when values and beliefs embedded in mission logic collide with those of bureaucratic logic. Essentially, tension arises because one group understands core value to reside in systems, routines and structures themselves. Other groups see core value in achieving a specific creative development process. Systems that are perceived as not directly supporting that aim are invariably viewed as constraints. Professionals do not object to bureaucracy in itself. Most professors recognize the need for someone to take care of student issues and accounting matters. Similarly, most administrative personnel realize that the college or university would not exist without professors. The problem mostly emerges because of the completely different governance logics attached to each purpose. Bureaucratic logic

does not allow for systems that lack visible and concrete control mechanisms. Mission and profession logics do not allow for systems in which performance is measured in numbers rather than according to the quality of a creative and autonomous process. Administrative systems are seen as separate from the organization's purpose, or, alternatively, are rarely allowed to function long enough to be useful in promoting core activity development. The greatest amount of tension is caused by the frequent introduction of command and control governance logic, whose main feature is a performance measurement system that "records rather than assesses how things are done." Or with the eyes of bureaucratic logic "a large group of people who spend a large amount of resources but nobody knows when, why or how."

I thought one of the older guys—it was about research—he had a good way of putting it: "What do we count? We count papers and people and who is employed and the number of scholarship recipients and postdoctoral fellows and the devil and his grandmother. But this is the same as trying to count an orchestra. Okay, here are four violinists, two viola players and one on the tuba and ... but what are we playing?" (Professional Director, University B)

Mission versus money logics

The last set of competing logics is mission logics versus money logics. The use of the plural is a reflection of the fact that tension over money issues in relation to mission is twofold. Ambiguity can arise over money as a constraint against the core purpose, or it can arise due to conflict over whether the core purpose is commercial success or a mission, such as research. In the first case, tension arises when available funds and resources are perceived as inadequate for the activities necessary to uphold the core purpose and money becomes a constraint on purpose.

We have to continuously balance excellence against breadth. And this concerns not only our university. No one has the answer to this challenge yet. We fumble—we establish centers for outstanding research and as soon as we have succeeded in establishing one we are hit with demands for resources from the new centre, which in turn implies taking funds from someone else who also needs them. It's a constant battle for resources. (Professional Director, University C)

The other source of tension is the confrontation of ideas about purpose embedded in one or more professional domains (e.g. cure, artistry, journalism) and the

notion that the purpose is to make money—to be seen foremost as a commercial enterprise:

There isn't always agreement on the editorial staff ... and the administration and the advertising department ... their goal is to make the greatest possible profit and fill up the cash register, to put it bluntly. And that certainly is not the editorial goal. The editorial staff wants to produce articles that everyone reads, so that the newspaper will be highly regarded. Fundamentally, journalists would rather work for a newspaper known and admired for its good journalism and its editorial profile than help a newspaper make a profit. They'd rather work for a newspaper with a deficit, as long as it's top quality. (Board Member, Newspapers B and C)

This essentially means that money logic can be argued to be a merger between business logic and aspects of the resource logic identified in Chapter 5. In fact, although the data for this study did not provide sufficient evidence to support this notion, there were traces of yet a third money-related logic—a market logic. Therefore, when competing mission and money logics are discussed, traces of all three will influence how this competing logic is expressed across contexts.

With this short description of each type of competing logic in mind, I will now look at each context, presenting and discussing typical categories of competing logics and how they are expressed within each context. Table 6.2 page 117 summarizes where and how these different types of competing logics are evidenced across the various contexts and may serve as a guide to the discussion on competing logics in pluralistic contexts.

Table 6.2 Key words of competing logics in different contexts

	Hospitals	Educational organizations	Cultural organizations	Newspapers
Profession-Profession	Equally important but not all alike.		Who gets to do what.	
Mission-Mission	One patient—patients—or patient rights	Research versus teaching.	Preserve, research and protect, or inform, educate and entertain. Enrich or entertain.	
Mission-Bureaucratic	Do the right thing or do things right.	Develop content or develop systems.		
Mission-Money	Cure and care or money to spare.	Institution or enterprise.	Art or entertainment business.	Critical voice or commercial success.

Competing logics in pluralistic contexts

Competing logics in hospitals

Hospitals are characterized by multiple professional and administrative domains whose goals, decisions and actions reflect diverse logics. As hospitals are highly complex organizations, it will come as no surprise that evidence of all four types of competing logics were found here. Profession and mission logics were strongly felt and articulated, and although there was little evidence of actual representation of resource or business logics among hospital employees, there is no doubt that respondents felt the influence of these types of logic, as well as the bureaucratic logic.

Profession-Profession: Equally important but not all alike

Hospitals are home to many professions, not only doctors and nurses but also radiologists, physiotherapists and countless others. Within each domain is a coalition with its own professional interest to protect. Although profession logic is displayed by many groups within hospitals, and professions will stand side by side if this logic is challenged by, for example, resource or bureaucratic logic, profession logic is expressed differently by each group. This strong sense of professional identity, which promotes a specific expression of profession logic, gives rise to situations whereby one understanding of profession logic meets another. Coming from the outside, and influenced by the media-painted images of virtual professional battlefields, I was at first surprised that the tension caused by competing profession logics was never directly brought up by respondents. When asked about professional jurisdiction, several respondents answered that this had been an issue in the past but leaders now tried to focus on shared issues, or that new management structures seemed to have reduced the grievances:

I: This type of conflict between the professions that we frequently hear about on the outside, is that the reality?

R: No, it isn't. It used to be. It may be like that in other departments, but not here.
(Lower-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

Still, when respondents were asked about the importance of professional competence, or when they discussed the appropriateness of existing management structures, strong indications of competing profession logics did come up. One CEO, upon learning of my interest in dual leadership, retorted, "What, are you a nurse?" Competing profession logics seemed to arise especially concerning jurisdiction and whose are of competence is appropriate for the task at hand. Jurisdiction issues surfaced in discussions about who could and should carry out specific tasks, who should hold leadership positions and who had influence with regard to the use of resources. Resource allocation was an important proxy for jurisdiction, since views differed as to whether control should be tied to leadership regardless of the person's professional background or whether it should rest with medical professionals, as their decisions fundamentally influence resource use. One CEO said that it made no sense to structurally remove resource-allocation decisions from doctors, as doctors influence most of the actual expenditures.

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

But if you consider a specific ward, where the doctor comes in and says that this patient needs the most expensive medicine—and that expense is then added to the ward expenditures—then the doctor concerned directly influences ward management, because he uses resources, influences the budget and so on. (Executive Director, Hospital D)

Department and clinic leaders with a nursing background, on the other hand, claimed that resource-allocation decisions were part of their mandate and that doctors had to comply with those decisions.

Competing profession logics also came to light over the level of competence represented by different professions, the importance of developing professional competence both for one's own sake and for the sake of the profession, obligations in fulfilling the role of a university hospital and the proper means of developing knowledge. For example, physicians quickly pointed out nurses' lack of research experience and the fact that nurses' research methods were perhaps not as trusted as those of the medical profession:

R: We have a designated nursing program coordinator, with nursing system responsibility for the whole department.

I: For the entire department—and this includes research and development, to the degree that this exists?

R: Yes, it does—to the degree that it exists— ha ha. Yes, it is clear that this isn't quite up to standard with the medical side, but the goal is to make it function well. I'm thinking of the research part—professional development is already okay and teaching is okay, but the research part isn't exactly [okay]. (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital C)

Mission-Mission: One patient, patients or patient rights?

The second type of competing logic found in hospitals becomes evident when priorities from one mission logic meet those from another. Closely linked to competing profession logics, yet separated by virtue of the focus on mission rather than on coalition, are competing mission logics. Although all hospital respondents agreed that they were there for the sake of the patients, differences cropped up between those who focused on the individual in front of them, those who cared for a particular group of patients, and those who considered patients overall. Individual needs competed against group needs and general patients' rights. This

extends the care-versus-cure dilemma discussed by Glouberman and Mintzberg (2001) to a care-versus-cure-versus-rights situation:

I find that the nursing profession has a tendency to mostly see the patient in front of them at any one time, while doctors consider all those we will have under our care, not just the ones who are there right now but those who ... are waiting for a place and those who are discharged and will be returning for follow-up—there's a difference in ideas. (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital C)

Mission-Bureaucratic: To do the right thing or do things right?

Ambiguity also arises when mission and bureaucratic logics clash. I found two particular areas where bureaucratic and mission logics resulted in different priorities. The first was performance measurement and the other usefulness of administrative systems.

All types of organizations are faced with an increasing number of quantifiable performance measurement systems in combination with an increasing resource focus, and hospitals are no exception. However, respondents questioned the usefulness of much of the reporting that they engaged in. When asked about systems for evaluating professional and administrative results and how these were used, respondents never answered that a system was suitable as a means of evaluating and developing professional performance; rather, they saw systems as separate from what it was they were trying to do. Thus logics clashed with respect to the highest possible quality sought by the professional domain and the quantity and measurability sought by the administrative domain.

Last year we did a worker-satisfaction survey, and at the end ... they were asked to choose which of the 25 questions was the most important. Almost every employee chose the question about whether they thought they did a meaningful, good job for the patients. Pure and simple, this means whether we are successful in treating the patient's illness. However, the usual indicators are only to a small degree concerned with how we deliver what is expected, namely better health to our patients. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital E)

Now we are being measured on the number of patients in the hallways, which is just nonsense. We are being measured on how long it takes for the case summary for the discharged patient to get to the municipality, or how long before the local doctor gets a case summary. That means nothing for the patient as such. It is that kind of nonsense. (Professional Director, Hospital E)

In addition to the myriad performance-measurement systems, routines intended for strategic thinking and long-term planning are introduced and frequently changed. This creates tension as professionals experience a shift from patient-focused activities to administrative activities and an overall hospital focus rather than a clinic or department focus. Leaders feel that the plans and systems mean little in terms of the actual execution of clinical or departmental tasks. One leader said that strategic planning was carried out by the hospital's top management and really had little to do with the work in the clinic: "It is something that administrators like to do." Leaders find it difficult when what is important for the people with whom they work is entirely different from what is called for in plans and reports:

Some of the clinic managers find that there are so many new things now that it takes away time that should be used for patient care. It is a dilemma, and we have to keep trying to get on top of this. Too many things are investigated, discussed and reported on ... And you get these major reports. We have to do this; this has to be done. It initiates conflict. But decisions come in the form of a law, and you have to follow laws. Whereas in the "patients first" project we were invited to come up with suggestions: Where are the problems? How can we promote interdepartmental cooperation? Special task forces were formed, resulting in lots of suggestions and creativity and optimism. (CEO advisor, Hospital A)

The goals set out in those plans are independent of daily operations in a way, because most of the time our focus is to get daily operations to run smoothly, treat the patients you have with the resources you have. This is the dominant focus in a department such as ours. Sure, you can be visionary and make grand speeches, but unless daily operations work, you get no respect. (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital C)

Mission-Money: Cure and care or money to spare?

While professional coalitions are divided in terms of professional identity and different understandings of core purpose, they are united on the issue of purpose versus resources. If competing profession logics was an issue in the past, mission versus money is certainly an issue today. In hospitals, mission versus money is not about seeing money as an object, money is a constraint on purpose. When respondents were asked about sources of tension and uncertainty, resource issues were at the top of the list. Examples of dilemmas and tensions related to resource-versus-mission issues include patients' rights in the face of resource constraints, the need for ongoing research and development, and the need for quali-

Hilde Fjellvær

fied personnel. These two needs are constantly challenged by a lack of funds. Hospitals face a constant and increasing demand for better management of resources, yet at the same time patients' rights are more heavily protected by laws and public opinion than ever before. The effect is a range of dilemmas at all levels of the hospital, from the spending of resources on terminal patients to the need to prioritize between different groups of patients:

This medicine has neither a curative effect nor a pain-relieving effect. It is used for terminal patients, who on average can gain an extra three months. Many lives are not prolonged at all; some can live maybe six extra months. It costs a million NOK Do we prescribe this? (Executive Director, Hospital D)

Three [or] four studies published last year show that if you give this treatment to newly operated on patients with no evidence of cancer spreading but with the risk of spreading ... half of these patients can be cured ... The observation time is perhaps too short to be conclusive, yet this type of gain is on a completely different scale. The problem is that if we were to implement this in Norway, it would cost perhaps 110 million NOK a year for the whole country. There is no budget for such a thing today. And we don't have a system capable of such quick changes. That is to say, the battle over resources will be fought locally, within the departments and with the enterprise that you are a part of, to get permission to implement new treatment. (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital C)

Tension is felt when an external intervention results in the overruling of professional judgement so that scarce resources are spent on activities that professionals do not consider a priority. When quality of care is externally questioned on the basis of media coverage of rundown facilities rather than on the professional treatment being administered in those facilities it is hard to face for professionals providing that treatment. Professionals despair over media reports indicating that they are providing less than optimal cure based on what essentially is judgement of building quality and not professional quality.

Some departments have been instructed to administer a certain treatment, even if they think it is pointless both professionally and financially—and even if it is not very effective medically. They have to do it, and they are still instructed to keep within their budget, and this is very frustrating. (Middle-level Professional Director A, Hospital C)

Tension also arises when professionals believe that core purposes other than direct patient cure or care, such as research or professional development, are constantly threatened by resource constraints:

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

If we are to accomplish this, get the increased research production that we want, so that more members of the staff can say, "This is within my reach—I know I have the intelligence to do it" ... but it's blocked by financing. It's meaningless if we say that this is a priority in the hospital and then lack of money stops it all. This is a challenge for us. There are some rules now ... that if you have extra income, it can be at the expense of your scholarships. I think that is really unwise.

That's one thing. Another is specialists who could have taken any other job and earned an extra half a million NOK... The system should realize that there is a limit to how long you can live on personal fulfillment alone. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

All of the identified types of competing logics are present in hospitals. Although all have the potential to cause tension with its accompanying lack of motivation, most of the expressed frustration concerned the constraints placed on the development of high-quality professional cure and care by bureaucratic and financial issues.

Competing logics in educational organizations

Like hospitals, educational organizations show evidence of the purpose logics identified in Chapter 5. The main difference between hospitals and educational organizations is that although education shows strong evidence of profession logic, it is not typified by multiple professions and competing profession logics is not an issue. Consequently, in education there are three main types of competing logics. The first arises over different ideas about purpose—whether to concentrate on research or teaching. The second is systems based on bureaucratic logic entering the world of faculty. The third is increasing tension over resources and money.

Mission-Mission: Research versus teaching, or research-based education versus skills training?

Someone outside the world of education might assume that those working in universities and colleges would share beliefs about the purpose of what they do. However, although much is shared, this study found some interesting differences in mission logic. There is a division between those who believe that the function of education is to teach and those who believe it is to generate research-based knowledge. In the former case education is seen as providing students with

specific skills and job training, while in the latter case it is understood to be providing students with a way of thinking. The divide becomes deeper if those who believe the purpose of education is to teach skills meet those who are primarily interested in research and who consider teaching a duty to be fulfilled so they can concentrate on their chosen area of interest.

In universities, both faculty and administrative respondents understood their purpose as closely linked to research-based teaching, whereas respondents in art and music academies and other specialty schools understood their purpose as competence-based teaching. Teaching is viewed as one of the two main functions of the university, and it is taken for granted that teaching is based on the research community's combined generated knowledge represented by quality textbooks and the faculty's own research projects. Although some respondents indicated that they enjoyed research more than teaching, and although research success is often accorded higher status than teaching success, teaching is widely accepted to be a major function of universities. Respondents in universities and specialty schools did not focus on possible tension between teaching and research but saw teaching as an extension of research. The purpose of teaching is as much to instill in students a particular way of thinking as to impart practical skills and knowledge:

Clearly, there is disagreement ... we struggle somewhat with the relationship between research and teaching—what kind of priorities to set ... Some are frightfully insistent that all the money should go to research and that someone be hired to do all the teaching, but I am of the opinion that if we have research ... without research-based teaching we can just pack it all in and turn the estate over to a regional college. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

Specialty schools such as music and art academies point out that the equivalent of research-based education in universities is competence-based education in their schools. Through apprenticeships, training and personal development, faculties have developed profound knowledge and skills in their field, which they are committed to passing on. They are motivated not by status or rank but by the opportunity to teach students all that they know. On the other hand, several respondents, especially those in regional colleges, believed that the focus on research could be a problem. After all, they said, the purpose of education is to provide society with competent young people ready for working life.

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

I: How many PhDs and full professors do you have? Is research a topic for discussion?

R: Yes, it is a topic for discussion. The question touches a raw nerve. Clearly this is a professional domain that has been very practice-oriented—vocational education, you know. Since 1918 the focus has always been on practice. Recently an academic degree was added. Other demands followed. Then came a demand for people with research qualifications, and this could be a problem.

Not that I want to criticize others ... but if you look at those colleges whose focus is mostly on research, they come out the worst in student evaluations. (Professional Director, College A)

For those of us who are really good at tailoring executive and specialty education programs—and taking on contract research—this university-infested strategy of “you are a good researcher if you attend international conferences and talk about things that are important for world development,” that really has no relevance for what goes on locally. There are very few examples of research of that kind making any impact on pedagogy or the different study programs or in terms of developing the region. (Professional Director, College C)

Mission-Bureaucratic: Developing content or systems?

In addition to ambiguity due to different beliefs about teaching and research, educational organizations face tension and dilemmas due to very different perceptions concerning the need for systems, structures and routines in organizational management. Educational organizations are places where the professional/administrative divide is clearly seen and understood, whether visible in the formal management structure or not. Most administrative leaders, as well as some college rectors, emphasize the need for systems and routines in order to control and properly manage complex organizations. This view ranges from seeing systems as tools for organizational development to seeing a need for structures to manage those who try to be unmanageable:

There's a fairly comprehensive regime connected to this, and there's perhaps more transparency with respect to how people use their time here than in the university system. We've come a long way with individual work plans and reporting on research and development, and we've started to shift research and development time away from persons who do not account for the allocated time. (Executive Director, College E)

Hilde Fjellvær

With bureaucratic logic, however, skeptics abound, and, as in hospitals, their message is that the tools being applied have little or no relevance for the task at hand. Respondents claim that organizational focus and resources are turning away from content and towards systems and reports as an aim in themselves. They find that the systems being applied convey a lack of trust, quenching the intrinsic motivation and individual commitment that is essential for organizational success. In fact, they question whether the systems are useful even for their designated purpose:

We're supposed to use a standard system for setting up work plans, but the thing is, it's not so hard to count hours and make plans that comply with the norms of the system—the question is whether they are actually implemented. That's one thing, and the fact is that many have made up work schedules with a number of work hours that is impossible to fulfill. So the question remains: How realistic and useful are these work plans? (Middle-level Professional Director, College B)

Overall ... well, in the existing strategic plan—generally it includes all that is good and lovely and well. But this is not operational ... we can't use it for anything. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

One respondent points out that the change to unitary leadership implies that formal leaders at all levels are responsible for administrative routines in addition to their role as professional leader. She questions whether this is right:

Clearly, in a transitional phase but also later, they will always have to have some kind of structure in place— people who know the system, the guidelines and so on, because they do not. And it doesn't make sense that they should know it. I mean, it's their job to be active in research and maintain their network as professionals. It is an explicit prerequisite in hiring that they have scientific competence. And they are expected to uphold this competence. Really, this should go without saying with the kind of international standard for an area of expertise such as ours. (Middle-level Executive Director A, University A)

Still, professionals could accept properly designed systems and tools for strategic planning and transparent systems for making priorities. Quantitative performance measures being used at present do not reflect the quality of the job being done, and this is experienced as a big waste:

Previously, there was some trust. I had a scholarship when I was young. Back then, I received a sum of money and no one asked any questions before I did exactly what I was supposed to. I wrote a doctoral dissertation, and I submitted it, so they could see that I had done it. But in the meantime, nothing happened. The money was trans-

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

ferred from across the mountain and I kept on doing what I should do, but they really did not have a clue—I could have gone to Thailand or stayed drunk for all they knew. But nowadays it's all a matter of reporting and reporting and reporting. I don't know how it is for you. No, we don't trust each other. I'll put it like this: We've gone from freedom—yes, God help me, in theory and in practice that's what we should have, but behind the scenes the system is clutching at us the whole time. (Professional Director, University B)

Mission-Money: Institution or enterprise?

Even though there are differences of opinion about the importance of research or teaching, faculty all over agree that the increased focus on money-generating activities and resource management threatens the core purposes of the education sector. They want to focus on high-quality research and teaching, yet find that the organizations' focus is leaning more towards money-generating activities. Research is no longer an aim in itself but an indicator in a budget model and students are seen as input in the credit production line. For others, educational institutions have to adapt to their markets and they think there is too much slack in how things have been running.

Those respondents interested in maintaining high quality in both research and teaching, in particular, are concerned about the increased resource focus effect on core purposes. Several worry that a focus on resource management and budget models, where departments generate income through student credit production or publications, will strengthen existing environments but hurt new and emerging areas of research. They believe that the university's role in creating new knowledge and developing areas that may be vital in the future is seriously threatened:

When we had to cut funds, we chose to not cut in the ear, nose and throat department because it was important to get things going there ... and the same on the next floor up, to get things going in physical medicine. It takes at least five years to get a PhD and 15 years to become a full professor, so this is a long road to travel. Thus this is a serious disadvantage of systems such as the present one, if over time it becomes impossible to prioritize weaker domains that have no previous production. They should receive money even if they do not have PhDs, professors and published articles. There has to be an escalation plan for those milieus. (Lower-level Professional Director B, University A)

The opposite is true of fields that the university thinks are important to uphold but that have not managed to reach a sufficient level of excellence. We have to make a choice—let them exist or terminate them. Nowadays we mainly strengthen the strongest. It will be harder and harder to mount rescue operations. In the formation

Hilde Fjellvær

phase we used to do this, but the reality is much tougher now. (Executive Director, University B)

At the same time, administrators in general and professional directors in institutions with decreasing numbers of applications or low student appeal are concerned about the organization's survival. They believe that their role is to manage resources prudently and they want to adapt to current financial mechanisms. Their focus lies in generating income through the production of student credits and scientific publications. The issue is not new, as attractiveness to candidates has always been a point of interest. Every year, newspapers publish articles about which institution's students find it easiest to find work after or even before graduation, which ones earn the highest salaries and so on. The competition is increasing, as the importance of graduating on time and attractiveness in the job market mirrors the revenues generated through credit production. Increased student attractiveness is believed to result in better-qualified students, hence higher production and more attractive graduates. This reflects a type of business logic in which the institution is seen as just another enterprise having to adapt to external demands and market forces:

It has to do with the ability to be externally oriented, to not shut oneself away, which is the ... classic characteristic of academia. A professor or an assistant professor sits in his or her office and works on a computer and has no contact with the outside world. Of course, the discipline is important, but so much of it is market oriented. If we are to survive as a college, professionals can't keep doing things this way, or we will die. I use that word. (Professional Director, College C)

But we can't have it this way, you know. No way. If they lose students they'd better get up and do something about it. You have to either go out and round up more of the kind of students you want, or change so that you attract the kind of students you didn't have before. And this is not something that the school can do; it has to be done in close contact with the market. So I don't do anything other than what a normal business would do. The different divisions have to be accountable, you know—in relation to their markets—and if they don't make it in these markets, then they die. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University A)

While colleges in particular sometimes exhibit an undercurrent of tension over teaching and research priorities, in education generally the ambiguity is most evident in performance measurement and financing systems not perceived to represent or to further core purposes. In education these are high-quality teach-

ing and research. Organizational members feel that instead they are measured and rewarded for student credit production and number of articles published.

Competing logics in cultural organizations

In any discussion of competing logics within cultural organizations, it should be kept in mind that this is a diverse field. Art and science museums as well as performing arts organizations such as theaters and orchestras have much in common, yet the type of professionals and their core purpose differ more in the cultural field than in other fields, and this naturally influences the types of competing logics found here.

In performing arts organizations tension arises when an internal mission focus meets an external business or achievement focus. In museums the divide occurs when a sense of purpose centered on collections meets a sense of purpose centered on external obligations, constituencies and audiences. Intertwined with these competing mission logics are underlying profession logic issues. Finally, museums and performing arts organizations share ambiguity due to tension over mission and money. In this group of organizations, bureaucratic logic is not a major issue.

Profession-Profession: Who gets to do what?

As there is a difference between museums and performing arts institutions on this issue, I will first discuss museums. Here, who gets to do what is important. There is the jurisdictional aspect on top of the competing understandings of purpose. Professionals want collections to be centre stage. This means a demand for resources and time to preserve, record, expand and research the collection. Yet the museum's role is also to exhibit, inform and educate. Most professionals insist that the core of the museum is its collection and research, yet ambiguity becomes evident when those same professionals are uncomfortable with not being part of the external communications and exhibition work increasingly put on the agenda. They find it problematic to leave this to others. They ask how those who do not really know and truly understand the collection can properly present it to others:

Who is responsible for what? My idea was the division of responsibility between initiating and following up—but the professional section consists of researchers, and researchers have very clear ideas about what to do and what not to do. This is contrary

Hilde Fjellvær

to the public relations section, who feel that they are the ones who should run these activities in the museum. (Professional Director, Museum D)

The main challenges seem to be attached to the fact that certain tasks are considered core activities while others are more prestigious. In museums the role of preserving, protecting and doing research is advocated, yet at the same time it is important that staff who originally found a home in collections and research get to run the exhibitions—the shows that come out of their collections:

Now we have exhibitions and collections as two separate things ... If all of the academic status is channelled into exhibitions, we have a problem—and that is what I have tried to protect and keep in the collection for which I am responsible ... It has all been split up. Some used to be conservators and now they are called curators—they work in the collections and take care of the collections, but they used to be part of exhibitions too, and that is a lot of fun—visible and fun. (Professional Director, Museum C)

In museums there is a strong focus on who does what but jurisdictional issues are hard to untangle. The problem seems to be that status and the measurement of success are attached to one purpose whereas another purpose is considered more important. This means that loss of position or role may also represent loss of purpose. In this respect, museums differ from the other organizational groups in the study. It is as if there is an implicit discussion taking place: “So, they think they know what this is all about. Whatever gave *them* the right to decide? And why should they do this? We are the most qualified. Besides, it’s more fun.” The transition between competing profession logics to competing mission logics is thus a smooth one.

Mission-Mission: Preserve, research and protect—or inform, educate and entertain?

What separates museums from galleries, exhibition halls and art centers is their collections. A true museum has at its core a collection—whether a collection was the basis for the museum (someone donated their collection for the purpose of making it available to the public) or a museum was founded in order to build a collection that, for some reason, was thought to be important (e.g., a collection of Resistance artifacts meant to educate and keep memories alive, an art collection meant to preserve and document works of a certain type or a particular period). For large groups of professionals in museums, then, research, preservation and

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

upholding of the collection are central to both organizational and professional identity. Collections are the heart and soul of museums; they define who they are:

The general purpose of a museum is to keep important collections in line with its mission ... it is the aim embedded in the museum idea—to protect these collections, to make the public aware of them, to exhibit them ... Usually, museums are organized according to their type of collection—it is central to organizational structure; work based in the collections has been the core of museums—it sets them apart from a pure exhibition place. (Professional Director, Museum C)

Most major Norwegian museums have always had strong ties with universities and the oldest museums are still part of universities. Consequently there is an emphasis on generating knowledge through research. In the past, little emphasis was placed on exhibitions:

In the past when presenting exhibitions we just put the artifacts in a row on a shelf, and that's where you can still find them—with a little nameplate—and it's left to people to think what they want about it. (Middle-level Professional Director, Museum A)

Nowadays, however, both within and outside museums, collections are no longer seen as the *raison d'être* of museums. Success is tied to a responsibility to bring something to the public. The purpose of protecting the collection and doing research is no longer sufficient. Institutions are judged more on their relations with the public and, like universities and other “public spenders,” they are increasingly expected to justify their share of the public budget:

I saw the collections as something more or less technical—dealing with preservation, documentation and catalogues, and research around the collections. ... For me, public relations is more important. Of course, around here exhibitions are also called public communication—but when I say it I think primarily of pedagogical activities in the museum—teaching and school activities—as well as outreach, they call it in England—to actively seek out, not only to work in the museum. I think it is important for this museum to find a new audience and become a concern for everyone—on a wider basis. (Executive Director, Museum C)

This house had enormous untapped potential. In my opinion, everything was lopsided. There were no development strategies ... it seems that we should be an elite institution for academics between 20 and 40 or 30 and 50. We were supposed to be important for schools, but the school department was closed down. ... Originally we were a research institution. Our new strategy is to brand ourselves as an important mediating institution ... There've always been differences of opinion—we haven't downplayed research and education, but neither have we done anything in particu-

Hilde Fjellvæ

lar to advance it. What we have done is to be clearly profiled as a mediating institution. (Professional Director, Museum D)

So, on the one hand interests and beliefs are centered on collections, and on the other hand educational and entertainment purposes are highlighted and the importance of collections is even played down. The academics fear that the accumulation of knowledge and a public responsibility to further that knowledge, which rests with them, is being threatened; this is especially true of museums outside the university realm:

Many people call and ask about things, wonder about things—and this is a very large part of—it's like a library, isn't it? You're accustomed to calling a library and asking about something, like it was information central. And you can't just pass these questions on to a newly employed information worker who doesn't know the collections, who doesn't know art history. People call and ask about things that concern both the collections and art history. Some things, like when Rembrandt died, you can find out in a library or on the Internet, but how to take care of a painting that has got this or that kind of damage? as the in-house graphic specialist, I can answer questions like, What does it mean when you find such and such on a graphic sheet? What's the difference between a woodcut and an etching? And you just don't answer that they should check an encyclopedia ... no, you try to explain. And this is great, and it takes a lot of time and nobody notices that we do it. (Professional Director, Museum C)

Mission-Mission: Enrich versus entertain

Within theaters and orchestras, ambiguity arises due to different beliefs with respect to purpose. Some administrators use an official charter to establish a mandate for both the organizational purpose and the purpose for their own position. For professionals, on the other hand, mandate is embedded in the core idea on which the organization is based—the art itself. Interpreting that mandate is the privilege of the artist—the professional. For those in performing arts organizations (or in museums) who find that the answers to questions about why they exist, what their purpose is and what they want to achieve do not lie in an external charter or organizationally decided upon idea, the sense of purpose is usually very personal and internal. They see themselves as artists or professionals who are bearers of a truth, a kind of cultural capital that you need to be initiated in to understand and be part of. The sense of purpose is firmly attached to the art itself, and there is a strong personal or professional sense of mission in the work that they do. In fact, the sense of purpose and commitment to the art may be so strong that if it comes to a choice between an individual (artist) in the organiza-

tion and a particular idea, then the idea has to prevail—it is part of the cost of being an artist:

It is the audience that we exist for. The fact that they come has no value in itself—it is what they receive. We can tempt them—but it must be done with music. (Artistic Director, Orchestra B)

At least 50 percent of our budget should be allocated to artistic projects. This is controversial. Decisions about who works in the theatre should be based on artistic ideas. We must excel in fulfilling the best artistic ideas. Groups like the actors' union protest and demand a minimum of in-house actors on any production ... but I have to be able to hire people from project to project. If all of the roles were filled by in-house actors, it would be impossible to implement ideas, nor is it interesting from an artistic perspective—such a system would impose limits on what we can achieve. (Artistic Director, Theatre A)

The artistic understanding of purpose, and especially the understanding of success, is not necessarily shared by other organizational actors. For those actors purpose is not to enrich and success is not attached to what the audience receives. The measure of success and achievement is attracting the audience in itself and how this is done is much less on the agenda, if at all. Instead success is seen in number of audiences, good reviews or even increased state funding.

*A symphony orchestra is a very conservative organization in itself—very conservative attitudes about what to do, what to present. But I believe that in order to succeed in the battle for the public—in this intense competition, which just becomes tougher and tougher—we have to go in new directions. (Executive Director, Orchestra B)**

* previously referred to

Although the beliefs of few respondents seem to be consistent with an entertainment purpose, when they do exist, such beliefs cause a high level of tension in the organization. For artists, there is an enormous difference between enriching the public and entertaining the public, whereas administrators and boards might have difficulty considering measures of success other than ticket sales and reviews.

Mission-Money: Art or entertainment business?

In cultural organizations mission logic is expressed through a focus on art and artists, on creativity and on the professional's informed understanding of the organizational purpose. The mission, clearly, is to enrich people's lives or manage a

cultural or scientific inheritance, and one's allegiance lies with art or knowledge itself. Artists in particular live their mission and continually put themselves on the line or in the spotlight. A logic where money and not art is the object, or where lack of money may severely hamper one's professional development, is difficult for artists. As with educational institutions, tensions may arise because money is seen as a constraint or—worse—as the object; both will be felt as an obstacle to fulfilling the mission.

In museums the issue of money is seen a constraint on development. Like university and hospital respondents, museum respondents are concerned that lack of funds will limit their ability to properly preserve or add to collections, put an end to research or limit the scope of exhibitions:

People are afraid to use even the funds that they have. They don't know what professional projects they will get financial support for in the future and wonder if they will have enough, and so they postpone projects and save what funds they have for later.
(Middle-level Professional Director A, Museum A)

In the performing arts money is also viewed as a potential constraint in the quest to implement not only novel ideas but also what is seen as regular operations. In addition, opposing views on purpose can lead to what artistic directors see as risk aversion on the part of administrators. Artistic directors ask if there should be more willingness to risk losing money in order to take on an important and groundbreaking performance:

I think we agree on what our profile is. But the thing is, financial planning will influence the profile. So that's where the challenge lies: If you don't have enough money to present a high-quality performance and are forced to find other ways of presenting music, find a partner that will pay for the production—you know, play with some church choir and the organist conducting, an incompetent conductor but he doesn't cost anything, should he still be given the job? And they pay for the soloists, so rather than using musicians that we like maybe we can have some for free, but below the standard that we want to be associated with. (Artistic Director, Orchestra B)

We have to have the courage to realize ideas that may seem outrageous. It is our job to advocate for those crazy ideas. We have to be willing to risk something in the name of realizing great ideas. (Artistic Director, Theatre A)

On the other hand, administrators say that there is perhaps a lack of control with public money and understand that their task is to make sure everything is in order:

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

The public is incredibly trusting when it comes to the arts. Not once have the media posed any critical questions. They made a lot of fuss over the costs for that one promotion stunt. We should all be happy they didn't investigate further—there's a lot more that wouldn't stand the light of day. No one ever asks questions about artistic projects. Not even the Board. They just think that it's really nice if we go on a tour or set up a new production. They might react if we didn't go on tour, but otherwise ...
(Middle-level Executive Director Theatre A)

Although the findings here show little evidence of a logic supporting the ideas of these organizations as commercial enterprises and money as an objective in itself, this could be due to the small number of administrative respondents in the culture group. Professional respondents indicate that their organizations are increasingly treated as businesses, and two directors claim that they are seeking opportunities to enter new markets. Still, the fact remains that even though professional actors see possibilities for increased revenues, for most respondents the allegiance to their core purpose is greater than the lure of commercial success:

We are turning into a commercial enterprise—you know, what they ask about nowadays is our “production.” (Professional Director, Museum C)

If we set up an exhibition with mummies, the number of visitors would explode. Skeletons, mummies, dinosaurs and sex—that's what sells. If getting the number of visitors up is all you care about, you can always do that. Next fall, however, we are setting up an exhibition on “shame and honor.” We have external funding—it's an important topic nowadays. The question is, how many will come and see that, as opposed to if we threw in a few mummies. We are reluctant to use visitor numbers as a criterion of success. (Professional Director, Museum B)

Cultural organizations in general are faced with a variety of competing logics. However, the predominant tension in museums seems to be over what they really are supposed to be doing—core purpose—and who should be doing what. In performing arts organizations the greatest concerns are artistic development and the viability of commercial interests.

Competing logics in newspapers

Initially I expected newspapers to be somewhat different from the other organizations. My assumption was based on a perceived difference between private and public ownership. It is beyond the scope of this study to consider type of owner-

ship. However, it is interesting to note that there is very little evidence of resource or bureaucratic logic in newspapers, which suggests that type of ownership may have an impact on logics. Still, even if newspapers differ from the other organizations in terms of ownership, they share the presence of strong profession and mission logics, and business logic is substantial.

Similar to educational organizations, in newspapers profession logic is important but is tied to one dominant profession and competing profession logics is not an issue in itself, although it could present challenges when faced by an opposing governance logic. Multiple mission logics exist side by side. One purpose is based on the value of journalistic creativity and individual development of specific issues. Alongside is a focus on newspapers as important institutions in modern society, taking on both the role of watchdog and the role of public informer. The editorial staff see these roles as complementary and there is no evidence that they are competing. Thus the one main source of ambiguity in the newspaper context is dilemmas that arise through the meeting of mission logic and business logic.

Mission-Money: Critical voice or commercial success?

It is a question of critical voice versus commercial success, and the dilemma plays out as editors and journalists aim for continuous journalistic development and focus on content, whereas executive directors emphasize financial performance and market adaptation:

For some, the budget is easily interpreted as a symbol of who has power—this is the spiritual and the financial worlds, and without a doubt recent development means that the financial world has more power—just the fact that more and more media corporations are now listed on the stock exchange. Some of the general values that used to go unquestioned are also under attack. Previously the saying was, “Make money in order to publish a newspaper,” and now it is more like “Publish a newspaper in order to make money.” There’s a built-in conflict that could easily be pushed to the extreme when it comes to questions like Where should the resources go? How much should the owners get? How much to cut? Where to invest? (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper B)

Journalists and editors believe strongly that newspapers are institutions and not businesses, and they see newspapers as representing important values in civilized society. In line with this thinking, they want more money for journalistic develop-

Chapter 6: Competing Logics

ment, the maximum number of pages in each issue and as little advertising as possible:

The editorial staff wants as many pages as possible. In general the editorial opinion would be that the thicker the newspaper, the better it is. I am not sure I completely agree, but in general an editor would constantly want to add pages. While the administration cynically will consider how many pages of ads the editorial stuff can carry. (Board Member, Newspapers B and C)

Unlike the editorial staff, executive directors, their staff and at least some Board members view newspapers as businesses that should give a fair return on investment. From this perspective, new journalistic products such as a Saturday issue should be viable in themselves, and a fair amount of control is necessary to ensure this. Success is measured in terms of traditional return on investment, circulation and brand strength. Meeting market expectations is emphasized:

I think most would agree that if we are to secure future operations we will at a minimum have to secure a positive result. And if you ask me, we have an altogether poor financial result in relation to the size of the company. We should at least double our bottom line in relation to what it's been. ... the best possible result is perhaps the wrong phrase, but the way I see it, we have paid no dividends to the owners as long as I've been here. Our owners are certainly in it for the long term. That's what that media group is known for. So far our priority has been to develop the newspaper, and in four years we've been through two downsizing processes. (Executive Director, Newspaper D)

If you go back 10 years, we had only one newspaper, printed and distributed once a day, six days a week. Consider the move from that to where we are today: content production 24/7, in four channels, and to a considerable degree competition on the Internet and TV and radio and of course newspapers as well. The situation has completely changed. It's completely different from before—lots of competition, very demanding. (Executive Director, Newspaper C)

We cannot keep up every activity if there's no commercial basis for it—that's the unfortunate truth. There's no way we can do everything between heaven and earth and expect the paper to endlessly carry everything on its shoulders by not making demands for the economic development of new activities. We can subsidize other activities for another three years. The paper can afford that. But it doesn't make sense to build up a set of new activities and assume that the paper will be able to carry it. In the future, nothing will be as threatened as newspapers. (Executive Director, Newspaper B)

Administrators do not dispute the importance of good content, but they see this as tied to market expectations and needs, and journalists are generally not im-

Hilde Fjellvær

pressed by the standards set by directors. One assistant editor quotes his executive director as saying that they should aim for a good enough product—not the best product possible: “It tells you how much he understands about what we’re trying to do.” Both parties are aware that the other has a different agenda and that this results in tension:

The tension will always be there. It is a balance between how much money has to be made and how much you spend on the editorial stuff that they think is fun to do. But there is less than there used to be, and there is a common understanding in the whole company, I would say—also in the editorial area—about the importance of making money. (Executive Director, Newspaper A)

Competing logics discussion

In the previous section I identified the principal types of competing logics and how they are represented in different contexts. Hospitals show evidence of all four types of competing logics. Educational organizations do not experience competing profession logics but do experience the other three types. Cultural organizations show little evidence of competing mission and bureaucratic logics, but do reveal tension between competing mission logics and between mission and money logics. Finally, in newspapers there is ambiguity, primarily due to competition between mission logics and money logics.

In this section I will summarize the findings from the previous section and discuss similarities and differences in how each type of competing logic is represented across contexts.

Profession-Profession

Although evidence of profession logic was found in all contexts, ambiguity and tension due to different profession logics is felt clearly in hospitals and to some extent in museums. Tension due to competing profession logics in hospitals is deeply rooted in jurisdictional issues; there is a long history of dispute over who has jurisdiction over what tasks and who should hold leadership positions. Respondents claim that this is mostly an issue of the past as far as they are concerned but indicate that other departments in the hospital are still ridden with tension. Thus the issue continues to be significant, as diminishing its importance may indicate that it is in fact a sensitive issue. Hospital respondents were the most difficult to gain access to. This suggests that leaders who experience a high

degree of tension over jurisdiction may be less willing to agree to an interview about dual leadership, as this would confirm the existence of co-professional leadership in hospitals. This could explain why respondents provide few examples of tension due to competing profession logics.

The presence of competing profession logics in museums is more surprising. Here, ambiguity arises over task division more than over leadership positions. The distinction between different professional groups appears to be less clear here than in hospitals. However, I suspect that a major cause of distress is the fact that in the past all professionals, regardless of their formal position, had similar professional backgrounds, including a PhD in art history for art museums and in the relevant domain for science and history museums. Other employees were technicians and a few administrators whose role was to support the professionals. With the increased focus on and interest in museums as institutions dedicated to public information, new groups of employees from a variety of backgrounds have moved into domains previously held by academics.

Although profession logic is important in both education and newspapers, each field has one dominant profession and thus competing profession logics is not really an issue here apart from some tension over who should hold leadership positions in educational organizations. In universities professionals and administrators tend to agree that to lead faculty it is necessary to have high professional standing. In colleges most faculty agree that this is desirable but difficult to achieve. However, colleges differ from universities in that some leaders believe that their professional background is less important than their leadership experience. Thus tension over leadership positions does crop up in colleges.

Competing profession logics can result in heightened awareness of specific competencies, as professional actors are compelled to demonstrate their competency in order to promote their view of professional purpose. Similarly, competing profession logics may promote an even stronger and more united sense of professional belonging and identity within professions. On the other hand, competing profession logics could serve to heighten tension and conflict, resulting in loss of organizational efficiency as members spend time and resources on the conflict rather than on their mission.

As long as multiple professions exist, so too will competing profession logics. Thus, although some are eager to proclaim that this is a thing of the past or a pre-occupation of certain groups of professionals, the evidence suggests that it is too early to disclaim it as a source of tension. Awareness of its existence and a

strategy for coping with tension due to competing profession logics are therefore to be encouraged.

Mission-Mission

Comparing how competing mission logics play out is more complex than comparing other types of competing logics. Mission logics share the basic attributes of a focus on core organizational activities. It is in mission logics that context really shows. Here is where similarities due to pluralistic contexts are minimized and where differences grounded in context appear. As shown in Chapter 5, the expressions of core purpose or mission differ widely and result in tensions over strategic priorities and accepted standards of competence and quality.

Competing mission logics are clearly present in hospitals, education and culture. All three fields share the presence of multiple domains whose battle for attention and resources can give rise to powerful tensions. In hospitals one cause of tension is the different patient perspectives. One could say that this has to do with the unit of analysis: the individual patient, patients representing an ailment or category, or patients overall. It is as if patients are seen on a continuum, being viewed on the individual level at one end and on the societal level at the other. In education the tension due to competing mission logics could be explained similarly, with research as a highly individualized and autonomous process at one end of the continuum and a belief in training communities of students in certain skills at the other end. Although the transfer of skills or competencies is highly individualized, the teaching or pedagogy itself is rarely in focus; instead, it is education or teaching in general that is emphasized. For both hospitals and education, what is seen as competing mission logics, in reality are often co-existing mission logics. Most professionals agree that an organization needs activities associated with the whole range of mission logics.

Cultural organizations differ from hospitals and education with respect to competing mission logics. In the cultural field there is more of a perception that co-existing mission logics are competing within the organization. In museums the tension could be summed up as a focus on collections versus a focus on popular exhibitions, and in performing arts organizations as enriching versus entertaining the audience. Although there is some interdependence between the collection and exhibition missions, there is less now than there was in the past, when exhibitions were based almost solely on the collections. In performing arts

there is no apparent interdependence between the two views; this can result in powerful tensions unless the differences in ideas are somehow reconciled.

Although more than one type of mission was identified in newspapers, this field differs from the others in that all expressed missions are pursued by the whole journalistic community rather than being shared between different coalitions. Although what mission is in focus will vary over time and between individual journalists, this variation in focus is not perceived as powerful competing mission logics.

Competing mission logics can have a powerful influence on organizations. Logics are central to ideas about organizational life, yet due to their taken-for-granted nature they are rarely debated. Multiple mission logics are at the core of pluralistic organizations, and multiple domains and competencies certainly provide an opportunity for new insights, which in turn can serve to enhance the organization's ability to achieve its overall purpose. However, if there is too much tension due to competing mission logics, and too little interdependence, then competing mission logics can lead to the spending of energy and resources on conflict processes and to a loss of focus, development and organizational efficiency.

Mission-Bureaucratic

Ambiguity with regard to competing mission and bureaucratic logics is felt in all contexts, although it is less evident in newspapers and performing arts organizations. Respondents in hospitals and education strongly feel the impact of bureaucratic logic over mission logic. In education the impact moves along two dimensions, the first when systems and procedures are introduced, apparently without the aim of supporting the core mission; and the second when performance measurement systems that have been introduced are not seen to measure the quality of organizational work—such as counting publications and producing student credits instead of assessing research advances and student learning. All faculty members are frustrated by the increasing impact of bureaucratic logic; as systems and structures are incrementally implemented, they feel powerless to change or reverse what has been done.

The introduction of bureaucratic systems and procedures has had less of an impact in hospitals compared to the field of education. The level of intervention from administrators is smaller than in education. In education non-dominant professionals initiate routines and procedures influencing faculty operations. Due

to the nature of work this is difficult in medicine and nursing. However, bureaucratic logic is equally and perhaps more directly and strongly felt by individual staff members in hospitals when it comes to the introduction of performance measurement systems. There is much counting going on, and professionals do not see the implemented systems as promoting high-quality patient cure and care.

Performing arts organizations are small compared to organizations in other disciplines, and have even smaller administrative staffs. Another difference that might explain why competing mission and bureaucratic logics have less of an impact in the performing arts is the fact that these organizations report to the ministry of culture. This ministry deals not only with institutions such as those in this study, but all kinds of festivals, private theatrical companies, and music ensembles. Although one would expect a certain amount of bureaucratic logic to originate in any government ministry, it is fair to speculate that this could be why there is less of a focus on systems and quantitative measurement here. As long as organizations do not overspend, it seems, they are left alone.

The greatest tension due to competing mission and bureaucratic logics results not from bureaucratic logic itself but from the accompanying command and control governance logic. When professional actors used to high degree of freedom in designing their work are subjected to command and control systems, some leaders fear active resistance and loss of motivation. One dean said that drawing up work plans on paper is easy enough but a closer look will reveal that the hours add up to far more than normal working hours, as faculty frequently work more than the prescribed number of hours. In one institution, the immediate effect of introducing time sheets was that most of the faculty refused to take on additional classes in the evening or at other colleges, thereby removing much of the flexibility needed to complete teaching schedules. Another dean recalled an incident where professors in his department had requested permission to start a company on the side. The dean saw two possible scenarios should he refuse—which, according to bureaucratic logic, would be the obvious response. Either they would leave the university and be impossible to replace, or they would start the company anyway and reduce their work to the minimum required for their position.

It is hard to find any area where tension due to competing mission and bureaucratic logic would be beneficial for the organization, especially from the professional viewpoint. Bureaucratic logic adapted to a context in which systems are designed to aid in the development of core purpose would not be an issue. An ex-

ample would be the design of straightforward systems that provide access to research grants or performance measurement systems that tell doctors how their patients are coping in the long term. Of course if this was the case the logics would be no longer competing but complementary.

Mission-Money

Tension and ambiguity due to competing mission and money logics are felt across contexts, but the source is twofold. Challenges arise either if money becomes a constraint for the mission or if money is a competing purpose.

For hospitals, tension due to money as a constraint is felt all over, whether it is lack of funds for equipment, patient facilities, or specific medicines or a limit on research and competence building. In education and in museums, money is a constraint on the mission, whether it concerns research, hiring or student admissions. The constant battle for resources and uncertainty due to changing financial management systems have an impact on members' motivation and where they focus their energies.

In some colleges tension also arises when professional and administrative leaders view their organizations as semi-commercial enterprises in the business of not only producing student credits but also seeking market adaptation and money-generating activities. According to this money logic, courses should be given based on market demand and less emphasis should be placed on programs designed by "academics out of touch with reality." As expected, faculty were less than pleased with such approaches. The tension increases as leaders who express a belief in money as an object also express a belief in a command and control governance logic.

For performing arts organizations, money is frequently felt as a constraint on mission but one that they seem to have accepted as long as there is some predictability, and artists know how much is available for artistic projects in the short and medium terms. On the other hand, when money is seen as the object, tensions rise dramatically. Money is viewed as a means, not an end.

Newspapers stand out with respect to this type of competing logic. Here, there is no doubt that money is an object, whereas other domains simultaneously uphold the principle of journalistic quality as the ultimate goal. However, although most respondents speak of the tension that this creates, several also see it as healthy. They claim that this inherent tension helps the editorial side clarify

their ideas and priorities to be better able to fight for their mission; they must show that they are willing to set priorities, and competition between mission and money logics can lead to a better-quality newspaper. Still, editors and administrators alike warn that the trend towards “publishing a paper to make money” rather than “making money to publish a paper” will intensify and will be accelerated by the new Internet, television and radio domains that are increasingly being taken up by newspaper organizations.

To summarize, competing mission and money logics are expressed differently, whether due to money as a constraint or money as the object. Tension due to money as a constraint could open the way for organizations to be forced to make clear strategic priorities that may serve them well in the long run. The challenge is the same as for the other types: Tension and ambiguity can lead to a lack of efficiency at a time when it is most needed. If money is an object and thus not only constrains purpose, then the challenges may go deeper, as priorities could be much harder to reconcile. However, newspapers seem to cope rather well with this situation, probably because in the realm of private enterprise even the most ardent supporter of a free press cannot expect completely altruistic behavior on the part of owners. In regional colleges facing severe cutbacks and decreasing student appeal, the tension forces these issues into the open and provides an opportunity for institutions and authorities to make choices regarding their long-term institutional purpose.

Conclusions

In this chapter I have discussed four types of competing logic. The expressions of the various types differ according to context. As summarized in Table 6.2 page 117, the contexts differ in terms of both how many and what types of competing logics are influential. Hospitals feel the impact of all types, whereas in newspapers the dominant competing logic is mission versus money. Educational institutions experience little tension due to competing profession logics but show evidence of all the other types. Characteristic of educational institutions is the difference between institutions that offer the full range of programs from bachelor's degrees to Ph.Ds and regional colleges that primarily offer bachelor's degrees. In the latter group, faculty holding PhDs form a clear minority yet are an influential group within their departments. In what we might call research-based institutions, the greatest source of tension is the competition between mission

and bureaucratic logics, whereas for many colleges the tension is due to competing mission logics and mission versus money. In cultural organizations the analysis shows that there is a difference between museums and performing arts organizations, the former resembling educational institutions and the latter showing some clear similarities to newspapers.

Another idea developed here is that although types of control mechanisms can be seen as attributes of specific logics (Thornton, 2004) one should also consider how governance logic can influence organizational life, directly or indirectly, by strengthening the impact of specific purpose logics. Whether this becomes a dilemma depends on the working relations in the specific organization, but different views on appropriate governance mechanisms are always potentially conflictual. For example, a strong belief in autonomy is important for professionals, and a simultaneous desire and need for control and accountability on the part of administrative leaders can be a source of ambiguity and tension. The earlier discussion of the different types of competing logics revealed that competing governance logics have an impact in relation to mission versus bureaucratic logic and mission versus money logic. In the former case, tension with respect to systems and structures versus mission also results in tension with respect to competing governance logics associated with new performance measurement systems and the move towards more direct intervention in individual members' organizing of work.

Money logic is also associated with command and control governance logic. There is, however, an interesting difference here as compared to the previous situation. When a competing bureaucratic logic exists, the organization that feels this tension also feels the impact of command and control logic in areas where autonomy has traditionally been the rule. In the case of money versus mission, though, the relationship is not so clear. Money logic is usually associated with command and control governance logic, yet the impact is not always felt in the professional domain, even if the impact of money logic is felt. There are two possible reasons for this. The first lies in the fact that although I identified three types of governance logics, the only example of competing governance logics is between autonomy and command and control logics. This can be explained by considering Figure 5.1 page 76 in the previous chapter. This figure illustrates the relationship between different purpose and governance logics and shows that the third governance logic, accountability logic, is linked to resource logic. In this study, resource logic has not been identified as an important source of competing

logics, nor does accountability logic seem to induce tension in itself. In those cases where tension arises due to money as a constraint, it is essentially the resource logic part of money logic that plays out (see the section on mission-money). The active governance logic in this case is accountability logic. Recall that in Chapter 5 this logic is associated with prudent management of scarce resources and therefore is probably experienced as complementary to rather than in competition with autonomy logic.

The second example of competing mission-money logics not directly accompanied by competing governance logics can be found in newspapers. This is where mission-money tensions are most evident, and these organizations are clearly constituted by an administrative and a professional domain. Unlike hospitals and educational institutions, where we would find people claiming that it is impossible to distinguish between the two, in newspapers the separation is widely accepted. The two domains carry their own governance logic—command and control logic in administration and autonomy logic in the editorial domain. However, as the domains are structurally separate, the governance logic of one domain will rarely influence activities in the other domain. In the next chapter I discuss why structural separation makes this less problematic in newspapers than in other contexts facing competing governance logics.

Although there is increasing research interest in competing logics, there are few published studies with a focus on co-existing competing logics. The results of the present study suggest that the presence of competing logics is particularly interesting in pluralistic contexts and add to the literature by identifying types of competing logics that are found across contexts.

In Chapter 4 I identified existing types of executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations and in Chapter 5 types of logics inherent in such organizations. In this chapter I have built on the results from Chapter 5 and have identified types of competing logics that exist in pluralistic organizations. Essentially this means that I have so far identified variations in executive role constellations and sources of tension and ambiguity that these executives have to manage. In the next chapter I take this a step further and present mechanisms available to manage the effects of competing logics.

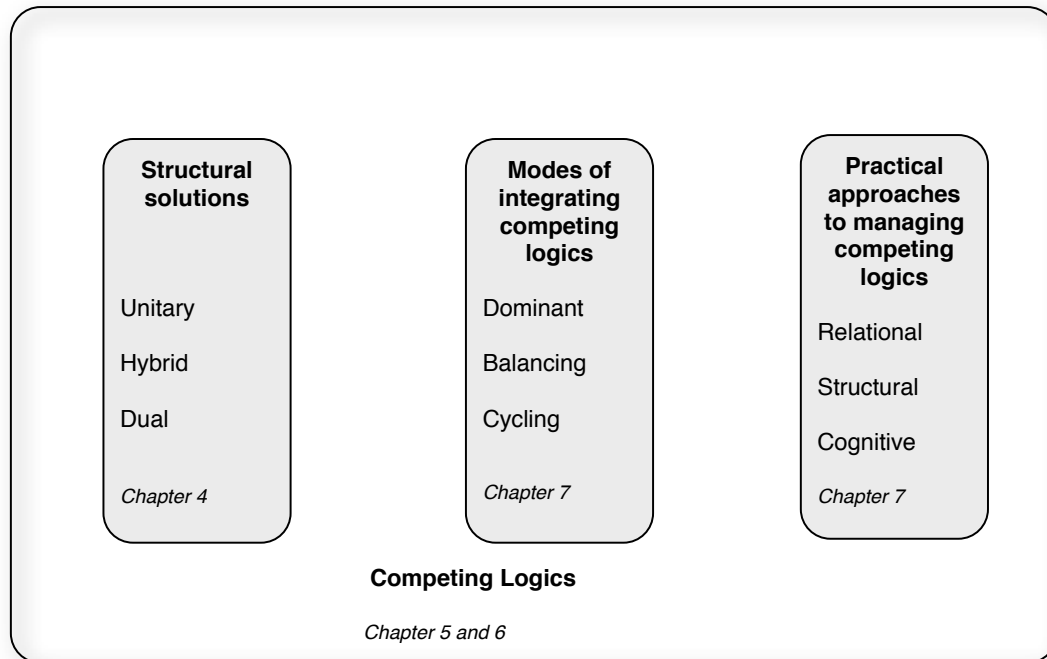
Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

In this chapter I present and discuss different mechanisms used by leaders to manage tension and ambiguity due to competing logics. I show how different executive role constellations vary in their management of competing logics and the potential effects of these differences.

Three approaches are used to cope with ambiguities due to competing logics. The first structural solutions such as presented in Chapter 4. In this approach, organizations attempt to manage the effects of competing logics through the use of structural separation in dual management structures or structural integration in unitary management structures. However, structural solutions alone are not sufficient. Incongruence and tension will continue to arise in a dynamic environment, and thus structural solutions must be coupled with other approaches. The second approach is to adopt a certain perspective or mode of integrating logics, and the third is to engage in a variety of day-to-day practices. While leaders and organizations have a range of mechanisms available to manage the effects of co-existing and competing logics, they vary in their mindfulness of the different solutions.

The three first sections of this chapter are devoted to mechanisms for managing competing logics. The fourth and final section ties the different parts of the study together, linking types of executive role constellations to the modes of integrating logics and practical approaches used by each type of constellation. I repeat Figure 1.1 from page 8 as it outlines the issues that are brought together in this chapter.

Figure 1.1: Three ways of coping with competing logics



Structural solutions

The first mechanisms that organizations use to cope with multiple coalitions and multiple logics are structural. Both structural integration and structural differentiation (Westerman et al., 2006), which I call structural separation, are used. Structural solutions are sometimes introduced by law. In other cases they are the result of longstanding tradition. The solutions vary not only in their degree of integration/separation, but also in what organizational actors view as important for structural solutions in pluralistic organizations.

As seen in Chapter 4, three structural solutions were found: unitary, hybrid and dual constellations. I was interested not only in determining the characteristics of each type of constellation but also in exploring the gains and losses associated with each. Thus I investigated the degree to which respondents thought that their own and other constellations were appropriate for the challenges at hand. The majority of respondents were convinced that their constellation was the appropriate one. In other words, unitary leadership respondents generally thought

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

that theirs was a good and workable model, as did hybrid and dual leadership respondents. Given that most people are susceptible to attribution errors, however, it is useful to look at the rationale behind the perceived appropriateness of each constellation. I was particularly interested in what attributes of their own constellation the respondents found most important for managing tension and uncertainty, as this is the main dimension on which structural solutions differ.

For *unitary leadership* respondents, the main focus is whether this structure satisfies the demand for clear allocation of responsibility and authority. Supporting unitary leadership are ideas justifying the need for hierarchical command and control systems. Respondents claim that it is important for everyone to know who is in charge. They point out that someone has to have the full picture. When asked about the contrast between unitary and dual leadership, some respondents say that the unitary model results in less “fuss” and less perceived conflict; both seen as reasons to avoid dual role constellations. They believe that, since everyone knows who is ultimately responsible for decisions, issues will be settled early on if there is clear opposition from the leader:

I: Do you think you could work within a dual leadership? Could you have an administrative partner of some sort?

R: Working next to me? Not at all!

I: Why not?

R: Well, what do you do when you disagree? The most powerful one will win, I think. No, I don't believe in this. I don't believe in two people making decisions. In so many situations I totally disagree with the other person, and in those cases the decision would have to be pushed up. And I think that is wrong. Decisions should be made where they matter the most. Not pushed up. Decisions should be made by someone with an overview and control. (Middle-level Professional Director A, Hospital A)

I prefer unitary leadership at the departmental level. Responsibility is allocated to one person. Mandate and responsibility are limited to one to one position. This makes everything orderly. (Lower-level Professional Director A, Hospital A)

Under *dual leadership*, on the other hand, most professional and administrative respondents turn away from control issues and towards organizational purpose. Unitary leadership respondents claim that tension, uncertainty and lack of accountability are challenges under dual leadership. Those who work within structurally separate systems, however, claim that this solution ensures that all do-

mains are included and supported by management. They point out that leaders' attention is focused in one domain, where they are respected and where their expertise is recognized. This fosters professional legitimacy and development. Respondents believe that the introduction of unitary leadership would lead to administrative or commercial issues taking precedence, as these are frequently more urgent than professional issues, but not more important. Also in contrast to unitary leadership respondents, they do not view tension and potential pulling in different directions as detrimental to organizational life; rather, they believe that structural separation creates opportunities for active consideration and development of all domains:

It's important that the dean not work on administrative issues—if he did, professional development, external relations and a lot of other professional issues would suffer. It's important to separate the functions, to have more than one person responsible for this, and not just have one person in charge. Otherwise the professional side will suffer.

I: *Because administrative issues by their nature are usually urgent or— ?*

R: *Yes, they are often urgent. Also, it's so much easier to write a note or a motion and be more concrete on administrative issues than on professional issues. Those are often subtle—it's about development, the future. Much easier just to grab on to the tangible stuff—you know, recruitment, personnel issues and so on. So I think that if everything is placed on one person, then professional issues, strategy and this kind of thing would suffer. (Executive Director, College D)*

I think it's quite healthy with a dual structure, as long as you are able to reap the benefits. If you were to have only one leader—the commercial forces are very powerful, you know, and in addition to try to uphold legitimacy in the editorial domain ... No, I think it's much healthier to accept the inherent slight tension in a dual model than for the members and the organization to suffer through the workings of someone who doesn't know which side to come down on. (Executive Director, Newspaper A)

The third option, *hybrid solutions*, comes about when organizations choose to adapt a formal structure that is on a continuum, with a fully integrated structure at one end and a completely separate one at the other. The aim might be to adapt a formal model to the organization's needs. There seem to be four main arguments for hybrid solutions. The first, similar to the argument for a dual structure, is to make sure that all domains are included. The starting point could be a formal unitary model in which a special effort is made to include all domains. The rationale can also be that the organization is unlikely to find someone willing and

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

able to manage both domains. Another argument is based on the question of how to clearly distinguish between what belongs to the professional and administrative domains. If both parties feel that it is impossible to fully separate domains because they are too intertwined and interdependent, a formal dual model could be adapted:

But ... I'm not sure you can separate the professional and administrative domains. So many things are both ... , and how do you separate them? ...We work very closely together. I'm not sure the departments always know whom to talk to about what. (Professional Director, College E)

Finally, a hybrid may exist not as an attempt to address ambiguity, but because an executive disagrees with the purpose of the dual constellation in which he finds himself and tries to move into domains other than his designated ones. The rationale, then, is often similar to that of a unitary structure in the quest for overall control.

In general, it appears that most respondents find their role constellation and associated governance system appropriate for the challenges they face. From the perspective of coping with competing logics, though, each of the three structural solutions has a different focus. Under *unitary* leadership, the focus is on the structure's ability to ensure control and authority within a hierarchical arrangement. With *hybrid* solutions, the focus is dependent on whether the structure has a unitary or a dual origin, but in general the object is to adapt the model so that it better addresses interdependencies and the need to include multiple domains. With structural separation under *dual* leadership, issues of control are not mentioned. Instead, arguments supporting dual leadership are content- or purpose-oriented. Respondents from professional and administrative backgrounds alike focus on the need to work across domains and to capitalize on how different goals and perspectives afford opportunities for gaining new insights and achieving multiple goals.

Modes of integrating logics

The second mechanism is based on the fact that a leader's understanding of the presence of competing logics will influence how he or she approaches the matter. The guiding principle selected by the individual leader will indicate his or her choice of action. The guiding principle is a way to integrate competing logics and

reflects the emphasis individual leaders place on the presence of competing logics. In Chapter 2 we saw that leaders choose such approaches as adopting a dominant perspective (Denis et al., 2003; Stewart, 2006), cycling (or alternating) between perspectives (Thacher & Rein, 2004) or reconciling perspectives (Hewison, 2002). Taken together, these can be understood as different modes of integrating logic. In this study I found examples of three modes. The first mode exists when a leader follows a dominant mode that is equal to the one that primarily guides his own coalition. The second mode is used by leaders who try to balance or trade off between logics. Finally, some leaders choose to cycle or alternate between logics, following the cues of first one coalition and then another. The three modes—*dominant*, *balancing* and *cycling*—are presented in turn below.

Dominant mode of integrating logics

One way that leaders deal with competing logics is to adopt a dominant or priority logic. The selected guiding principle will indicate the leader's choice of action—just as it does in the case of individual actors or professional groups. In this mode, leaders follow one type of logic rather than search for or develop a combined logic. For these leaders the presence of competing logics has little influence when decisions and actions are taken. Their leadership is guided by the specific justifications or values and beliefs associated with a particular type of logic. Different ideas are organized as “in” or “out,” according to the dominant discourse (Stewart, 2006):

I think we must decide what kind of values we have, what the standards should be, how we want things to be around here. It has to be the same for everyone. (Executive Director, Newspaper D)

When leaders use a dominant mode of integrating logic they do not choose from the full range of available logics presented in Chapter 5. Only three types of logic were found when a dominant mode was adopted: profession, business, and command and control. As illustrated in Table 7.1, 14 respondents show evidence of adopting a dominant mode of integrating logics. Of these, four adopted profession logic, six business logic, and four command and control logic. Respondents adopting a dominant mode of integrating logic were found with unitary, hybrid and dual leadership.

Table 7.1 : Dominant mode of integrating logics

Dominant mode of integrating logics	Executive role constellation	Context and position where identified
Profession logic	Unitary	Hospitals: 2 Professional Directors Education: 1 Professional Director
	Hybrid	Culture: 1 Professional Director
Business logic	Unitary	Hospital: 1 Executive Director
	Dual	Education: 1 Professional Director Culture: 1 Executive Director Newspapers: 3 Executive Directors
Command and Control logic	Unitary	Culture: 1 Executive Director
	Hybrid	Education: 1 Executive Director Culture: 1 Executive Director
	Dual	Education: 1 Professional Director

Profession logic dominant

The four leaders who adopted a dominant profession logic seem to see their own coalition as the core profession, and for these leaders following this logic is a priority, although other domains formally belong to their area of responsibility.

In hospital settings two medical professionals in a unitary structure adopted profession logic, and although representatives of other domains reported to them, these leaders did not demonstrate that the beliefs and needs of other domains were of much concern. In education the professional domain reflected a mode of integration in which professionals are expected to control all decision arenas and resources. The administrative domain was considered important only in terms of its ability to provide support. One museum Professional Director expected his own profession to be at the centre of operations and consequently he did not question the appropriateness of profession logics in the leadership position.

Hilde Fjellvær

The culture is not based on contracts and agreements. We don't need that – there was always consensus anyway – small units of people with similar backgrounds – there is a Bourdieu kind of understanding – we don't need to tell each other how things are done – it is taken for granted. (Professional Director, Museum C)

Business logic dominant

Other leaders followed a dominant business logic. As previously noted, one rector seems to understand his college's purpose as mainly to serve the demands of the local community. He emphasizes the furtiveness attached to following a profession logic out of touch with market needs:

A professor stuck in his office in front of a PC with no contact with the outside world. Of course, the discipline is important, but so much of it is market oriented. If we are to survive as a college, professionals can't keep doing things this way, or we will die—I use that word. (Professional Director, College C)

Others who display a dominant mode of business logic were executives in newspapers and cultural organizations, although to differing degrees. One newspaper executive director demonstrated little understanding of the reasoning followed by the editorial staff, while others accept editorial practices but think that these will be taken care of by the editor-in-chief and are of no concern to them:

When the journalists choose to interview other people than our commercial partners – of course the partners are upset. (Executive Director, Newspaper D)

Within the field of culture there were also examples of executive directors whose approach is grounded in business logic and who demonstrate little understanding of artistic priorities and thinking:

I have no influence in the planning of the artistic program. That is a problem because, as the day-to-day leader, you are responsible for financial performance, you are responsible for the number of tickets sold and you feel a responsibility to ... you keep a certain performance level—and you know, develop that part. (Executive Director, Orchestra B)

Command and control logic dominant

Finally, some leaders simply follow command and control governance logic. These leaders' mode of integrating a variety of logics appears to be based on the authority vested in the position rather than in a focus on a specific purpose.

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

One college professional leader, for example, believed that top management should be in control and that deans and other faculty representatives should be loyal to the hierarchical structure. A university director demonstrates that he understands the core values of profession logic but places the same professionals in a command and control type of governance logic:

Nowadays, with all the opposition among faculty to the different reforms, we need a director on the same court as the rector. We need firm leadership, and that is what we represent. The deans used to look upon themselves as faculty trustees, but this has changed. They are hired by the Board now, and we expect them to be part of the general management of the school. (Professional Director, College B)

In Appendix 7.1 page 239 I give examples which describe and illustrate each dominant mode of integrating logic further.

Balancing mode of integrating logics

A second mode of integrating logics, instead of relying on a dominant logic, is to seek a balance between logics. This can be described as a trade-off or a “both this and that” mode of integrating logics. Leaders do not depend on one logic but consider several at the same time. This is evident, for example, when educators claim that it is impossible to distinguish between the professional and administrative domains. Their message is that organizational domains are so intertwined and interdependent that one cannot consider one without the other. Leaders in all contexts acknowledge the fact that their organizations encompass multiple and competing logics. Examples include those who believe in and focus on professional autonomy and development but only within given resource frameworks. In this mode, leaders recognize that, due to a high degree of interdependence, professional domains overlap and that multiple expressions of profession and mission logic must be considered:

In a modern hospital complex, sound professional work is intertwined with administrative and organizational issues. Profession and administration are two parts of a whole. Thus, we would rather increase administrative and managerial competence among medical personnel than the opposite. (Executive Professional Director, Hospital B)

I find it hard to distinguish between domains. Admissions, for example—how do you decide when it's a professional judgement and when it's an administrative one? The deans might think the applicants are not good enough. We say we have to admit a

Hilde Fjellvær

certain number. Administrative and professional results are intertwined. More and more things are like that. Is it the responsibility of the professional or the administrative domain to judge the quality of how we present our education programs? (Professional Director, College E)

A balancing mode of integration is found in all contexts. The message is essentially that a high degree of interdependence necessitates an understanding of and reliance on multiple logics. The aim is to have co-existing logics and manage potential tensions continuously. In a balancing mode, newspaper editors realize that content development goes hand in hand with commercial development, and they insist that this is possible to achieve while still keeping the professional identity intact:

I enjoy being part of the strategy process. The results are better, too, with interaction between the commercial and editorial sides. Most of what we have done has come out of the editorial product—it's almost come to the point where the editors are into business development, thinking about possibilities for development, revenue potential and what we can do to increase the return on our professional products. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper A)

Similarly, artistic directors, although skeptical about the potential impact of an increased business focus, claim that they ultimately aim for artistic development while keeping within a responsible financial management framework. Within this mode they recognize that artistic or professional decisions also have financial consequences:

Liquidity is our Achilles heel—it communicates whether we are in control. The danger is that it may lead to defensive budgeting, which is a bad sign in our industry. Every time there's a surplus we evaluate: What happened? Is it because we were defensive and offered too little theatre, or is there another reason? (Artistic Director, Theatre A)

A balancing mode of integrating logics was found with the vast majority of respondents. They are leaders in unitary, hybrid and dual executive role constellations and they work in all contexts. This suggests that a balancing mode of integrating logics is not dependent on executive role constellation or context, but is related to a pluralistic environment and the presence of multiple and co-existing logics. The adoption of a balancing mode of integrating logics indicates that these leaders share a heightened awareness, or mindfulness, of the presence of co-existing logics and the need to address the resultant ambiguities. The co-existing and competing logics differ across contexts, obviously, but leaders share the be-

lief that it is possible to include all of these in a trade-off that benefits their part of the organization.

Appendix 7.2 page 241 describes and illustrates some cases where balancing modes of integrating logics were found.

Cycling mode of integrating logics

Sometimes leaders are unable or unwilling to follow a dominant or balancing mode of integrating logics. They alternate between logics in an attempt to accommodate different coalitions. Thacher and Rein (2004) suggest that “temporarily limiting the goals considered to be relevant” (p. 465) is one way of limiting the effects of competing logics. They introduce cycling as a construct for this phenomenon. Hence “cycling is a form of sequential attention-giving within organizations” (Stewart, 2006, p. 192). The result is that the leader’s attention to the different coalitions is constantly shifting. I found two examples of leaders adopting a cycling mode of integrating logics.

One leader alternated between the command and control logic expected by the head of his college and the autonomy logic expected by the competing professional domains in his department. First he emphasized the importance of professional participation for his departmental advisory board. Later he concluded that their opinion did not really matter, as his job was to follow the orders of top management. He tried to maintain control of departmental affairs through the power vested in his position, yet decided to divide the program coordination positions among all programs when it became seemingly impossible for different sections to relate to the same coordinator.

The other leader struggled with the effects of a merger between two professional departments whose research and teaching were within the same domain but had very different outlooks (preserve versus produce). One group expected decision-making to take place in general assembly and expected information to be communicated face to face. The other group was more familiar with and respectful of a formal governance structure where decision-making and communication take place in formal meetings, hearings, and written and electronic communication. Both groups felt that using arenas more familiar to the other group placed them at a disadvantage. The leader had ideas about how things should be done but kept trying to accommodate both groups. The result was that he ended

up exhausting himself and frustrating both groups. Table 7.2 page 159 further illustrates the adoption of a cycling mode.

While these findings support research on the existence of a cycling mode of integration, the evidence is not sufficiently strong to conclude on the kinds of cycling strategies used (Stewart, 2006). The present results indicate that leaders who adopt a cycling mode of integration, similar to those who adopt a balancing mode, demonstrate an awareness of the presence and importance of competing logics.

In summary, I identified three modes of integrating logics—dominant, balancing and cycling. Of the three, balancing mode is the most common and there are no indications of variation due to context or executive role constellation. The three modes vary substantially in their perspective on the presence of co-existing and competing logics. With a dominant mode, the presence of competing logics is either not acknowledged or the leader in question does not perceive the management of those competing logics to be his responsibility. This can mean that the leader is convinced that there exists only one priority logic for the organization and that the other domains represent support functions. Alternatively—and consistent with the part of profession logic in which leadership roles are viewed as an extension of the profession—the leader sees himself as representing his own domain and coalition.

Table 7.2: Cycling mode of integrating competing logics illustration

Respondents	Cycling mode of integrating logics	Illustration
<p>College B Middle level PD</p>	<p>Attempting to reconcile different coalitions professional director alternate between different profession logics. In addition he adheres to faculty expectations of autonomy and to college management expectations of loyalty to the hierarchical structure.</p>	<p><i>I have been squeezed from both sides – now I try to position myself on the side of top management.</i></p> <p><i>We were supposed to have three program coordinators – but the different groups couldn't work together and we divided one position in three. Now we have six coordinators.</i></p> <p><i>It is difficult to communicate with all of the groups. I just came from a meeting with one group – they are not happy with my work. This morning I met with another group to find a way to manage the resource situation. They are equally unhappy.</i></p> <p><i>The department board disagreed. It's OK - the Board hired me and I report to rector.</i></p> <p><i>The department board really is a good forum for discussions. I should probably use them more.</i></p>
<p>University C Middle level PD</p>	<p>Professional director struggle with competing professional domains. Aims to follow some kind of balance logic but ends up cycling between logics.</p>	<p><i>I organized some general assemblies – but one group disagreed. As no final decisions were made in that forum I was told it wasn't a real general assembly like they were used to.</i></p> <p><i>One section wants me to get up during lunch and inform of what goes on – I'm not very comfortable with that, but I have done it a few times and they like it.</i></p> <p><i>Information on the reorganizing process had been available for everyone. Before the final vote in the department board I foresaw the outcome as two student representatives agreed with me – and this made the decision final. But the representatives from one group were very upset, so to ease the pain we named a small task force to consider the actual wording of the mandate. Then the other group reacted – according to them the procedure had been decided long ago so there was no need for a task force.</i></p>

In contrast, both of the other modes indicate an awareness of co-existing and competing logics. Respondents who have adopted a balancing mode do not always acknowledge the presence of competing logics, but they all express awareness of co-existing logics that need to be managed for the greater good of the organization. The two representatives of cycling mode are clearly aware of the presence of competing logics, and cycling between logics is an attempt at managing these.

Apart from newspapers, there are no clear patterns for the adoption of specific modes. In hospitals and cultural organizations there is some indication that non-dominant coalition representatives are more aware of the presence of co-existing logics than dominant coalition representatives, but the evidence is not conclusive and further investigation is needed. In education a balancing mode does not seem to hold, particularly for professional and administrative staff. Some professional directors display a dominant mode and some executive directors display a balancing mode, and vice versa. In newspapers all professional directors display a balancing mode, whereas all but one of the executive directors display a dominant mode.

Modes of integrating logics are not systematically linked to distinct types of executive role constellations, but uncovering the modes provides interesting insights regarding the different constellations.

Mode of integrating logics is one dimension where the difference between different types of role constellations can be assessed. Under hybrid and dual leadership, and in contrast to unitary constellations, two modes of integrating logics may be adopted simultaneously. Leaders in a unitary structure either follow one principal logic in the day-to-day management of their organization, alternate between principles, or attempt to continuously draw on multiple principles. Table 7.3, page 161 illustrates the distribution of modes of integration among leaders in unitary constellations. Thus mode of integration tells us something about how individual leaders approach ambiguity due to competing logics. It also sheds light on the potential effects of multiple executive role constellations. Constellations with multiple executives can mean the presence of different combinations of integration modes. By studying these combinations or configurations of modes of integrating competing logics, we can gain a deeper understanding of the gains and losses associated with various executive role constellations.

Table 7.3: Distribution of modes of integration in unitary and unitary hybrid constellations

Mode of integrating logics	Type of role constellation	Constellation unit of analysis
Dominant	Unitary	Two hospital constellations* Two education constellations One museum constellation*
Balance	Unitary	Six hospital constellations Two education constellations* Three museum constellations One theatre constellation
	Hybrid	Three hospital constellations One orchestra constellation
Cycling	Hybrid	Two education constellations

* Respondents display attitudes consistent with both balance and dominant or little evidence. Category attached based on my overall evaluation.

Configurations of integrating logics

Multiple executive role constellations result in different configurations of integrating logic. In addition to the “pure” types associated with unitary leadership, three configurations are possible where two different leaders are involved (dual and hybrid role constellations): balancing-balancing, dominant-balancing and dominant-dominant.

A *balancing-balancing* configuration means that both executives adopt a balancing mode of integrating CL. Here professionals and administrators paint a similar picture of what kind of challenges they are facing. In one newspaper, for example, the editor and executive director voiced concerns about how to balance the presentation of interesting and important information to the public and fulfilling owner expectations. Similarly, the artistic and executive directors of a theatre agreed that they had to aim for high professional and artistic standards while also catering to a range of audiences. A pair of education leaders agreed

Hilde Fjellvær

that input and understanding from all domains would be needed; they claimed that unless all domains are taken into account the college will cease to exist:

I insisted we have an expanded leader-group meeting. I wanted the administrative leaders to know and understand what the professionals were doing, and vice versa.
(Executive Director, College E)

By the end we had a few points on the agenda—which, it was pretty obvious, the finance and personnel directors didn't really need to sit in on. I know this is sometimes a test of patience, but on the other hand we get a flow of information that doesn't have to be distributed in any other way. And there are so many cases where in the end we all have to provide some input—the deans, the directors of finance or studies, everyone has to have input—and all the parts have to come together in the end. (Professional Director, College E)

A balancing-balancing configuration indicates that both leaders are mindful of the interdependencies between coalitions and the tensions and ambiguities that can arise due to the presence of competing logics. Eight constellations belong to this group. They are found in all contexts except hospitals, as most constellations here are unitary.

A *balancing-dominant* configuration exists when one leader follows a balancing mode of integrating logics and the other follows a dominant mode. If only one party is aware of interdependency effects and the other party focuses primarily on coalition-specific goals, we can expect discrepancies in how they approach day-to-day operations. Two leaders would then have very different understandings of both what kind of challenges the organization is facing and what constitutes the best approach to dealing with those challenges. I identified four constellations where this was the case. In two of these, the executive director represented a dominant mode of integration, one following business logic in a newspaper and the other following business and command and control logics in a cultural organization. For the last constellation, in education, the professional director displayed a dominant business logic whereas the executive director showed a balancing mode, focusing on finding trade-offs between profession and resource logics. Newspaper B can serve to illustrate a balancing-dominant configuration.

People working here are individualists, yet at the same time loyalty and belief in the idea of the newspaper are strong. I compare it with the culture in political parties: Loyalty to the basic principles and traditions of the party is strong, yet at the same

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

time there's room for discussion and disagreement. It can be hard to understand for people whose background is different. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper B)

*We are trained differently—there's no denying that. We are more highly educated in terms of structure and considering alternatives and thinking ahead... . When we run projects in our departments, we want milestones and detailed plans, and we want to know where the discrepancies are and all of that. But if the editorial staff is in charge of a project you'll get a report that's really well written - but really - that hardly constitutes success... they are great to read but ... it's all connected to background and training. (Executive Director, Newspaper B) **

Finally, a dual or hybrid management structure can also lend itself to a *dominant-dominant* configuration. In this case, two different guiding principles are followed simultaneously, with little thought being given to other types of organizational purposes. I found evidence of one such configuration, with one leader following business logic and the other profession logic. The role constellation was a hybrid. While the executive director sees himself at the top of a hierarchy, the professional director is autonomous and central to organizational operations due to his core competencies. Each realizes that there are other logics at play, besides the one he is pursuing, yet each is on a quest to define the true organizational purpose:

The aims embedded in the museum ideas - to preserve and protect the collections - make them known - exhibit them - on this most of us agree. Then we will more or less agree when formulating plans and strategies - you know this modern way of expressing oneself - like 'leading and extending borders' and that kind of nonsense (Professional Director, Museum C)

It's important for this museum to find a new audience and become a concern for everyone—on a wider basis. There is of course research as well (Executive Director, Museum C)

Table 7.4 page 164 provides an overview of the different configurations of integrating logics for all constellations under dual and dual hybrid constellations.

Table 7.4: Dual and dual hybrid configurations of modes of integration

Configuration of integrating logics	Type of role constellation	Constellation unit of analysis
Balance-Balance	Hybrid	Three education constellations
	Dual	Three education constellations One theatre constellation One newspaper constellation
Balance-Dominant	Hybrid	One orchestra constellation
	Dual	One education constellation Two newspaper constellations
Dominant-Dominant	Hybrid	One museum constellation

Practical approaches

Although structural solutions may serve to clarify many issues, and the balancing mode of integrating logics, in particular, indicates acceptance of and willingness to work with the diversity of pluralistic organizations, tension due to competing logics will remain. Thus, in addition to the mechanisms presented above, leaders will have to rely on day-to-day practices to manage ambiguity. I found evidence of three practical approaches—relational, structural and cognitive—each of which includes various practices. Table 7.5 page 165 summarizes the three approaches and the types of action taken by leaders within each.

Table 7.5: Summary of practical approaches

Practical Approaches	Description	Type of practice
Relational	Practices aimed at establishing and developing relationships between key actors from different coalitions. Ambiguity is managed through interaction and decision making processes involving representatives from all domains.	<p><i>Bridging:</i> Leaders representing distinct coalitions constitute the active link between domains.</p> <p><i>Teaming:</i> A group collectively representing different coalitions constitute main arena for idea generation and decision making.</p> <p><i>Confrontation:</i> Allow conflict escalation and communication breakdown to demonstrate need for team cohesion.</p>
Structural	Leaders draw on members outside executive role constellation for idea generation and decision-making. Either by including actors outside formal structure or by pushing decisions to other entity.	<p><i>Abdicating:</i> Decision-making moved to other organizational entity for resolution especially when bridging does not work.</p> <p><i>Participating:</i> Involve profession representatives outside formal hierarchy in idea generation and problem solving.</p>
Cognitive	Leaders aim to develop actors' mutual knowledge and understanding of other groups, individuals and the multiplicity of interests that they represent. Try to increase or change members' understanding of own and other domains and interdependencies.	<p><i>Familiarizing:</i> Focus on increasing members' knowledge and understanding of other domains and coalitions.</p> <p><i>Confronting Ideas:</i> Exploit diversity by creating arenas to challenge and develop ideas across domains.</p> <p><i>Competence Building:</i> Build internal and external coalition legitimacy by deliberate initiation and implementation of competence enhancing activities.</p> <p><i>Probing:</i> Leaders challenge or entice expert advice by probing for reasons or evidence of effects before making a decision in areas where he has to rely on other professionals' competence.</p> <p><i>Redefining:</i> Redefine or reframe issues to simultaneously different coalitions' logics.</p>

In this section I describe each approach and discuss how it was used and under what type of role constellation. This leads to a discussion linking practices to each type of competing logic managed.

Relational approaches

The first practical approach to managing competing logics is based on establishing and developing relationships between key actors from different coalitions. Actors deal with ambiguity through interaction and decision-making processes involving representatives of all domains. Each domain is represented by coalition representatives, whether formally appointed leaders or “first among equals.” With a relational approach, processes initiated and decisions taken rely on representatives’ knowledge of other representatives and their competencies, mutual trust and common understanding of the working relationship. Issues arising from a variety of logics are implicitly and explicitly considered by coalition representatives. Bridging and teaming were the two main types of relational practices identified. A third practice is confrontation, which is used in special cases. Table 7.6 page 167 shows the contexts and types of role constellations in which relational practices appear.

Bridging

In systems that feature structural separation, such as dual leadership, the two leaders take on the role of mediator and engage in a bridging practice. Here, leaders who represent distinct coalitions within the organization are responsible for bridging the divide between the different domains. The foremost characteristic of a bridging practice is interaction by leaders, each representing different structural as well as logic pillars. The separated parts are connected through the leaders’ interaction and common decision-making in areas that feature a high degree of interdependence. Leaders in both purely dual and hybrid dual structures emphasize the high level of interdependence and the accompanying need for the two leaders to work closely together:

Table 7.6: Relational approaches to managing competing logics

Relational Practices	Type of role constellation	Constellation unit
Bridging	Dual	Four education constellations One culture constellation Four newspaper constellations
	Hybrid	Seven education constellation One culture constellation
Teaming	Unitary	Four hospital constellations One education constellation Three culture constellations
	Hybrid	Three hospital constellations Two education constellations
Confrontation	Unitary	One hospital constellation One culture constellation
	Hybrid	Two hospital constellations Two education constellations One culture constellation
	Dual	One newspaper constellation

In order to implement anything, we need to act together. I can't do this on my own. I wouldn't be able to get anything done without him. (Executive Director, College D)

We're completely dependent upon each other. The editorial side couldn't possibly function without the support or involvement of others, nor could we function without access to editorial resources. (Executive Director, Newspaper A)

Bridging occurs when leaders keep communication channels open and engage in frequent interaction. Some talk informally several times a day, whether in person or by phone. Although all describe frequent interaction, the understanding and practice of this differs. In some cases the two leaders have offices next door to each other and interaction is informal and spontaneous. In other cases leaders are located among their peers and interaction mostly takes place through specific

Hilde Fjellvær

meetings at specific times. Either way, the emphasis is on keeping each other informed and “in the loop”:

No, we don't have any formal meetings—just continuous contact. (Professional Director, College E)

The three leaders in the top team meet every day, quite informally—no set meetings. When the need arises, we agree to spend an hour together—I guess it happens once or twice a week. The director and I talk frequently during the day. If there's anything, we take 10 or 15 minutes ... The director is usually right through that door. It's always open—no locks on the doors here. (Professional Director, College B)

Last year we realized that the leadership group wasn't structured enough, so from this year on the director and I decided to take turns in leading that group. This year I'm in charge and next year he'll be in charge. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper B)

As shown in Table 7.6 page 167, bridging was found in all of the dual cases and half of the hybrid cases. The hybrid cases with a bridging practice are close to dual leadership. There are no hospital leaders who use bridging, as structural integration in most cases is very advanced here. The structural separation of functions—and coalitions—is among the defining characteristics of dual leadership, and the extensive use of bridging indicates that leaders in these systems are aware of the interdependence between domains and their own role in keeping the domains connected.

Teaming

The other main relational practice is teaming. Teaming takes place when leaders rely on a group that collectively represents different coalitions in the organization for the purposes of continuous idea generation and decision-making. The formal leader establishes a larger operational base by depending on the team as a basis for operations, and for balancing different logics as the team represents the multiplicity of goals and beliefs. This is done through active management of interaction and cohesion within this group.

The advantage is that we get a much richer analysis, a broader view of how to approach things. Some of us are extroverts and trigger-happy, can't seem to change things fast enough. Others are more analytical and like to think carefully before making a decision. Thus everything is considered from different perspectives. Everything we do is so complex; you have to consider multiple dimensions. If you stay on

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

one track you may find a solution, but there may be things you never considered that can be crucial. (Executive Professional Director, Hospital B)

The practice can be identified by leaders' approach to the leadership role and by relationship-building activities. How the leadership role is approached is important. A leader who feels that decision-making is his responsibility alone and who is concerned about hierarchical relationships would not choose a teaming strategy. The idea that decisions are team-based, rather than the leader's responsibility alone, is at the core of this strategy:

That's no way to run things if you are on a team and are equal to the others. The team can't start off with the leader proclaiming, "This is for me to decide." That's not the role of a team. (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital A)

Several respondents mention the use of an outside coach as instrumental in getting a team off its feet and enabling it to take on the role of leading the organizational unit. In addition to the use of a coach, respondents also mention frequent use of personnel seminars, professional development workshops and social gatherings as tools for enhancing team cohesiveness and willingness to take on the challenges presented by multiple coalitions:

We have regular seminars or workshops to develop the leadership group ... It is crucial to gain some common understanding of the leadership group. You have to understand your role. We all have different roles. (Middle-level Professional Director A, Hospital A)

Table 7.6 page 167 shows that teaming is closely linked to unitary leadership and is especially favored by hospital leaders. Many of these leaders come from non-dominant coalitions and are leaders and do not have a medical background. Teaming was also found in some educational and cultural organizations. In all cases, decision-making mainly rests on one person and teaming is an active strategy for this person to involve multiple domains.

Confrontation

The relational approach is based on managing tension by establishing patterns of interaction to promote communication and problem-solving across domains. Seen from this perspective, confrontation is a reversed relational approach. It is closely connected to teaming and is used in cases where a team is either unwilling

Hilde Fjellvær

or unable to interact and develop the cohesion necessary to manage competing logics. In one case, confrontation was used as a drastic relational strategy to get past this. The leader deliberately allowed conflict to escalate to the point where the team dissolved. The purpose was to demonstrate, both to team members and their respective coalitions, the crucial role of the team in departmental operations. The resultant team breakdown allowed her to start over with new coalition representatives:

R: As the leader of the team and as the department manager, I had been wondering for a long time what to do. In the end, I could see no other solution than to let it all go to pieces.

I: Did you discuss that with anyone?

R: No, I just decided to let it go. I told them, "There are things that I can work with and things I can't. The two of them just cannot work together." ... Get it in midfield and let it crash. This team is dead. What do we do next? (Lower-level Professional Director B, Hospital A)

Other leaders do not use such drastic measures yet are willing to let conflict evolve in order to permit acceptance of necessary change. One example is a conflict over the distribution of leadership positions across hospital professions. As a pilot case, the hospital was no longer appointing leaders based primarily on profession but was doing so based on leadership competence. The hospital governors were convinced of the merit of this reform and were prepared to take the case as far as necessary:

We were one of two pilot hospitals. At the other one nothing at all happened, but here the Board was willing to go all the way to see some real changes, even if the price was "a war in white," as it became known. We had to be willing to endure a long conflict—and we did. (Professional Director, Hospital E)

As indicated in Table 7.6 page 167, confrontation is discussed as a possibility with eight leadership constellations. In most cases it is suggested as a possibility in the event of a stalemate, but few respondents give examples of engaging in such a practice. In those instances where it is described, the purpose is to open up issues and promote understanding and acceptance of real interdependencies between domains.

Structural approach

The second approach is a structural approach in which leaders draw on individuals and groups from other parts of the formal structure in the idea-generation and decision-making processes. Whereas relational practices are based on the interaction between coalition representatives in trying to generate a common solution, structural practices handle ambiguity in two ways: by *moving* the decision-making authority to a different organizational entity, or by *including actors* from outside the formal structure in idea-generating activities and anchoring decision-making. The first can be seen as *abdicating* and the second as *participating*. Table 7.7 on page 171 shows the distribution of structural practices across cases.

Table 7.7: Structural approaches to managing competing logics

Structural practices	Type of role constellation	Constellation unit
Abdicating	Dual	Three education constellations Four newspaper constellations
	Hybrid	Six education constellations
Participating	Unitary	Two hospital constellations Three education constellations Five culture constellations
	Hybrid	One hospital constellation Eight education constellations Three culture constellations
	Dual	Four education constellations One culture constellation One newspaper constellation

Abdicating

Abdicating takes place when organizational actors transfer decision-making from their own organizational entity to another. This happens when coalition or domain representatives cannot agree on a solution. Thought is then given to moving matters to a higher organizational entity, such as the Board:

The editor and I discuss the effects of an initiative—what the risk is and so on. And if the risk is too great and we may lose money and we cannot agree, then it will be “pushed up”- be put before the Board. In the event of disagreement, that’s the route to take. (Executive Director, Newspaper D)

The position is not clear. I report to him, and he is the Chairman of the Board, but on the other hand I report directly to the Board when it comes to finances. So if some kind of crisis came up—or some idiot came along (I have seen directors resign because of that)—then I’d say that the Board would be the safety net. (Executive Director, College G)

However, abdicating is not something leaders want to use. Respondents stress that it is used reluctantly and rarely. Although they suggest that it would be a solution in the event of a stalemate, only one leader admitted to having resorted to it. Moving decisions up the hierarchy is considered a safety valve, or an “emergency exit”—not normal practice. To resort to abdicating will usually be perceived as admitting defeat:

It’s a hopeless situation for the Board, of course—it will be wrong no matter what they decide to do. I don’t want to put them in that situation ... On the other hand, there’s no point if one party is always the one to yield either, so we have to find a solution together. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper C)

The departmental leader makes the call, but if they disagree in the department they can appeal to the director. The departmental leader decides until the director makes his decision. It almost never happens. They argue fervently within the department, and when they come to us they all agree and are nice and happy. The loyalty to the department is very strong. (Professional Director, Hospital E)

As seen in Table 7.7 page 171, abdicating is used only under dual and hybrid leadership. Here, moving decisions up the hierarchy is considered a natural option given that no one leader has the official last word. If an issue truly cannot be resolved by the two leaders, they can move it up the hierarchy.

Although leaders indicate that they are hesitant to employ this tactic, the idea of abdicating was found in all but two of the dual cases. With structural separa-

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

tion, abdicating is closely connected to bridging. If bridging fails, then matters can be moved up the hierarchy for a final decision. In the two cases where there was no evidence of abdicating a bridging practice was used, and, given the presence of structural separation, it is reasonable to speculate that in the case of an unresolved conflict between two leaders the Board would also be called upon here.

In purely unitary structures, moving decisions up the chain of command is seen not as abdicating but as managing by relying on the hierarchical structure. A few leaders realize that there may be times when their efforts to manage multiple coalitions through teaming, for example, will not be successful and that decisions still have to be made. As with the dual cases, one unitary leader said he was cautious about exercising the option of relying on the hierarchy, since moving decisions up the chain could be interpreted as favoring one coalition over another, which could serve to increase rather than defuse tension:

I had the option—according to my mandate—of appealing the decision to the university Board. I could have done that, but I quickly found that it would be awkward. They probably would have agreed with me, but it would have been very provocative for members of the department. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University C)

In another case, and moving from structural separation to structural integration, one educational organization still kept open the possibility of abdicating. To ensure leader legitimacy in a system where faculty involvement was no longer part of the formal structure but was desirable for reasons of anchoring decisions and leader legitimacy, an emergency exit was created:

As a safety valve, if the dean is unable or unwilling to listen to the council he should consult the rector and tell him, “They gave me this advice but I choose to do it differently. Is that alright?” That’s the safety valve we came up with... . This way, the council knows that its advice is important. If the dean isn’t able to follow this advice, he has to consult the rector before making his decision. (Executive Director, University A)

In this case, hierarchical structures had recently been introduced and abdicating was considered a possible mechanism for easing the transition to a command and control logic associated with hierarchical structure.

Participating

The second structural practice is participating. Here, the purpose is to strengthen coalition commitment by involving domain representatives within the organization but outside the formal hierarchy in the generation of ideas and the anchoring of decisions. These individuals are included due to their role or position as profession representatives. The dean's group in university systems is one example. The difference between a relational teaming practice and a structural participating practice is that the focus in a teaming practice is on developing a long-term relationship whereas in a participating practice it is on legitimating decisions by involving specific coalitions. Although leaders are in a position to make decisions, they understand that to act without the support of members and coalitions will make their job more difficult:

Listening, involving departments in decisions—openness, allowing everyone to know what is being decided, for everyone to have insight and input ... it is important in our kind of organization to avoid hidden agendas ... all of these talented people would see right through that. (Executive Director, College D)

You have to have support in everything you do. It's not that you have to use formal processes, but if you come up with too much that is not embedded in the organization, it will be messy. (Lower-level Professional Director B, University A)

Unlike the other practices discussed, participating is not tied to a specific role constellation. It is found in unitary, hybrid and dual structures, but there was no evidence of participating found in newspapers and little in hospitals. Three leaders in health-care organizations said that they wanted to actively involve members in idea-generation and decision-making but did not systematically rely on input from coalition representatives. Therefore, it is not really a structural approach to coping with ambiguity.

As demonstrated in Table 7.7 page 171, participating is especially important in educational institutions. Only two out of 17 education constellations do not mention this as an important strategy. Similarly, participating is important in most museums. It often takes place in formal settings, with a degree of frequency, and often preceding or parallel to formal decision-making processes:

For me, a prerequisite for accepting the position of dean was faculty acceptance. Without their acceptance I would not have accepted the post. I don't think I have made a single decision without the support of the staff. Sometimes you have to make decisions quickly. In those cases I tell them what has come up and ask them to report

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

back immediately. I use e-mail a lot, and I meet with the faculty Board once a month.
(Middle-level Professional Director B, University C)

You have to always keep in mind that you are in a system where people are individuals. They are here because of a commitment to their subject and profession, not because of their paycheck. You can't do much without faculty anchoring. I think every university needs an arena to ensure the necessary dialogue. It would be impossible to make a top-down decision and expect them to jump. (Middle-level Executive Director B, University A)

All upper-level university professional directors involve the deans' group in generating and anchoring decisions. In two cases the Board found this involvement to be positive, but one rector explained that although he used the deans' group actively, he had to point out to the Board that formal decisions were its alone to make. Although participating is seen as essential, most leaders take pains not to violate formal structural accountability and to separate discussion and idea-generation from formal decision-making.

Cognitive approach

Where relational approaches rely on the quality of relations and structural approaches on the network of relations, cognitive approaches rely on increasing or changing a member's understanding and interpretation of his or her own area of expertise, as well as of other coalitions. The aim is to develop actors' mutual knowledge and understanding of other groups and individuals and the multiplicity of interests that they represent. This aim is met by familiarizing actors with individuals and groups in other domains, by developing one's own and others' formal competence and by building new bases of knowledge through the conscious meeting, probing and redefining of ideas and logics. Table 7.8 page 176 summarizes the different cognitive practices and where they are found.

Table 7.8: Cognitive approaches to managing competing logics

Cognitive practices	Type of role constellation	Constellation unit
Familiarizing	Unitary	Four hospital constellations One education constellation Four culture constellations
	Hybrid	Three hospital constellations Seven education constellations Two culture constellations
	Dual	Three education constellations One culture constellation Three newspaper constellations
Confronting ideas	Unitary	Two hospital constellations One education constellation Two culture constellations
	Hybrid	Two education constellations One culture constellation*
	Dual	Two education constellations One culture constellation Two newspaper constellations
Competence Building	Unitary	Three hospital constellations One education constellation Two culture constellations
	Hybrid	Three hospital constellations One education constellation
	Dual	One education constellation
Probing	Unitary	Two hospital constellations One education constellation Two culture constellations
	Hybrid	One culture constellation
Redefining	Unitary	One hospital constellation One culture constellation
	Hybrid	One education constellation

Familiarizing

The aim of a familiarizing strategy is to reduce ambiguity and conflict through activities aimed at increasing organizational members' knowledge and understanding of other groups as well as their own area of competence. The focus is on increasing the level of understanding for both leaders and organizational members. Leaders use strategies such as social gatherings, seminars across professional groups or organizational entities, or relocation of coalitions to achieve geographical proximity or formal presentations for other groups. Job exchanges are held in order to familiarize both leaders and members with other domains. The idea is that ambiguities and conflicts will diminish when groups whose basic values are different get to know each other:

It has a bearing on your legitimacy that you know them—to be taken seriously, to have some knowledge and perhaps some formal competency in the areas that they teach. Or you can compensate. I had no background in culture before coming here, but I sat in on classes at the conservatory to get to know their culture. They urged me on to make me, as a business person, see what they were doing, and I think that was clever—it makes it so much easier to communicate with them. (Executive Director, College D)

The executive director and rector of one of the smaller colleges were adamant that everyone in the leadership group should be exposed to discussions and decisions outside their own domain in order to understand the issues facing other departments and areas of competency. Their aim was for everyone involved to realize that multiple needs must be met in order for the institution to function as a whole:

The leadership group spends a lot of time together, and we are a large group for such a small organization. I feel that you can't be a good administrator if you don't understand what goes on in the professional domain. It's a constraint that I don't know how to do ceramics and I can't paint—but there are ways to understand the processes and structures in this that are important to see. I think that this is a prerequisite for a low level of conflict between the professional and administrative sides. People need to know something of what goes on. (Executive Director, College E)

In contrast to the relational and structural approaches, cognitive practices such as familiarizing do not involve leaders only. Leaders try to expose different groups directly to each other. Familiarizing activities are aimed across domains and organizational levels. Several respondents are concerned, for example, that the spatial separation of administrative and professional staffs serve to increase

Hilde Fjellvær

ambiguity. They believe that administrative staff should to be located close to the core activities:

Administration was located over in that large building 400 meters down the road, far away from all the professionals. There was no way I could accept that. If I'm going to live with an administration, the administration has to be located where value is added. I want them right here, in the middle of everything. (Professional Director, Museum D)

I don't see any other way than to promote professional association—try to motivate people to come to staff seminars and address the issues again, and in a while hopefully we will be located together, and that might speed up the process. To be in the same house, and to share the lunch room ... I try to motivate people to take their lunch and move across the courtyard now, but really it has been minimal. (Middle-level Professional Director A, University C)

Table 7.8 page 176 shows that familiarizing is (with participating) the most common practice and is found with unitary, hybrid and dual leadership. In dual structures, certain groups or individuals are often specifically targeted and leaders often stress the need for a certain level of insight into the other domain. Due to the structural separation, it is easier to identify areas that members are less knowledgeable about; administrative groups may, for example, be specifically targeted to better understand the professional domain.

Under unitary structures the focus is not on enhancing legitimacy and creating a better base for common solutions. Instead, tactics are often aimed at multiple groups and the focus is on activities that can increase groups' understanding and acceptance of all domains as important for the organization:

When new things are introduced, we've focused on involving the whole team. It used to be that a couple of surgeons were included, and then somehow the rest were expected to have a revelation from heaven. We've put a lot of emphasis on changing that. (Lower-level Professional Director B, Hospital A)

The two types of gastro specialties work with very similar things. One group performs surgical procedures and the other doesn't. We wanted to organize them together. Neither group accepted that. But now they are on the same floor and use many of the same rooms. They have separate staff rooms., but I took representatives from both groups to see how they were doing some things in Sweden. We had some common seminars. They still wouldn't do it. But we have started a process—they co-operate over holidays. They are getting to know each other. Prejudice will decrease. You have to accept the fact that you need longer transition periods than they teach

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

you in books. Doctors are not very progress-oriented unless it strictly has to do with their specialty. (Executive Professional Director, Hospital B)

Unlike participating, familiarizing is not common among education leaders. Familiarizing does appear to be highly relevant for hospitals and cultural organizations. This could be because, despite the variety of subjects, education professionals in general and researchers in particular share the same type of basic training. Their respect for other domains, or lack thereof, is tied to method and demonstrated professionalism rather than to the subject as such.

Confronting Ideas

Whereas the idea behind familiarizing is to promote understanding across domains by exposing organizational members to domains other than their own, confronting ideas involves the active exploitation of diversity. The aim is to generate new knowledge and understanding through the creation of arenas for deliberate vetting and challenging of ideas. This is also an awareness issue. If leaders define and accept heterogeneity as a positive source of organizational learning and development, they will look for situations where ideas meet and are confronted as opportunities for development. One leader initiated meetings of ideas through cross-professional presentations and job exchanges:

This is where opinions meet and are tested. We want your competence and my competence to meet, and out of that we hope new insight will grow—insight that otherwise would escape us: You see what I see and vice versa. This promotes the fortuitous incidence of new competence development. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

The results improved through interaction between the editorial and commercial domains. Most of what we've done is anchored in the editorial domain. It's almost come to the point where the editorial staff are involved in commercial thinking—working on development and how to create revenue and how to get paid for what we do. (Editor-in-Chief, Newspaper A)

As seen in Table 7.8 page 176, confronting ideas is referred to in all three types of constellations and across contexts, but not widely. Although leaders in about a quarter of the constellations speak favorably about this option, only three or four leaders actually refer to situations where they have initiated this kind of action. One reason for this could be that in situations of constant underlying competing logics, actively seeking it out may be too much to ask:

Hilde Fjellvær

I had this breathtaking idea when I first started, but in the end I had to admit defeat—even the brightest can be wrong [laughs]. What I did was hold an enlarged deans' meeting, including both the deans and the departmental directors. I thought it worked really well but most people didn't. After about a year I realized that the needs were different. The directors needed to meet with the university director and I met with the deans. I still think it worked well—I learned so much and thought it was great—but the others weren't very happy. (Professional Director, University B)

Competence-Building

Competence-building is aimed at developing members' own professional competence, whereas, for example, the focus of familiarizing is on increasing their understanding of other domains. Initiation and implementation of competence-enhancing activities can be used to build coalition legitimacy both within a coalition and in relation to other coalitions. Different measures are introduced to encourage members to engage in competence-building activities.

The introduction of new financing systems in health and educational institutions has served to increase the emphasis on production. In addition, professional legitimacy among dominant professional groups (such as doctors and professors) rests on a level of formal competence. Although competence-building in general is very much part of the core idea of most of the organizations in this study, different outlooks on formal competence can represent important competing logics at play:

It's important to increase the recognition of our field. That goes hand in hand with promoting research and a more academic approach. We simply need to develop independent research activities to be taken more seriously. (Lower-level Professional Director A, Hospital C)

Our focus has been on building competence. We now have the hospital's first occupational therapist with a master's degree. There are also nurses and physiotherapists working on their master's degrees. We just applied for a PhD grant for one of our young doctors... We agreed on a professional competence plan to indicate the direction we have to move in. I truly believe in increasing professional awareness, being critical, being aware of the fact that we are working in a university hospital—we're not just any organization. You have an embedded commitment to developing new knowledge if you want to work here. (Middle-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

In the above case, the leader places competence-building high on the agenda and uses every opportunity to allocate resources to various professional development schemes. For the doctors and physiotherapists with a tradition (and inherent ex-

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

pectations) of professional development, the new emphasis on formal competence-building such as pursuing a doctoral or master's studies was a welcome initiative and demonstrated that a leader with a nursing background truly appreciated the mechanisms at play. For nurses, occupational therapists and some other groups, however, this was a new way of thinking and took longer to become internalized. One measure taken was to give staff regular time off to catch up on research and development in their area:

As part of the nurses' six-week shift schedule, they have a half day to catch up on their reading. They can leave the unit to go and study. It took a while for them to get used to this. But last year two nurses wrote a paper on wound treatment, with the chief doctor. It was accepted as one of two Norwegian papers at a conference in France. So they got to go to Paris, just because they are allowed—and encouraged—to leave their post to go and write. They sometimes teach at the college now. But you have to give people resources and time; otherwise nothing will happen. (Lower-level Professional Director, Hospital D)

As shown in Table 7.8 page 176, competence-building was found primarily with unitary leadership. It is used mainly by leaders whose formal background is in a non-dominant profession and mainly in hospitals. Two museums and two educational organizations also showed evidence of focusing on competence-building as a means of managing ambiguity. In one museum, for example, members of different domains were specifically trained in project management as a way of fostering cross-domain cooperation.

Probing

Probing is observed when leaders challenge or entice expert advice by probing for reasons for or evidence of effects before making a decision in an area in which the leader must rely on the competence of other professionals. Leaders use probing to ensure a sound foundation for decisions that they ultimately will be held accountable for:

There are grey areas where it's important to invite people in. I've never overruled a medical decision, but I might ask questions such as "Why do you use that procedure? I heard that another hospital uses another procedure. What made you choose this one?" or "How do you want me to defend this decision on your behalf?" (Middle-level Professional Director B, Hospital A)

As an artistic director, you are completely dependent on the technical staff, and if they say "no" it is difficult for me to ignore that. I have professionals I have to trust

Hilde Fjellvær

and build confidence in, but the moment I feel they decline a request just to be comfortable or some other hard-to-pinpoint reason, then I really have to work hard to find out what is going on. (Artistic Director, Theatre A)

Like competence-building, this practice is used chiefly by leaders from non-dominant professions to address their lack of expertise in core competence areas in the organization, but it is also used by leaders entering unfamiliar domains.

As seen in Table 7.8 page 176, probing is not frequently employed. Only unitary leaders discuss its deliberate use, and in all but one case it was found among leaders in non-dominant professions. It is considered a useful strategy for qualifying decision-making as well as for establishing leader legitimacy with the dominant coalition.

Redefining

The last cognitive practice is called redefining. Based on the same principles as those identified within research on negotiation, issues are redefined or reframed to simultaneously fit the logics of different coalitions.

Leaders in one of the educational institutions used this mechanism to develop consistent student policies. Previously, policies had been developed based on the traditions of each group. Due to new government regulations, these had to be reconciled when competing logics caused conflict. By redefining issues and redirecting their focus, the leaders were able to change student policies without threatening faculty identities:

We resolved [the conflict] by stating that students here enter the field via two paths. They are parallel paths. In some programs you follow a quite rigid structure whereas in others the structure is more open, but they are parallel. It didn't solve all the problems, but a lot of things were resolved. Most importantly, we managed to design some common structures for the students yet retain important autonomy [of content] in the different domains. (Executive Director, College E)

Table 7.8 page 176 shows that a strategy based on redefining was mentioned by only three respondents. In the case cited above, the strategy was a deliberate one to actively reconcile opposing coalitions. In the case of hospital D, redefining was used as a measure to create acceptance with the dominant coalition to adapt in ongoing resource negotiations.

When are the different practices used? What tensions are they intended to ease?

I identified three types of managerial action, comprising 10 different practices used to manage ambiguity in pluralistic environments. However, the question remains: What ambiguities are addressed by the different practices? Taking the analysis a step further, I will now discuss the actions that leaders take in order to manage tensions arising from profession-profession, mission-mission, mission-bureaucracy or mission-money.

By cross-referencing evidence of practices and types of tension, I arrived at the results shown in Table 7.9. Here, the distribution of practices is linked to types of competing logics. The numbers in the table indicate the number of respondents for which a link between a particular practice and a type of competing logic could be established. Due to the inductive nature of this part of the study, the findings are inconclusive in terms of the frequency with which a particular practice will be used to manage a particular type of tension. Nevertheless, the analysis shows patterns that suggest interesting avenues for further research.

The first significant finding is that there seems to be a wider variety of practices available to manage tensions due to competing profession and competing mission logics than to manage mission-bureaucracy or mission-money issues. Another finding is that participating and familiarizing are the practices respondents most often directly link to a set of competing logics. The two practices, however, are not similar with respect to distribution. Participating is almost exclusively mentioned in connection with competing mission logics whereas familiarizing is connected to every type of tension.

Table 7.9: Linking practices to type of competing logic

Competing logic Practice	Profession - Profession	Mission - Mission	Mission - Bureaucracy	Mission - Money
Bridging	4	10	16	15
Teaming	10	17	5	
Confrontation	6	6		2
Abdicating		8	3	7
Participating	5	22	2	4
Familiarizing	16	19	15	8
Confronting Ideas	4	12		4
Competence Building	6	12		5
Probing	5	5		
Redefining	2	2		

Competing profession logics were found predominantly in hospitals and cultural organizations. Tension rose over jurisdictional issues: who should hold leadership positions and how and by whom should decisions be made. To address tension, leaders use almost the full range of identified practices, with teaming and familiarizing as the most important. Recall that teaming was found in situations of structural integration—where one leader is responsible for all domains. Thus, leaders who try to manage situations of competing profession logics or competing mission logics rely on the combined experience and input of a team of professionals from a range of domains. If this strategy does not work, they have the option of allowing tension to escalate, ending in some sort of confrontation, to move issues along. In addition, leaders rely on activities aimed at increasing members' knowledge and experience with respect to other domains. The full range of cognitive practices was suggested as means of enhancing members' un-

Chapter 7: Coping with Competing Logics

derstanding of the interdependence between their own domains and those of others.

Competing mission logics were found in hospitals, educational organizations and cultural institutions. Tensions arising from these sources greatly influence the internal life of organizations, and the full range of practices are employed to manage them. It is important to note that both bridging and teaming are commonly cited management practices in this regard, indicating that whether organizations choose structural separation or structural integration, there is still a need to use relational practices when managing ambiguity.

The mission-bureaucracy type of competing logics was felt mostly in hospitals and educational organizations. Leaders draw on fewer practices to manage this kind of tension. In fact, for the most part the choices are limited to bridging and familiarizing. In general, bridging takes place in organizations with structural separation, and for coping with mission and bureaucracy ambiguities the practice is used exclusively in educational organizations. Familiarizing as a strategy for dealing with mission-bureaucracy issues is also used mostly by leaders from dual role constellations in education. In addition, two upper-level hospital professional directors refer to this strategy in situations where bureaucratic logic clashes with hospital mission. Familiarizing, however, is not linked to mission-bureaucracy issues by hospital middle-level leaders, probably because—in contrast to their counterparts in education—middle-level professionals in hospitals rarely have to manage this kind of ambiguity, as this is faced mostly by upper-level executives.

Mission-money is a source of tension across contexts but takes on different meanings, as shown in Chapter 6. In hospitals and in education, money is a constraint with regard to mission fulfillment but is not seen as a goal in itself. Leaders in hospitals and in education seem to have few means available to deal with money as a constraint. Only three executive directors in educational organizations describe instances of bridging between administrative and professional domains for the purpose of promoting acceptance of and compliance with resource constraints.

Within newspapers and cultural organizations, on the other hand, tension arises when money becomes an object in itself, in opposition to artistic or editorial aims. Here, professional and executive directors alike point to bridging and familiarizing as means of working across the divide. Newspaper directors and editors point to abdicating as an option if bridging should fail to do the job.

In Table 7.9 page 184, the distribution of practices linked to types of competing logic shows that organizations have developed a wide range of practices to cope with internally induced ambiguities. Profession-profession and mission-mission tensions can be influenced by external decisions such as the transition to unitary leadership in hospitals, but the ambiguities due to competing logics existed before and continue after the reform. Mission-bureaucracy and mission-money are perhaps the types of competing logic most likely to be influenced by external forces. Practices are rarely aimed at coping with ambiguity due to some externally induced mechanism such as challenges tied to new financing systems in education or tighter governance regimes in hospitals. Still, the study shows that leaders aim to resolve ambiguity due to budgetary constraints and disagreement about priorities. Leaders try to comply with reforms such as increased emphasis on student credit production and on publishing, both of which cause mission-money tensions in education. Similarly, hospital leaders try to comply with demands around patient rights and performance measurement systems. They are frustrated by the results of bureaucratic performance systems and control mechanisms, and try to manage the results of these systems. In contrast, internally induced ambiguities continue to arise but can be managed by a range of practices.

Managing competing logics under different leadership structures

Recall that the main research question for this study was:

RQ 3: How are ambiguities due to competing logics managed under different types of executive role constellations?

So far, I have shown that, in general, leaders rely on three different modes of integrating logics—in addition to relational, structural and cognitive day-to-day practices—to manage the effects of competing logics. In addition to what leaders do, organizations rely on structural integration or structural separation as a coping mechanism, resulting in the three types of executive role constellations described in Chapter 4. This goes a long way towards answering the research question, but the last part of the question is still only partly answered. Thus the final question to be addressed is whether there are differences in how organizations cope with competing logics, depending on whether the executive role constellation is unitary, dual or something in between. To answer this, practices and

modes and configurations of integration must be linked to types of executive role constellations.

Tables 7.10a and 7.10b on pages 188 and 190 show the distribution of integration and practice modes across different role constellations. The first column indicates the actual constellation studied, the second column shows the identified mode and configurations of integrating logics from Tables 7.3 (page 161) and 7.4 (page 164), followed by columns indicating the distribution of relational, structural and cognitive practices. In addition to the information in the previous tables 7.10 a and b shows the actual constellations where modes of integration and practices were identified. The tables are shaded according to the different modes of integrating logics.

Unitary leadership

Recall that three modes of integrating logics—*dominant*, *cycling* and *balancing*—are found under unitary and unitary hybrid constellations.

Table 7.10a page 188 shows that leaders adopting a *dominant* mode of integration use few practices or none at all. The lack of cognitive practices is particularly interesting. If we assume that cognitive practices require a certain level of awareness of the effects of competing logics, it is perhaps not surprising that adopting a dominant mode does not promote the use of cognitive practices.

Leaders adopting a *cycling* mode also make use of few practices. Again, this is not surprising, as this mode of integration is based on alternating between logics; thus at any one time the prevailing logic is salient; any other logics are set aside for the time being.

The majority of unitary constellation leaders adopt a *balancing* mode of integrating logics. Table 7.10a page 188 shows that these leaders in general use the full range of identified practices. Only three leaders in this group do not show evidence of relying on teaming. As previously discussed, hospital leaders do not rely on participating. However, across contexts a variety of cognitive practices are used. In particular, leaders from non-dominant coalitions use a greater variety of cognitive practices than leaders from dominant coalitions.

Table 7.10a: Distribution of mode of integration and practices in unitary and unitary hybrid constellations

Constellation	Mode of integration	Relational	Structural	Cognitive
<i>Hospital A Department A</i>	Dominant			
<i>Hospital C Clinic B</i>	Dominant			
<i>University C Department B</i>	Dominant		Participating	
<i>University C</i>	Dominant	Teaming	Participating	
<i>Museum A</i>	Dominant		Participating	Competence Building/ Probing
<i>Hospital A Clinic A</i>	Balancing	Teaming		Familiarizing/ Probing
<i>Hospital A Clinic B</i>	Balancing	Teaming		Probing
<i>Hospital B</i>	Balancing	Teaming	Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>Hospital C Clinic A</i>	Balancing	Teaming/ Confrontation		Competence Building
<i>Hospital C Department A</i>	Balancing		Participating	Familiarizing/Competence Building
<i>Hospital D Clinic</i>	Balancing	Teaming		Familiarizing/Confront Ideas/ Competence Building/Redefining
<i>College A</i>	Balancing	Teaming	Participating	Competence Building/ Probing
<i>University A Department B</i>	Balancing		Participating	Familiarizing/ Confront Ideas
<i>Theatre A</i>	Balancing	Teaming	Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas/Probing
<i>Museum B</i>	Balancing	Teaming	Participating	Familiarizing/Competence Building
<i>Museum D</i>	Balancing	Teaming	Participating	Familiarizing/Redefining
<i>Museum A Department A</i>	Balancing	Confrontation	Participating	
<i>Hospital A Department B</i>	Balancing	Teaming/ Confrontation	Participating	Familiarizing/ Competence Building
<i>Hospital E</i>	Balancing	Teaming/ Confrontation		Familiarizing/ Competence Building
<i>Hospital E Clinic A</i>	Balancing	Teaming		Familiarizing/ Competence Building
<i>Orchestra A</i>	Balancing		Participating	Familiarizing/ Probing
<i>University C Department A</i>	Cycling	Bridging	Abdicating/ Participating	Familiarizing
<i>College B Dep A</i>	Cycling	Confrontation	Abdicating/ Participating	

Dual leadership

Under dual and hybrid leadership, three configurations of modes of integrating logics are possible. Table 7.10b page 190 shows the identified dual and hybrid dual constellations, their configurations of integrating logics and the practices used. Similar configurations have been similarly shaded. The table's upper part (above the thick line) show pure dual constellation adaptations, and the lower part show dual hybrid adaptations. The table indicates that, in general, fewer practices are used under dual leadership than under unitary leadership. This is especially true for cognitive practices. The types of relational and structural practices used are also different. Almost all constellations under dual leadership, regardless of type of configuration (balancing-balancing, dominant-balancing, dominant-dominant), rely on bridging and abdicating, in addition to participating. The *balancing-balancing* configuration of integrating competing logics relies on cognitive practices to a greater extent than the other two configurations, but the difference is slight. With the *dominant-balancing* configuration, the same types of practices are used as in the balancing-balancing configuration. However, whereas the latter (balancing-balancing) use both participating and abdicating as structural practices, the former (dominant-balancing) mostly use only one of these. Finally, although there is only one *dominant-dominant* configuration, the table shows very little evidence of any practices initiated to cope with competing logics.

In dual constellations, there are fewer applied practices and the use of practices seems to be less dependent on the configurations of integrating logics. This is an important finding. It indicates that structural separation is a powerful coping mechanism as long as it is accompanied by a bridging practice and the option of abdicating. I propose that, when structural separation—in this case, dual leadership—is coupled with relational and structural practices, there is reduced need for cognitive practices. Under structural separation, each domain functions autonomously and consequently each leader in the constellation can adopt a dominant logic, as there are few if any competing logics to reconcile within his domain. As long as he is aware of the competing logics and the need to reconcile them at the organizational level, the leader can cope. This contrasts with a situation in which a unitary leader adopts a dominant logic; such a leader will face competing logics in his daily operations and the adoption of a priority or dominant logic will increase ambiguities due to unrest within other domains.

Table 7.10b: Distribution of mode of integration and practices in dual and dual hybrid constellations

Constellation	Mode of integration	Relational	Structural	Cognitive
<i>University A Faculty A</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging	Abdicating/Participating	Familiarizing
<i>College D</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging	Abdicating/Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>College G</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging	Abdicating/Participating	Familiarizing/Competence Building
<i>Theatre B</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging	Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>Newspaper A</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging	Abdicating	Familiarizing
<i>College C</i>	Dominant-Balancing	Bridging	Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>Newspaper B</i>	Dominant-Balancing	Bridging/Confrontation	Abdicating/Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>Newspaper C</i>	Dominant-Balancing	Bridging	Abdicating	Familiarizing
<i>Newspaper D</i>	Dominant-?*	Bridging	Abdicating	Confront Ideas
<i>University B</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging/Teaming	Abdicating/Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>College F</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging/Teaming	Participating	Familiarizing/Confront Ideas
<i>College E</i>	Balancing-Balancing	Bridging	Abdicating/Participating	Familiarizing /Redefining
<i>Orchestra B</i>	Dominant-Balancing	Bridging*	Participating*	Familiarizing/ Confront Ideas
<i>Museum C</i>	Dominant-Dominant	Confrontation	Participating	
<i>University A Faculty B</i>	Balancing - ?*	Bridging		Familiarizing/Competence Building
<i>University A Faculty C</i>	Balancing - ?*	Bridging	Participating	Familiarizing
<i>University A</i>	Dominant- ?*	Teaming	Abdicating/Participating	
<i>College B</i>	Dominant- ?*	Bridging	Abdicating	

* Other part of dyad not interviewed or not sufficient information to include

Conclusion

In this chapter I set out to explain how ambiguity and tension due to competing logics is managed in pluralistic organizations. In particular, I wanted to contrast and compare the situation for unitary and dual executive role constellations. I have shown that organizations rely on structural integration or structural separation, or, as referred to here, unitary and dual leadership. However, despite attempts at changing from one structural solution to another—for example, in the education and hospital sectors in Norway—tension due to competing logics remains. Thus leaders in pluralistic organizations use two other means to cope with the effects of CL. The first is to adopt a dominant, cycling or balancing mode of integrating logics. Since logics provide underlying justification for the decisions and actions of *all* organizational members, leaders adopt a priority logic, alternate between available logics or trade off between logics. In addition, leaders rely on a range of relational, structural and cognitive day-to-day practices.

My investigation indicates that the practices available to manage internally induced ambiguities due to competing profession or competing mission logics are wider in range than those available to manage externally influenced ambiguities such as mission-bureaucracy or mission-money.

Finally, I have linked executive role constellations to modes of integrating logics and practical approaches and have outlined some of the differences in the workings of unitary and dual leadership. There are no apparent systematic differences in the modes of integrating logics adopted under unitary and dual leadership as such. Interestingly, however, although under dual leadership different configurations of integration modes arise, these configurations seem to have less influence on choice of practice than adopted mode of integration under unitary leadership. On the other hand, there are differences in the types and range of practices used under the different constellations. In short, unitary constellations use a broad range of cognitive practices and the mode of integration seems to be an important moderating variable in the degree to which practices are used. Compared to unitary leadership constellations, then, dual leadership constellations use fewer cognitive practices as well as different relational and structural practices.

In summary, structural separation such as found with dual leadership seems to require fewer day-to-day practices than structural integration. Also, unitary leadership seems to be more dependent than dual leadership on the mode of in-

Hilde Fjellvær

tegrating logics adopted by the executive in question. The exception may be a situation of dominant-dominant configuration. This is apparently true of the hybrid case presented here. In the absence of either structural separation of logics or a range of practices on which to rely, this organization will likely be faced with a stalemate in the near future.

Chapter 8: Conclusions

This study has explored multiple executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations. The focus has been on how organizations with multiple and sometimes competing goals manage ambiguities and tensions. The purpose of the study has been to show how underlying competing logics at the heart of these tensions are managed under dual, unitary or hybrid executive role constellations.

The first goal was to investigate and describe variations in executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations. Studying hospitals, educational institutions, cultural institutions and newspapers, I identified three main types of executive role constellations—unitary, hybrid and dual. Based on previous research, I developed a set of indicators to identify and separate the different types of constellations. Set in pluralistic environments with multiple domains and diverse goals, executive role constellations have to manage the effects of coexisting and sometimes competing logics. The second goal was to investigate similarities and differences in logics and identify existing types of competing logics across contexts. The third and final goal was to uncover mechanisms used to manage the effects of competing logics under different executive role constellations.

In this chapter I will summarize the main contributions of my findings and look at their theoretical implications. I will also discuss the limitations of the study, opportunities for future research and, finally, some practical implications of the findings.

Contributions and Theoretical Implications

In this study I have focused on the dual leadership phenomenon, which has been much discussed and debated in Norway. While dual leadership is quite common in certain types of organizations, advocates of the chain-of-command format still regard it as a recipe for disaster and view unitary leadership as the only alternative. However, among those who see their organizations as consisting of two or more different worlds, dual leadership is a viable option.

Contributions

The first important finding is that executive role constellations in pluralistic organizations exist in unitary, hybrid and dual forms. I have identified a framework with a set of indicators appropriate for the analysis and classification of multiple

executive role constellations. This framework also opens up to investigation whether multiple executive role constellations are emergent or mandated.

The findings show that multiple executive role constellations are not an anomaly but can be a functional and useful structural solution. This is especially true of situations where governance logics of two domains are in danger of coming into conflict. Multiple executive role constellations such as dual leadership can also function well if there is little interdependence between domains or between individual employees.

Situated in pluralistic environments, unitary, hybrid and dual executive role constellations face situations of multiple and often competing logics. Whereas previous studies of competing logics have focused on one context at a time, this study has investigated competing logics across contexts. Logics guiding organizational or individual action have at their heart a core idea of organizational purpose. I have identified five purpose logics across contexts: profession, mission, resource, bureaucratic and business. Closely connected to beliefs about purpose, organizational actors also have strong beliefs about governance. In organizations experiencing multiple logics, it is important to recognize that ideas about governance have a direct impact on organizational life. For members of the organization, governance logics are as influential as the purpose logics that they accompany. I have identified three types of governance logic. These are command and control, accountability and autonomy logics.

Logics define organizations and associated decisions. In pluralistic contexts, competing logics are always present. When multiple logics clash, the actions associated with them can lead to ambiguity and tension. Based on the previously identified logics, I next identified five types of competing logics across contexts: competing profession logics, competing mission logics, mission versus bureaucratic logics, mission versus money logics, and command and control logic versus autonomy logic. These competing logics vary in intensity and in importance across contexts.

Further, organizations rely on three types of mechanisms to manage ambiguities resulting from competing logics. One possibility is to turn to structural solutions by either integrating or separating domains. In its purest form, this is what unitary and dual leadership mean. Another possibility is for leaders to adopt different modes of attention to integrate competing logics. They can adopt a dominant logic, cycle between logics or balance between logics. Lastly, leaders can turn to relational, structural or cognitive everyday practices to cope with ambiguity.

Ten such practices have been described in detail, and the data contained traces of several additional ones. All practices could be assigned to one of the broad categories.

The strength of this study lies in the variety of contexts and cases examined. A range of constructs are developed and linked to provide a comprehensive understanding of multiple executive role constellations and how they cope within pluralistic environments. I have identified a variety of executive role constellations across pluralistic contexts, presented multiple and competing logics across those same contexts, and, finally, discussed a range of mechanisms used to manage the effects of competing logics. Unitary executive role constellations seem to rely on a wider range of practices than dual executive role constellations. However, although fewer practices are used in dual constellations, their adoption seems to be more systematic. Moreover, by combining findings on types of competing logic and coping mechanisms used, the study shows that a wider variety of mechanisms are used to cope with competing profession and competing mission logics than to cope with mission-bureaucratic and mission-money logics. I have found no systematic differences between various types of role constellations in terms of how they manage these types of competing logics. However, competing governance logics seem to be best dealt with through the structural separation represented by dual leadership.

Pluralistic organizations cannot escape competing logics. They have to come to terms with the fact that these are inherent challenges in this type of organization—and perhaps in most types. Organizations must be aware of this fact, accept it and develop mechanisms to cope with the challenges that it presents.

Theoretical Implications

This study has drawn on and contributes to two streams of literature: the literature on dual leadership and multiple executive role constellations; and the literature on institutional logics, specifically that dealing with competing logics. Applying theory from one area (competing logics) to assess the dynamics of another (multiple executive role constellations) allows us to more fully understand and develop both streams.

The dual leadership literature is dispersed and found under many headings. The results of this study show that unitary, hybrid and dual constellations exist and can function well in pluralistic environments. My focus has been multiple ex-

executive role constellations rather than the shared work processes that are the focus of much of the previous work in the field. In particular, the previous research lacks frameworks within which both emergent and mandated, single and multiple executive role constellations can be placed. The results of this study extend the work of Alvarez and Svejnova (2005), Reid (2006) and Gronn (2009) by outlining a framework that can guide analysis of various types of executive role constellations. I have built on previously identified dimensions and propose that degree of structural separation, degree of technological and social specialization, and role differentiation are useful dimensions for distinguishing between types of constellations. When applied to empirical data, the dimensions proved useful for the study and characterization of different types of executive role constellations. The findings support the proposal that we revise the constructs used when discussing management structures (Gronn, 2009). Gronn (2009) argues that configuration or constellation is a neutral construct better suited to capturing the variety of forms, from single executive to dyad to team of executives. My results support his proposition.

Although there are a few studies that examine the presence of co-existing logics, there are many that do not. In the past, resolving issues of competing logics have often become a question of transition from one dominant logic to another. The present study has explicitly considered—and has revealed—the existence of multiple and co-existing logics within and across contexts. It has also identified four common sets of competing logics and mechanisms used to manage their effects. I found that competing profession logics, competing mission logics, mission versus bureaucratic logics and mission versus money logics create tension in pluralistic organizations. The expression of this tension varies from context to context, but the resultant ambiguity and the mechanisms used to coping with it are similar.

I also found that it is not only these competing logics that create tension. An equal and sometimes more powerful source of tension is competing understandings of appropriate governance mechanisms. Control or governance issues are attributes of institutional logics, yet they make up powerful logics that need to be specifically considered.

Previous research on the importance of meaning is diverse in terms of theoretical domains and suggestions for how to manage tension due to competing logics. The combined results of the empirical investigation and the literature review led to a reorganization of previous research on coping mechanisms. I found that

it is useful to consider management of competing logics in three forms: structural solutions, modes of integration and practical approaches. Elements of these dimensions have been suggested previously, but there has been little empirical research on the mechanisms and their practical application and little cross-contextual research.

Pluralistic organizations use both structural separation and structural integration to cope with ambiguity due to multiple domains and multiple goals. As the present study concerns multiple executive role constellations, it views structural separation and integration as dual and unitary leadership. The findings indicate that in pluralistic organizations structural integration needs to be coupled with other approaches in order to be effective whereas structural separation is less dependent on other approaches (see Chapter 7). In addition to structural separation, previous authors have suggested temporal and spatial separation of domains as a solution. For the organizations in the present study, structural separation often implies spatial separation, but I found no evidence of temporal separation as a coping mechanism.

The term “modes of integration” is not used in the literature. Instead, authors discuss adopting a perspective (Denis et al., 2003), following a dominant idea (Kraatz & Block, 2008), or trade-off, hybridization or cycling between values (Thacker & Rein, 2004; Stewart, 2006). I believe that this can be understood as entering a certain frame of mind or mode of integration. My results confirm the existence of three modes of integration. Leaders in pluralistic organizations adopt a dominant or priority logic, and, although the use of a cycling strategy is rare, its existence is confirmed. Previous work speaks of hybridization, trade-off or balancing between logics. The present findings confirm that leaders balance between logics and that this is a widespread approach in pluralistic organizations. There is no evidence indicating that pluralistic organizations undergo a transition to one priority logic. Considering the focus on pluralistic contexts, this is an important contribution, as it contrasts with the findings of previous work.

The third coping mechanism is for leaders to adopt various practical approaches. I propose that such approaches fall into three categories: relational, structural and cognitive. This study identified ten such practices, but the data showed evidence of even more. Thus, although I identify a specific set of practices used by respondents in this study to manage the effects of competing logics I propose that it is useful to consider practices as belonging to one of these categories.

Limitations and Further Research

Some of the strengths of this study may be weaknesses as well. Two of its main characteristics are multiple contexts and the coupling of two different research areas. Looking at dual leadership in a competing logics context permitted an exploration of similarities and differences—the possible gains and losses of multiple executive role constellations. Similarly, studying competing logics by looking at multiple executive role constellations elicited insight into how such ambiguity might be managed. However, focusing on such a wide variety of issues presents challenges. For example, dual leadership issues may not have been investigated in sufficient depth, as it was beyond the scope of this study to interview organizational members reporting to or working with the leaders interviewed in the study. This can add to self-reporting problems. It also means that there is less information about, for example, frequency, type and quality of interactions with organizational members, which might have enhanced our understanding of each type of constellation. Further, the issue of role complementarity could have been pursued by focusing solely on multiple executive role constellations. A deeper understanding of role complementarity could help in the development of a more robust framework for describing and classifying multiple executive role constellations.

The sampling strategy used is another potential limitation. In order to capture variety in the phenomenon of unitary versus dual leadership, I initially made a random selection of organizations for the study. This strategy, while effective in uncovering the variety in multiple executive role constellations, did have its drawbacks. Perhaps I should have made a sharper distinction between the different contexts before deciding which institutions to include. Separating universities and research institutions from regional colleges, science museums from cultural museums, and performing arts organizations from museums would have ensured a wider variety of organizational contexts, resulting in richer data for the development of the competing logics issues in particular. More thorough planning of the data-collection process might have served to reveal some of the contextual differences that were identified during the process.

The hospital category presented a challenge in itself. Recent reforms made it difficult to identify hospitals within a particular health authority and the health authority's impact on executive role constellations. The initial sampling strategy resulted in a list with many hospitals from the same region. I added to the list to make up for this weakness, but it is something to consider in future studies. It

was more difficult to access respondents in hospitals than in other types of organizations. Thus there were fewer respondents from hospitals than would be ideal given the number of organizations and individuals in the sector. There may also be a limitation in the hospital respondent sample, as the majority of respondents were not doctors. It is common knowledge that the majority of leadership positions in major hospitals are held by doctors. This is not the case in my sample. The findings on mode of integration and practices used in hospitals may be particularly influenced by this discrepancy.

The study of cultural organizations shows that the types of logics that exist in these organizations share the general attributes of other pluralistic contexts. However, it is clear from the discussion on competing logics that the representations of logics in museums and performing arts organizations are quite different, which raises the question of whether these can be said to belong to the same group.

While the findings make a contribution to both practice and theory, they also suggest possibilities for further research on multiple executive role constellations and on issues around logics.

As I pointed out at the beginning of this thesis, research on executive role constellations is still in need of both conceptual and empirical work. In light of this, the presented framework for the analysis and categorization of executive role constellations could benefit from testing to see if it is indeed suited for categorization of different constellations. I used the available data on task and role specialization, role differentiation, and reporting patterns to identify different types of executive role constellations. By adding information about the type and quality of interaction between members of the constellation and their employees, we might gain a more comprehensive understanding of each type of constellation. By pursuing the issue of complementarity further, we might get a better idea of the gains and losses associated with each type of constellation.

To better understand the variety in constellations and their effects focusing on hybrids forms opens up a promising avenue of research. The answer to the question of why hybrids develop might be addressed in the literature on change and adaptation. If applied to research on multiple executive role constellations and empirically tested, this could add substantially to our understanding of multiple executive constellations. Analyzing whether hybrid constellation roles are emergent or mandated could say something about the stability of any given constellation.

The findings also have implications for research on institutional and competing logics. Profession, mission, resource, bureaucratic and business logics all relate to one or more of the institutional orders proposed by Thornton (2004). The focus of institutional logics is how individual and organizational actions are embedded in higher-level orders (Thornton, 2004). Logics is referred to both as organizational forms (Lounsbury, 2007) and as action and practices (Thornton & Ocasio, 1999; Rao et al, 2003). To facilitate empirical comparison and contrasting of how logics influence organizational life, I have distinguished between purpose and governance logics. This is useful for working on issues of competing logics and how to manage their effect across contexts and in pluralistic environments. Here, the analysis of purpose logics is analytically helpful in distinguishing between logics guiding organizational life and the accompanying ideas of control. Similarly, the idea of mission logics collectively representing the professional domain as opposed to commercial and bureaucratic domains can be used to analyze the existence and effects of competing logics across contexts. The use of such a collective category is also appealing if we consider that almost every empirical study of logics has used new, context-specific constructs. To continue to do so would result in a long list of logics, and the differences between constructs would at times be negligible. (Consider, for example, the difference between aesthetic and artistic logic.)

Although I have identified a range of expressions of purpose logics and have found that logics identified in previous research could easily fit with this idea, the problem is that purpose or mission logic makes little sense at the societal level. The core idea of the societal-level institutional orders previously identified (Thornton, 2004) is that each represents a sense of purpose, and thus collapsing a range of distinct logics into an overall purpose category is problematic. At the societal level, purpose logics would mean nothing more than the institutional orders that have already been identified (markets, corporations, professions, etc). One challenge, then, is to overcome the transition from societal-level institutional logics to the organizational, group and individual representations of logics.

An unresolved issue tied to the transition from societal-level to organizational-level institutional logics is the money logic concept in the sets of competing logics. Here, resource, business and traces of market logics were collapsed into a money logic category (see Chapter 6). This functioned well for the purpose of mapping out the main types of competing logics, especially across contexts. It is also useful for looking at the mechanisms used to manage the effects of compet-

ing logics. However, such a collective representation for the purposes of analysis hides the fact that there should be a link to some societal-level institutional logic. One way to resolve these dilemmas would be to work more closely with Thornton's (2004) key characteristics of institutional logics. Building on these characteristics, one could further develop actual indicators of logics at the organizational level that would bridge the gap to the societal level.

It would also be interesting to pursue the idea of governance logics. In particular, the existence of accountability logic should be further investigated to see if it truly represents a governance logic independent of command and control and autonomy logics or if it is a hybridization of the two.

Some issues around different coping mechanisms would also benefit from further investigation. One such issue is whether there are situations where the impact of competing logics is above or below certain levels (too little or too much). There may be situations where tension between competing logics does not need reconciliation (too little)—or needs so much reconciliation that it is no longer a matter of balancing pluralistic goals but is a matter of resolving a conflict (too much). This should be addressed in future work.

Focusing on modes of integrating logics also raises new issues. The findings show that leaders who adopt a balancing mode of integration in general use more practices than those who adopt a dominant mode. Under dual leadership, regardless of the modes of integration, fewer practices are used, yet dual respondents are as content with their ability to manage ambiguity as are unitary leaders. This indicates that structural separation is a powerful coping mechanism as long as it is supported by relational practices. Yet in the comparison between balancing mode and dominant mode unitary leaders, there is an underlying assumption that more practices equals "more coping." One interpretation of this is that under dual leadership fewer practices are beneficial, whereas under unitary more practices are beneficial. This should be tested. The relationship between the three kinds of coping mechanism thus needs to be investigated further.

The additional challenges faced by organizations with multiple executive role constellations, depending on whether the two leaders follow the same or different modes of integrating logics, is also interesting. Ambiguity will increase in organizations facing multiple competing logics and headed by an executive team following either several dominant modes or a combination of modes of integrating logics. The effects of this warrant a study in themselves.

What influences the adoption of a certain mode of integration is another interesting question. Although the number and variation in respondent background are not sufficient, the results indicate that there is a difference in mode of integration between non-dominant and dominant coalition representatives. One proposition is that, by necessity (e.g., due to opposition and scrutiny from dominant coalitions), leaders of non-dominant coalitions are more mindful of the presence of competing logics than leaders of dominant coalitions. Important questions, then, would be why this is so—and what effects it would have on the ability to manage tension due to competing logics. Further, it would be interesting to investigate the importance of mindfulness as a moderator not only in initiating coping mechanisms, but also in determining what is effective in which particular situations.

Many dual leadership respondents claimed that making it work is a matter of “chemistry” and trust. Relationships develop over time and lay the foundation for relational practices such as bridging or teaming. This finding recalls Reid's (2006) work, and is a line of inquiry that should be pursued further. Further investigation of such issues could contribute to multiple executive role constellation research, institutional logics research and negotiations research.

Finally, no doubt leaders use practices to manage tension and ambiguity other than those described here. The relational, structural and cognitive framework can be further developed and should in particular be more closely tied to competing logic types. Pursuing what types of practices work well with what types of competing logics could serve to enhance our understanding of what leaders can do in situations of multiple domains and multiple goals.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study have practical implications for how organizations manage ambiguity and tension in a pluralistic environment. Organizations can benefit from understanding the possible implications of multiple executive role constellations. Leaders can benefit from a heightened awareness of the presence and importance of competing logics. Pointing out mindsets and practical approaches can help in the prioritization of measures to deal with these issues. In order to cope with tension in a pluralistic environment, organizations should be aware that structural solutions, modes of integrating logic and reliance on relational, structural and cognitive practices ought to be pursued simultaneously. Structural separation such as dual leadership does not work in isolation. Structural integration

in the form of unitary leadership benefits when coupled with a highly balanced mode of integrating logics and the adoption of a range of practices.

In Norway there has been much debate over the appropriateness of different types of executive role constellations. The results of this study can influence practice by outlining how structural arrangements can be part of the solution when dealing with ambiguity and tension in a pluralistic environment. The most important issue is to ensure that stakeholders are keenly aware that in a pluralistic environment ambiguity and tension due to competing logics will not go away. Organizations should constantly be on the watch for the most efficient way to manage this type of tension. The outlined mechanisms offer some possible avenues for action. If stakeholders get to know more about the different options available, they will be better equipped to initiate structural changes based on knowledge rather than feeling and will realize that one size does not fit all.

The results also show that there is a difference in how competing logics are managed under unitary, hybrid and dual executive role constellations. However, the difference lies more in the mechanism used than in the superiority of one constellation over another. All types of executive role constellations can work well in pluralistic environments. Stakeholders should be aware that the degree of interdependence and type and quality of interaction across domains, and especially mode of integrating logics, are key indicators of the effectiveness of any given constellation. Thus the framework used to analyze and describe executive role constellations can be helpful for stakeholders concerned with the gains and losses associated with any given constellation.

Organizations and leaders who are mindful of the importance of competing logics and the mechanisms available to manage their effects are relatively well equipped to deal with these challenges. Knowing that unitary leaders adopting a balancing mode rely on a wider range of practices than those adopting a dominant mode, organizations should take care to identify such leaders. Those who are mindful of the presence and importance of competing logics and who understand the need to find a balance between them are likely to be more effective as leaders. Similarly, stakeholders should be aware that dual role constellations rely on fewer practices, yet the structural separation seems to both promote awareness of the two worlds and also to some degree insulate coalition members from tension due to competing logic, in particular tension due to competing governance logics. For all types of constellations, knowledge about relational, structural and cognit-

ive practices makes for a wider range of tools available to those leaders who experience tension due to multiple goals and multiple domains.

Conclusion

This study represents a step forward in understanding dual and unitary leadership phenomena. It sheds new light on how pluralistic organizations are influenced by the continued existence of multiple and competing logics, and clarifies some of the options available for managing the resulting tensions.

Detailed accounts from respondents coupled with written documents enabled me to fulfill my first goal of investigating and describing unitary, hybrid and dual executive role constellations. Studying a range of pluralistic organizations such as hospitals, newspapers and educational and cultural organizations enabled detailed accounts of multiple logics both within and across pluralistic context, showing how these can create sets of competing logics. The representations of logics vary with context, yet the types of competing logics are similar across contexts. The final goal was to uncover mechanisms used to manage the effects of competing logics and to investigate mechanisms used under different executive role constellations. Three approaches are used to manage the effects of competing logics. Structural separation or integration such as dual or unitary leadership is one. Adopting different modes of integrating logics is another, and relying on relational, structural or cognitive day-to-day practices is a third approach. Through this study I have answered the three research questions, but in doing so I have opened up a range of new questions and possibilities for further research. That is as it should be.

References

- Alvarez, J. L., & Svejenova, S. (2005). *Sharing executive power: roles and relationships at the top*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Alvarez, J. L., Svejenova, S., & Vives, L. (2007). Leading in Pairs. *Sloan Management Review*, 48(4), 10-14.
- Andersen, S. (1997). *Case-studier og generalisering. Forskingsstrategi og design*. Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.
- Barry, D. (1991). Managing the Bossless Team: Lessons of Distributed Leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 20(1), 31.
- Bartunek, J. M. (1984). Changing interpretive schemes and organizational restructuring: The example of a religious order. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29(3), 355-372.
- Battilana, J., & Dorado, S. (2009). *Organization building amid multiple logics: the case of commercial microfinance organizations*. Proceedings from Academy of Management, Chicago, Ill.
- Benford, R. D., & Snow, D. A. (2000). Framing processes and social movements: An overview and assessment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 26(1), 611-639.
- Boeker, W. (1997). Strategic Change: The Influence of Managerial Characteristics and Organizational Growth. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 152-170.
- Boltanski, L., & Thévenot, L. (2006). *On justification: Economies of worth*. Princeton: Princeton Univ Press.
- Brunsson, N. (2002). *The organization of hypocrisy: Talk, decisions and actions in organizations*. Oslo, Norway: Abstrakt forlag.
- Chreim, S. (2006). Managerial frames and institutional discourses of change: Employee appropriation and resistance. *Organization Studies*, 27(9), 1261.
- Cloutier, C. (2009). *Managing opportunity, managing power and managing difference: How nonprofits strategically manage their relations with funders*. HEC Montréal.
- Cloutier, C., & Langley, A. (2006). *Typifying competing rationalities: A novel heuristic framework*. Proceedings from Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.
- Conway, J. A., & Calzi, F. (1996). The Dark Side of Shared Decision Making. *Educational Leadership*, 53(4), 45-49.
- Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (1979). *Quasi-Experimentation: Design & Analysis Issues for Field Settings*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. (1990). Grounded theory research: Procedures, canons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology*, 13(1), 3-21.
- Creed, W. E., Scully, M. A., & Austin, J. R. (2002). Clothes Make the Person? The Tailoring of Legitimizing Accounts and the Social Construction of Identity. *Organization Science*, 13(5), 475.
- Dahya, J., & Travlos, N. G. (2000). Does the one man show pay? Theory and evidence on the dual CEO revisited. *European Financial Management*, 6(1), 85-98.
- Day, D. V. (2007). Structuring the organization for leadership development. *Being there even when you are not: leading through strategy, structures and systems*, 4, 13-30.
- de Voogt, A. (2006). Dual leadership as a problem-solving tool in arts organizations. *International Journal of Arts Management*, 9(1), 17.
- Denis, J.-L., Gagnon, S., Lamothe, L., & Langley, A. (2003). Disappear to survive and prosper: Managing paradox in a hospital merger. *Working paper*.
- Denis, J.-L., Lamothe, L., & Langley, A. (2001). The Dynamics of Collective Leadership and Strategic Change in Pluralistic Organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(4), 809-837.
- Denis, J.-L., Langley, A., & Pineault, M. (2000). Becoming a leader in a complex organization. *Journal of Management Studies*, 37(8), 1063-1099.
- Denis, J.-L., Langley, A., & Rouleau, L. (2007). Strategizing in pluralistic contexts: Rethinking theoretical frames. *Human Relations*, 60(1), 179-215.
- Denison, D. R., Hooijberg, R., & Quinn, R. E. (1995). Paradox and performance: Toward a theory of behavioral complexity in managerial leadership. *Organization Science*, 6(5), 524-540.
- DiMaggio, P., & Powell, W. W. (1991). The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields. In W. W. Powell & P. DiMaggio (Eds.), *The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis* (pp. 63-83). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Dyck, B. (1997). Understanding configuration and transformation through a multiple rationalities approach. *Journal of Management Studies*, 34(5), 793-823.
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building Theories from Case Study Research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.

- Finkelstein, S., & D'Aveni, R. A. (1994). CEO duality as a double-edged sword: How boards of directors balance entrenchment avoidance and unity of command. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(5), 1079-1108.
- Finkelstein, S., & Hambrick, D. C. (1996). *Strategic Leadership: Top executives and their effects on organizations*. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Company.
- Fletcher, J. K., & Käufer, K. (2003). Shared leadership: Paradox and possibility. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 21-47). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Floyd, C. E. (1994). Faculty Participation and Shared Leadership. *Review of Higher Education*, 17(2), 197-209.
- Fosberg, R. H. (2001). Should the CEO also be chairman of the Board? *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 2(7).
- Fosberg, R. H., & Nelson, M. R. (1999). Leadership structure and firm performance. *International Review of Financial Analysis*, 8(1), 83-96.
- Fosberg, R. H., & Rosenberg, S. (2002). Determinants of firm leadership structure. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 18(2), 75-84.
- Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (1996). *Research Methods in the Social Sciences* (5 ed.). New York, NY: St Martin's Press, Inc.
- Friedland, R. A., & Alford, R. (1991). Bringing Society Back In: Symbols, Practices and Institutional Contradictions. In W. W. Powell & P. J. DiMaggio (Eds.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 232-263). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Glouberman, S., & Mintzberg, H. (2001). Managing the Care of Health and the Cure of Disease - Part I: Differentiation. *Health Care Management Review*, 56-69.
- Glynn, M. A. (2000). When cymbals become symbols: Conflict over organizational identity within a symphony orchestra. *Organization Science*, 285-298.
- Glynn, M. A. (2002). Chord and discord: organizational crisis, institutional shifts, and the musical canon of the symphony. *Poetics*, 30(1-2), 63-85.
- Glynn, M. A., & Lounsbury, M. (2005). From the critics' corner: Logic blending, discursive change and authenticity in a cultural production system. *Journal of Management Studies*, 42(5), 1031-1055.
- Grandori, A., & Furnari, S. (2008). A chemistry of organization: Combinatory analysis and design. *Organization Studies*, 29(3), 459.

- Gronn, P. (1999). Life in teams: Collaborative leadership and learning in autonomous work units. *Australian Council for Educational Administration, Burwood*.
- Gronn, P. (2002). Distributed leadership as a unit of analysis. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13(4), 423-451.
- Gronn, P. (2009). Leadership Configurations. *Leadership*, 5(3), 381.
- Gronn, P., & Hamilton, A. (2004). A bit more life in the leadership: Co-principalship as distributed leadership practice. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 3(1), 3-35.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication and Technology*, 30, 233-252.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper Echelons: The Organization as a reflection of Its Top Managers. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(2), 193-206.
- Heenan, D. A., & Bennis, W. G. (1999). *Co-leaders: The power of great partnerships*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Hewison, A. (2002). Managerial values and rationality in the UK national health service. *Public Management Review*, 4(4), 549-579.
- Hinings, C. R., Thibault, L., Slack, T., & Kikulis, L. M. (1996). Values and organizational structure. *Human Relations*, 49(7), 885-916.
- Hodgson, R. C., Levinson, D. J., & Zalznik, A. (1965). *The Executive Role Constellation: An analysis of Personality and Role Relations in Management*. Boston: Harvard University.
- Jackson, S. (2000). A qualitative evaluation of shared leadership barriers, drivers and recommendations. *Journal of Management in Medicine*, 14(3/4), 166-178.
- Kalberg, S. (1980). Max Weber's types of rationality: Cornerstones for the analysis of rationalization processes in history. *American Journal of Sociology*, 85(5), 1145-1179.
- Knight, D., Pearce, C. L., Smith, K. G., Olian, J. D., Sims, H. P., Smith, K. A. et al. (1999). Top Management Team Diversity, Group Process, and Strategic Consensus. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20, 445-465.
- Kraatz, M. S., & Block, E. S. (2008). Organizational implications of institutional pluralism. In R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, K. Sahlin, & R. Suddaby (Eds.), *The*

- SAGE Handbook of Organizational Institutionalism* (pp. 243-275). London: Sage Publications.
- Labianca, G., Gray, B., & Brass, D. J. (2000). A grounded model of organizational schema change during empowerment. *Organization Science*, 235-257.
- Langley, A. (1999). Strategies for Theorizing from Process Data. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(4), 691-710.
- Le Theule, M. A., & Fronda, Y. (2005). The organization in tension between creation and rationalization: facing management views to artistic and scientific creators. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 16(6), 749-786.
- Leonard-Barton, D. (1990). A dual methodology for case studies: synergistic use of a longitudinal single site with replicated multiple sites. *Organization Science*, 1(3), 248-266.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Locke, E. A. (2003). Leadership: Starting at the top. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 271-284). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lounsbury, M. (2002). Institutional transformation and status mobility: The professionalization of the field of finance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(1), 255-266.
- Lounsbury, M. (2007). A tale of two cities: Competing logics and practice variation in the professionalizing of mutual funds. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(2), 289-307.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (1995). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Maxwell, J. A. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62(3), 279-300.
- McMahon, J. M. (1992). Shared Governance: The leadership Challenge. *Nursing Administration Quarterly*, 17(1), 55-59.
- Mehra, A., Smith, B. R., Dixon, A. L., & Robertson, B. (2006). Distributed leadership in teams: The network of leadership perceptions and team performance. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17(3), 232-245.
- Merkens, B. J., & Spencer, J. S. (1998). A successful and necessary evolution to shared leadership: a hospital's story. *Leadership in Health Services*, 11(1), i-ii.

- Meyer, J. W., & Rowan, B. (1977). Formal structure as myth and ceremony. *American Journal of Sociology*, 83(2), 340-363.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: an expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Miller, C. C., Burke, L. M., & Glick, W. H. (1998). Cognitive Diversity among upper-echelon executives: Implications for strategic decision processes. *Strategic Management Journal*, 19, 39-58.
- Milliken, F. J., & Martins, L. L. (1996). Searching for Common Threads: Understanding the Multiple Effects of Diversity in Organizational Groups. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(2), 402-433.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York, NY: Harper & Rowe.
- Morgan, G., & Smircich, L. (1980). The case for qualitative research. *Academy of Management Review*, 5(4), 491-500.
- Mueller, F., Harvey, C., & Howorth, C. (2003). The contestation of archetypes: negotiating scripts in a UK hospital trust board. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1971-1995.
- Murray, A. I. (1989). Top Management Group Heterogeneity and Firm Performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 10, 125-141.
- O'Toole, J., Galbraith, J., & Lawler, E. E. (2002). When two (or more) heads are better than one: The promise and pitfalls of shared leadership. *California Management Review*, 44(4), 65-83.
- O'Connell, L. L., Stephens, C. U., Betz, M., Shepard, J. M., & Hendry, J. R. (2005). An organizational field approach to corporate rationality: the role of stakeholder activism. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 15(1), 93-111.
- Pearce, C. L. (2004). The future of leadership: combining vertical and shared leadership to transform knowledge work. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18(1), 47-57.
- Pearce, C. L., Conger, J. A., & Locke, E. A. (2007). Shared leadership theory. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 281-288.
- Pearce, C. L., & Manz, C. C. (2005). The New Silver Bullets of Leadership: The importance of self and shared leadership in knowledge work. *Organizational Dynamics*, 34(2), 130-140.
- Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2003). All those years ago: The historical underpinnings of shared leadership. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared lead-*

- ership. *Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 1-18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pettigrew, A. M. (1992). On studying managerial elites. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13, 163-182.
- Ranson, S., Hinings, B., & Greenwood, R. (1980). The structuring of organizational structures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25(1), 1-17.
- Rao, H., Monin, P., & Durand, R. (2003). Institutional Change in Toque Ville: Nouvelle Cuisine as an Identity Movement in French Gastronomy 1. *American Journal of Sociology*, 108(4), 795-843.
- Reid, W. (2007). *Institutionalized, Mandated Dual Leadership in Nonprofit Arts Organizations: One Conceptualization of the Phenomenon and its Implications for Organizational Effectiveness*. Proceedings from Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Arts and Cultural Management (AIMAC), Valence (Espagne), July.
- Reid, W. (2005). *Institutionalized, mandated dual leadership in nonprofit arts organizations: one conceptualization of the phenomenon and its implications for organizational effectiveness*. Proceedings from International Conference on arts and cultural management, Montreal, Canada.
- Reid, W. (2006). *Conflict and trust in dual executive leadership*. York University, Toronto.
- Richards, L. (2005). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide*. Sage Publications.
- Richards, L., & Morse, J. M. (2007). *README FIRST for a user's guide to qualitative methods*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sally, D. (2002). Co-leadership: Lessons from republican Rome. *California Management Review*, 44(4), 84-99.
- Smith, A., Houghton, S. M., Hood, J. N., & Ryman, J. A. (2006). Power relationships among top managers: Does top management team power distribution matter for organizational performance? *Journal of Business Research*, 59(5), 622-629.
- Stewart, J. (2006). Value conflict and policy change. *Review of Policy Research*, 23(1), 183.
- Stewart, R. (1991). Chairmen and Chief Executives: An exploration of Their Relationships. *Journal of Management Studies*, 28(5), 511-527.

- Suddaby, R., & Greenwood, R. (2005). Rhetorical strategies of legitimacy. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 50(1), 35-67.
- Thacher, D., & Rein, M. (2004). Managing value conflict in public policy. *Governance*, 17(4), 457-486.
- Thompson, J. D. (1967). *Organizations in Action*. New York, NY: McGraw - Hill, Inc.
- Thornton, P. H., & Ocasio, W. (1999). Institutional logics and the historical contingency of power in organizations: Executive succession in the higher education publishing industry, 1958-1990. *American Journal of Sociology*, 105(3), 801-843.
- Thornton, P. H. (2001). Personal versus market logics of control: A historically contingent theory of the risk of acquisition. *Organization Science*, 294-311.
- Thornton, P. H. (2002). The rise of the corporation in a craft industry: Conflict and conformity in institutional logics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(1), 81-101.
- Thornton, P. H. (2004). *Markets from culture: Institutional logics and organizational decisions in higher education publishing*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Thornton, P. H., Jones, C., & Kury, K. (2005). Institutional logics and institutional change in organizations: transformation in accounting, architecture, and publishing.
- Townley, B. (1999). Practical reason and performance appraisal. *Journal of Management Studies*, 36(3), 287-306.
- Townley, B. (2002). The role of competing rationalities in institutional change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(1), 163-179.
- Townley, B. (2008). *Reason's Neglect: Rationality and Organizing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Voronov, M., De Clerq, D., & Hinings, C. R. B. (2009). *Institutional logics and classification: From constraints to resources*. Proceedings from Academy of Management, Chicago, Ill.
- Voss, G. B., Cable, D. M., & Voss, Z. G. (2000). Linking organizational values to relationships with external constituents: A study of nonprofit professional theatres. *Organization Science*, 330-347.
- Walker, J. (2001). Developing a Shared Leadership Model at the Unit Level. *Journal of Perinatal & Neonatal Nursing*, 15(1), 26-39.

- Wennes, G. (2002). *Skjønnheten og udyret: Kunsten å lede kunstorganisasjonen*. Norges Handelshøyskole, Bergen.
- West, C. T. J., & Schwenk, C. R. (1996). Top Management team Strategic Consensus, Demographic Homogeneity and Firm Performance: A report of resounding nonfindings. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17, 571-576.
- Westerman, G., McFarlan, F. W., & Iansiti, M. (2006). Organization design and effectiveness over the innovation life cycle. *Organization Science*, 17(2), 230.
- Whittington, R. (1992). Putting Giddens into action: social systems and managerial agency. *Journal of Management Studies*, 29(6), 693-712.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Zilber, T. B. (2002). Institutionalization as an interplay between actions, meanings, and actors: The case of a rape crisis center in Israel. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(1), 234-254.

Appendices

Appendix 3.1: Case selection process

Appendix 3.2: Interview guides

Appendix 3.3: Interview schedule and mode of contact

Appendix 3.4: Example of chart to develop executive role constellation categories

Appendix 3.5: Example of case report

Appendix 4.1: Analysis summary identified role constellations

Appendix 5.1: Examples of expressions of profession logic

Appendix 7.1: Examples of dominant mode of integrating competing logics

Appendix 7.2: Examples of balancing mode of integrating competing logics

Appendix 3.1 Case selection process

	Initial available cases	Sample criteria selection	Random selection	Final cases	Discrepancies due to:
Newspapers	162	24	6	4	One not interested in participating. One no response.
Education	54	52	13	10	Failure to find convenient time. Two small colleges of same size and structure – one excluded. Saturation of input at regional colleges and exchange for university of different size and structure.
Hospitals	105	87	19	5	Lack of response. Many small hospitals in one health authority. Exchange for larger hospitals across health authorities.
Culture	495	19	11	8	Failure to find convenient time. Two science museums within same region. Exchanged one for another region with different structure pointed out by several respondents. Same type and size regional theatre exchanged for major city theatre.
Total cases target and final		50		27	Lack of time and resources. Failure to find convenient time for respondents out of town. Cases of no response. Two cases of negative response.
Total respondents target and final		80-100		63	Difficult to know actual amount of respondents in each case. Changed scope of who to talk to as structure interesting for more than one unit or level of analysis especially in hospitals and education.

Appendix 3.2: Interview guides revised

(a) Introduction

Could you tell me a little about what this organization does, the size, how many people work here, the kind of departments, development later years, special projects/ focus

(b) The respondent

What is your position in this organization?

How long have you been in this position?

What other positions and organizations have you worked in?

(c) The leader group

How is the leader group made up?

What kind of positions/roles do the different members have?

What are their responsibilities?

Who do the different members report to?

(d) Governance and control

Who decides on and is responsible for implementing new policy – and how is this communicated to the organization?

Could you describe what kinds of connections exist between different levels of governance in the organization?

How do you consider that the governance structure works in terms of fulfilling both administrative and professional needs?

There are sources of uncertainty in all organizations – whether access to information internally and externally, “forutsigbarhet i rammebetingelser”, specialization and lack of transparency in tasks and functions etc.. In your opinion – what are the most important internal and external sources of uncertainty, and who and how are these managed?

Do you feel that the different members of the leader group have access to special resources, and what significance does this have?

Every organization is composed of various groups – whether task or function related, professions, projects, support staff, production etc. To what extent would you say that the different groups agree on goals? How does this affect governance and control possibilities in the organization? Do you find that there are groups whose goals and interests may be in conflict with overall organizational goals?

What kind of criteria for evaluating professional and administrative goals do you have –and how are these followed up?

(e) The importance of professions and background

Could you describe the disciplines inherent in this organization – including professions as well as administrative and support functions?

What importance – and for what – does professional or educational background have in this organization?

Do you have any groups with members across professional or discipline borders? How does that work?

Does it matter what kind of professional/educational background leaders have?

How can you – and should you – adapt leader behavior according to different groups’ interests and perceptions?

(f) Relations

To what degree is there mutual dependence between members of the leader group?

Do you find that some members have access to information, resources, competence that others need in order to do their job – or do you find that tasks are relatively loosely coupled and everyone can do their job relatively independent of the others?

(g) Dual and unitary management

The way I understand it you have dual/unitary management here. Do you agree? Do you find that this is an appropriate model – would other models have been possible?

Is this special for this organization in particular – or in general?

What kind of importance does management structure have – here and in general?

How do different structures influence Board governance and control?

Interview guide - short version - Norwegian

Innledning: Kan du si litt om organisasjonen?

Hvem er informanten: Stilling/ hvor lenge /andre stillinger og organisasjoner

Styring og kontroll:

- * Hvem nedfeller og implementerer policy – kommunikasjon?
- * Kriterier for evaluering av faglige og administrative mål – oppfølging?
- * Koblinger mellom styringsnivå?
- * Styringsstrukturen i forhold til faglige og administrative behov?
- * Målsettinger i ledergruppen – i organisasjonen og kommunikasjon til medarbeiderne?
- * Fortolkning av målsettingene i ulike grupper?
- * Grad av enighet om mål – og hvordan påvirker dette muligheter til styring og kontroll
- * Grupper med egne mål og interesser - i konflikt med organisasjonens mål?

Kilder til usikkerhet:

- * Tilgang på informasjon internt og eksternt, forutsigbarhet i rammebetingelser, spesialisering og oversiktligheit i arbeidsoppgaver osv.
- * Hvilke ytre og indre kilder til usikkerhet – håndtering?

Ledelsesgruppens sammensetning

- * Medlemmenes roller – posisjoner? Ansvarsområder? Rapporterer til?
- * Karakteriser lederteamet? Bakgrunn, faglige tilknytning og lignende
- * Ressurser lederteamet rår over – betydning?
- * Alle organisasjoner består av grupper – fag/avdelinger/ prosjekt/stab/produksjon osv: Hører medl. i ledergruppen til/representerer bestemte grupperinger - hvordan påvirkes forholdet til andre grupperinger?
- * Hvordan fungerer gruppene internt, på tvers av faglige eller funksjonelle grenser?
- * Systematiske meningsforskjeller mellom gruppene – hvordan kommer det til uttrykk?
- * Betydning av ledergruppens sammensetning – for deg/ for org.?

Fagbetydning

- * Hvilke fag inngår i virksomheten, både rent faglige og administrasjon og støttefunksjoner.

betydning av fagtilknytning og fagbakgrunn - hvem får ansvar for prosjekter/aktiviteter

- * Hvilke prosjekter prioriteres av hvem?

- * Fagbakgrunns betydning for gruppers prosess – hvor blandet er de?

forstår de hverandres bakgrunn, påvirkning på kommunikasjon og samhandling, koordinering og beslutningsprosesser

- * Betydning av lederes fagbakgrunn?

- * Hvordan kan man tilpasse ledelse til de ulike grupperingenes interesser og virkelighetsoppfatning

Relasjon

- * Beskrive forholdet mellom medl. i ledergruppen mht forståelse for andres fag- og ansvarsområder. Hvor mye og med hvilke oppgaver dere jobber sammen til daglig/ synergier eller utfordringer.

- * Grad av avhengighet mellom ledergr. medl. ansvarsfordeling og konkrete arbeidsutførelse?

- * Har noen tilgang på informasjon, ressurser, kompetanse som andre trenger for å få gjort sin jobb best mulig og hvordan fungerer dette?

- * Kontakter kan være eiere eller andre beslutningstakere, bransjekontakter, lokalt nettverk, interne kontakter i ulike posisjoner. Hvilke kontakter innad og utenfor ledergruppemedlemmene på, og hvilken betydning har dette?

- * Annet om relasjon ledergruppen og indre/ytre interessenter?

Appendix 3.3: Interview schedule and mode of contact

Organization	Position	Contacted how	When interviewed
Newspaper C	Editor in Chief Executive Director	Contacted directly by phone	March 05 April 05
Theatre B	Executive Director Artistic Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	April 05
College C	Rector Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	May 05
College D	Rector Director	Contacted directly by e-mail and follow up by director	May 05
Hospital E	CEO, medical director and clinic Head	Contact established via hospital official e-mail address, and “snowballing”	May 05
Museum B	Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	May 05
Newspaper A	Editor in Chief Executive Director	Contact established through reference person in other newspaper	May 05
Newspaper D	Executive Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	May 05
Theatre A	Artistic Director Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	May 05
University B	Rector Director	Contact established via university e-mail	May 05
College B	Rector, director and dean	Contacted directly by e-mail and “snowballing”	June 05
College E	Rector Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	June 05
College G	Rector Director	Director contacted directly by e-mail	June 05
Hospital B	CEO	Contacted directly by e-mail	June 05
Museum C	Professional Director Executive Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	June 05
Museum D	Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	June 05
Orchestra B	Artistic Director Executive Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	June 05 May 05
College A	Rector	Contacted directly by e-mail	August 05
Hospital A	Special advisor, clinic heads and department heads	Contact established via hospital CEO and clinic heads	August 05 September 05

Museum A	Director and department directors	Contacted directly by e-mail and follow up by director	August 05
Newspaper B	Editor in Chief Executive Director	Contact established through reference person in other newspaper	August 05
Newspaper B and C	Owner rep. Board Member	Contact established via personal relations	August 05
Orchestra A	Executive Director	Contacted directly by e-mail	August 05
University C	Professional director and department deans	Contacted directly by e-mail, and direct contact in situ	August 05
College F	Dean Director	Contact established via college e-mail	September 05
Hospital C	Clinic head and department head	Organized by hospital contact	October 05
University A	Director, School deans and directors, department leaders	Contacted each respondent directly by e-mail	October 05
Hospital D	CEO Clinic head Department head	Contact established through hospital official e-mail address, direct e-mail and "snowballing"	November 05

Appendix 3.4 Parts of chart used to structure initial analysis

Initial Categories	1. Unitary	2. Unitary TMT	3. Unitary light	4. Dual light	5. Dual Mix	6. Dual
Management structure	One leader.	One formal leader. Team of Intermediate leaders.	One formal leader. Senior adm executive own role and functions.	Two leaders. One-side dominance.	Two leaders. Overlapping roles and functions.	Two leaders. Separate roles and functions.
Cases	3 Hospitals 5 Culture 1 Education	2 hospitals	3 education	2 culture	5 education	1 education 4 newspapers 1 culture
Typical Case	Hospital D Museum D	Hospital E	University B	Typical of this category is that it is not typical	College B	Newspaper A
Why typical	Two due to very different size. Typical of this category because - one leader in charge of everything - official version and functional version similar. Leader legitimacy important issue.	Hierarchical organization Everyone reporting upwards. No parallel administrative line. Operational units report to intermediate level. Level 2 much like level 1 in category 1	Strong professional leader. No one in doubt as to who has the final word. Yet ED in charge of large areas of the organization that the PD is not really involved in at all unless clearly interfere with professional interests. Professional units report to PD. Adm and support units report to ED. Next level has a dual structure reporting to both.	One-side dominance Formal and functional are different. In everyday life everyone but PD reports to ED. Duality is important – one in charge of content – the other in charge of structure.	Two leaders reporting to the Board. Not clear how all functions are divided. Operational level report to both. Operational level formally unified – functionally dual.	Two leaders both reporting to the Board. Clearly separated functions, autonomous working relations, yet understood and accepted division of responsibility. Respect for the importance of the others competence and responsibilities Agree that dual leadership structure is necessary.
HOW typical: - Formal Interaction - Working relations - Leader background - Areas of responsibility	Described for each issue					
Comments	Memos made					
Possible challenges of model/Not covered	Discussions/ Questions/ Memos					

Appendix 3.5: Example of initial case report

Organization: Regional College

Executive role constellation type: Dual hybrid

The University College has about 2400 students and a staff of about 240. There are four departments/schools. After the 1994 reform (many regional colleges still suffer the effects from the ordeal), the college continued much as before and added other studies one at the time – and it has become quite prestigious. Thus the different departments are very different – but they do not struggle with “the others” as much as many other colleges.

There seem to be a lot of uncertainty – both for the College and for the department I visited.

The College Board has decided to merge with another College in their province, as well as work actively for a merger with a College in the neighbouring province – with the explicit ambition to be recognized as a University (certain requirements need to be fulfilled in terms of number of professors, number of PhD programs etc.). Further at least “our” department face a shortage of students – and probably most of the others too – except for one which admit very few students and is one of its kind in Norway. There seem to be heterogeneous goals – and top management and Board ambitions are not necessarily shared by the academic community. Considering University ambitions they need to recruit staff with PhDs which will not be easy as all regional colleges face this challenge. For example several nursing-schools face shut-downs unless they manage to increase the certification level of its academic staff. In an attempt to attract new students they seem to continuously develop new one-year study programs according to what someone would like to do, and subsequently some of these are made into bachelor programs.

This is a development many smaller regional colleges follow due to a de-regulation – they can now decide for themselves what programs to offer (earlier they needed a certification from the Ministry of Education) and almost all face declining student numbers at the same time that the governmental financing system is now based on number of student credits awarded, number of publication and research programs (in addition to a basic component). Unlike many others the university college has directly transferred the governmental budget criteria to the local reality. Departments with declining student credit production get less money – yet it is not easy to let people go in Norway.

Respondent 1: He is XX years old and has been at the school for a long time . His educational background is a XX. Before being elected rector he was the assistant rector, which was a 70% position. He was first elected rector in XXXX, and re-elected for a four year term in XXXX. He does say that he think the next rector should be a professor or an assistant professor with long academic standing, but I am not sure how important he really thinks this is. It is however a pre-dominant part of the current debate on academic leadership.

Their leadership structure is formally based on three leaders. Rector is formally the head of the organization, and he is also chairman of the Board, with the assistant rector as vice-chair. The Executive Director (ED) is the secretary of the Board, and the one to prepare for the Board meetings. The ED formally reports to rector, but has an independent responsibility for budgetary and financial dispositions. The top management is the rector and director. The assistant rector is in charge of research, master and PhD (under planning) programs, which seems to be rather loosely coupled to the rest of the top management work. His office is next to the EDs office, and there is a direct open door between them. The talk often during the day. The leadership group otherwise consist of the four department deans, leader of external courses department, finance and personnel director, and the director of student affairs. This group meets every Monday.

He says that they separate functions clearly – yet that in every day work they do not think too much about who is in charge of what. Their roles seem to be very overlapping, with PD interested in external relations, command and control structures as well as budgetary discipline, more than professional priorities, and he claims that the is ED interested in professional priorities. I originally had an appointment with the ED as well – but when I got there he “had to go on vacation”. He says that traditionally the school has always had a strong rector dominance, but that they (he?) have now upgraded the administration “not degraded the way it often is in university colleges”.

I get the impression that this is someone who would like to build monuments. There is a strong emphasis on change and development, and the strategic plan covers a range of ambitious areas. Yet the new developments apart from the merger and university plans seem to be accidental – or incremental? He says that the strategic plan is important for top management but that the organization doesn’t believe in it unless it is to their advantage.

There seem to be tension regarding the deans group. This is manifest in that he first says that their only chance to establish authority in these changing times with a lot of opposition in the academic staff, is to follow the hierarchical lines, yet tells how he meets with the department student coordinators in order to make sure that they know what it is that the Boards wishes, rather than use the deans. There are difficulties with the deans in their new role, previously they were elected an often seen as trustees on behalf of their peers, now they are employed (four year contracts) and must realize that they are representing the Board. He says that he and the ED often discuss whether they have support from the organization (the deans) or whether “we are running our own show”. They worry whether the deans forward information or whether they have separate agendas. One conclusion could be that the deans with the change from formal dual to formal unified (on the department level) are expected to reconcile the different rationalities – but that there is perhaps not much structural or leadership support for them to be able to do that.

Respondent 2: Dean is XX years old and has been with the College part time since 1987, and full time since 1997. He has a Master degree and was a high school teacher before coming to the college. He was working as a lecturer in the department, and then as a student coordinator. In XXXX he was elected dean of a previous department – which has later been merged with another

to make up the faculty that they have today. Due to an ongoing research project he never took up his elected position before the leadership reform (from elected in dual – to contract employee in unitary), and applied for the position as dean in the new Faculty. His taking up this position was also postponed and at the time of the interview he had been in position for about 10 months. “first I was elected – it wasn’t hard – there were hardly any candidates.”

The Faculty has about 900 students – full-time and part-time, and an academic staff of about 50. There are six different – subject or professional groups that seem to function rather more as separate organizational entities than as interest groups. There is a department leader group which should consist of the dean, office manager and four student coordinators. The student coordinators are faculty who has up to 50% of their position allocated to working with study programs, coordination of faculty etc. They were unable to find the last student coordinator – so this position is divided among three people. He has problems making this group work as a leadership group due to the structure and that people often do not show up at meetings. Formally the office manager is now reporting to the dean – but he says that they work as a team. The office manager is deputy dean. He says that they share tasks and functions, but that budgetary and financial matters are done by the administrator.

The problems just kept coming on. First the Faculty consists of six different interest groups who foremost are concerned with their own interest and not those of the Faculty, and who fight among themselves – or with the dean directly - for resources. At the core of these groups is his own profession, scientist who have been with the college since its foundation in the 70’s, have many professors who for decades were used to running the show, but who are now lacking students and thus resources. They are cited as having their loyalty to their discipline, their professional associations and their profession and not caring about the institution as such. People foremost belong to their group rather than to a degree. Second, there are large conflicts over who has to work the most – the division of research, teaching and administration. Most claim that they do not have enough time to do their jobs properly and that they feel other groups or individuals have been a better situation. Next, there is the budget model which follows that of the ministry where resources are allocated on the basis of student credits produced, publications, and research projects. Although they have a good amount of publications, this is not enough to make up for the serious decline in student numbers. Thus, there are too many on staff. Third, he feels that they should have been allowed more time to implement the budget model, that there should have been a transition period, and that time is needed to get everyone settled into the new Faculty. He feels that top management and Board is pushing him to get systems in place and that they think he is a department trustee rather than recognize that things take time and that they are moving in the right direction. In addition there is the problem that the office manager completely fails in his communication with the ED and the finance director. They do not trust his competence – nor are they able to work through things. Like he says – it is a problem for him either way – especially if they are right in their assumptions about incompetence. There are many seniors on staff and they cele-

brate a lot of 60th and some 50th anniversaries but he wish they would celebrate some turning 40 or 30. People seem tired and set in the ways things used to be.

He describes his situation like he is balancing on top of a pyramid, with another pyramid balancing on his head. At least four times the past year he has seriously considered quitting his position and return to be an ordinary member of the staff. Twice the same day I talk to him he has had conversations with representatives for groups that have been so unpleasant he feels a physical reaction to it. For now he has decided that he can no longer try to balance between the different forces, and will try to stay on the top management side of things and show his loyalty to the College leader group. Given the framework that he has to deal with he says there is no other way to make it work for him, nor for the department.

Appendix 4.1: Summary constellation analysis

Organization	Classification	Structural separation	Specialization	Role Differentiation	Interaction patterns
College A	Unitary	All report in line to PD.	Formal task and social responsibility for all domains. Deputies with large autonomy in professional domains.	Low to medium role differentiation. Middle manager with larger responsibility for professional development in close coupling with leader.	Close interaction with leader group. Formal meeting every two weeks but meet almost every day informally. High interaction with all of faculty. Small organization.
College B	Hybrid	Two leaders reporting to the Board. Department level leaders report to both.	Traditional positions of PD and ED, but not clear how functions are divided. External versus internal focus (PD/ED) as much as professional vs adm focus.	Medium to low role differentiation. High overlap between roles. Frequently unclear to subordinates what to report to whom.	Very high interaction in dyad. Meet informally every day. PD interacts directly with adm staff who normally report to deans.
College B Dep A	Hybrid	One dean to whom all should report. Actual reporting unclear.	Dean is responsible for task and social functions. Office manager takes on many adm tasks and report partly directly to PD and ED.	Low to Medium role differentiation. Unclear to who and how faculty reports.	High interaction within dyad of dean and office manager. Medium to high interaction with top dyad. Meet section leaders every week.
College C	Dual	Two lines of reporting. Adm functions report to ED and faculty report to PD	Separation in adm and professional functions. PD heavily involved in external issues and relations whereas ED has an internal focus.	High role differentiation. Stable and recognizable for subordinate who to report on regarding what. PD more visible and probably more influential but not enough to lower the role differentiation.	High interaction within the dyad. Medium to low interaction with departments and sections. Influential geographical distance between sections.

College D	Dual	Two lines of reporting. Adm functions report to ED and faculty report to PD.	Separation in external and internal functions more than in adm and professional although both leaders suggest that PD has an influential role in interaction with faculty. Looks more like political / bureaucratic domains than professional / administrative.	High role differentiation. Stable and recognizable reporting patterns, everyone knows who takes care of what.	High interaction in dyad to the level of taking care of practical details on the other's behalf. Medium interaction with departments and sections.
College E	Hybrid	Next level report to both leaders.	Separation in adm and professional tasks and functions. Large social coordination / internal relations implementation rest on PD but actual ideas are brought forward in cooperation between the two.	Medium role differentiation. ED has been with the organization for a very long time and works closely with PD on issues also regarding professional domain. PD involved in how to bring the adm domain in line with professional domain.	Very high interaction. Works closely together and talk often during the day - also after hours. Medium to high interaction with extended leader group. All domains involved whether administrative or professional.
College F	Hybrid	All ultimately report to ED unless on undisputable faculty issues in which case report to PD. PD formally report to ED. In reality quite some cross-reporting where individuals report to both depending on the issue.	Task and social coordination are clearly separated. However two separate professional domains that need to be coordinated. This happens in the leader team.	High role differentiation. Seems everyone is clear on who to report and discuss with whom. Well established procedures which are independent of the person in position.	Medium to high interaction within dyad. High interaction within leader group. Low role differentiation within leader group. more issues resolved in leader group than in many other educational institutions.
College G	Dual	Structural separation. Prof domain report to PD and adm domain report to ED.	High task and social coordination specializations. Adm and prof domains clearly headed by one of the two executives.	High role differentiation. Everyone is clear on who does what and what to discuss with whom.	Medium interaction within dyad. Relatively low interdependence.

Hospital A Clinic A	Unitary	13 leaders who all report to clinic head	Follows up on all social tasks himself. Task specialization in team according to profession.	Medium role differentiation due to influential medical advisor.	Team with all coalitions/ domains represented. Medium interaction with team members.
Hospital A Dep A	Unitary	7 leaders who all report to dep head	Responsible and has to answer for whole department. High task specialization within leader group. Leader follows up on team-coordination. Unclear if any intervention takes place outside own domain.	Low role differentiation.	Large leader group with all domains represented. Low interaction other than formal meetings.
Hospital A Clinic B	Unitary	8 leaders who all report to clinic head	Follows up on social and task co-ordination himself. Intervenes in task issues also outside of own professional background. Specializations according to tasks in leader group.	Low role differentiation. Unitary leader recognized as leader for all.	Leader team with all domains present. High interaction with this team and subordinates. Team decisions as a general rule.
Hospital A Dep B	Hybrid	Unclear reporting. Leader team who partly report to leader, partly report to other profession based units.	Follows up on social and task co-ordination in team. Does not intervene in specific task issues specific to profession, but has returned domain reps to own coalition if not working according to overall task goal.	Medium role differentiation. Works closely with medical advisor on all issues.	Team issues important. Meet with team members and know all well. Emphasizes importance of team trust and interaction.

Hospital B	Unitary	17 clinic and department leaders plus staff functions report directly to leader. Two deputies with professional affiliation makes picture a bit unclear.	Full responsibility for administrative and professional functions. High task specialization on lower levels.	Medium role differentiation. Deputies with active and extended professional roles. Yet seems to be relatively clear reporting structure with autonomous department leaders.	High interaction with staff functions. Meet every day. Meet clinic and department leaders two times per month.
Hospital C Clinic A	Unitary	5 people - 2 dep leaders, medical advisor and professional team leaders report to clinic head. Some cross-reporting as clinic head doubles as his own department head.	Social co-ordination of all members. Task division according to profession, but control function and involvement from leader.	Low to medium role differentiation. Clinic in a transition phase. Working to be recognized as unitary leader for whole clinic as previous profession leaders still are present and hold coordination responsibilities while reporting to leader.	Medium interaction with domain representatives. Geographical distance between units makes the interaction with some domains high and other lower. Highly aware of importance of communication and working with all domains.
Hospital C Dep A	Unitary	All report to dep head	Task and social co-ordination of all domains. High involvement on all domains by leader.	Very low role differentiation.	High interaction with representatives and members of all domains in department.
Hospital C Clinic B	Unitary	9 members of leader group report to clinic head but highly autonomous in every day work.	High task division. Large leader group. Little social involvement.	Low role differentiation. Everyone knows who is responsible.	Little or no interaction other than formal leader group meetings.
Hospital D	Unitary	17 clinic heads plus staff directors report to CEO	Coordination of all task and social labor in of hospital.	Low role differentiation. Deputy director role important as support role, but no indication of real role differentiation.	Interaction in top team formal.

Hospital D Clinic A	Unitary	Two groups of 5 leaders who report to clinic head.	Coordinates all task and social labor in clinic.	Low role differentiation. Has an office manager responsible for certain follow ups, but little role overlap.	High level if interaction in team both formal and informal. High level of knowledge of all organization
Hospital D Dep A	Unitary	All members report to dep head.	Coordinates all task and social labor in department.	None known.	High level of interaction both up and down in organization.
Hospital E	Hybrid	CEO reports to Board. TMT reports to CEO. Operational leaders report to TMT.	CEO foremost coordinator of all of organization. Seems unusually well informed about the goings on throughout to be on the top of large and complex organization.	Role differentiation well known and medium to high. Team with clear division of responsibilities.	High level of interaction with team both formal and informal. MBWA.
Hospital E Clinic A	Hybrid	All team leaders report to each other. Subordinates report to team members according to issues.	Sharing of task according to profession. Social issues high division of labor.	High role differentiation. Stable and recognizable who is responsible for what.	High level of interaction in multiple domain team and within all of clinic. Dependent on the actual leader team in place.
Museum A	Unitary	5 people leader group who report to ED.	ED in charge of adm domain and external issues. PDs (deans) in charge of professional domains and internal issues.	High role differentiation on organization level. Clearly separated roles and these are recognizable by members of the organization.	Low to medium interaction within leader group.
Museum A Dep A Dep B	Unitary	All staff in department report to own dean.	Each department autonomous. Dep dean responsible for adm and prof issues within department.	Low role differentiation on department level.	Medium interaction within each department.

Museum B	Unitary	8 person leader group with section/ department leader and adm support staff report to PD.	PD responsible for all adm and professional domains, internal and external relations. Each section responsible for own operations but in line with overall strategic priorities for the whole museum. PD keeps high focus on strategic priorities and external relations to promote those.	Low role differentiation.	Medium to high interaction with leader group meeting every week.
Museum C	Hybrid	Leader team of five people where team reports to ED. Initially hierarchical structure but cross- reporting within team due to high interdependenci es.	Tasks and functions divided according to overall defined domains. This means that each section leader is in charge of both adm and prof domains, yet these are also linked to adm and prof domains which other section leaders are in charge of. ED focus on external issues and PDs focused on internal issues.	Medium to high role differentiation despite and idea of clear hierarchy that should be associated with low role differentiation. Not always clear who is in charge of what and who reports to whom.	Medium interaction within leader group. Group meets every week, but it seems like much happens outside of this forum. Not much known about this interaction.
Museum D	Unitary	All 7 members of leader group report to PD.	PD responsible for all professional and adm domains. PD has high external focus. Section leaders an internal focus.	Low role differentiation. Stable and recognizable reporting.	Medium interaction within leader group. Meets every two weeks. Quite formal forum.

Newspaper A	Dual	Two leaders reporting directly to the Board. Clearly separated domains reporting to each - adm and prof.	Clearly separated functions, autonomous working relations, yet understood and accepted division of responsibility.	High role differentiation. Everyone knows who they report to, and this never varies.	Medium interaction within dyad. Geographical distance. Respect for the importance of the others competence and responsibilities
Newspaper B	Dual	Two leaders. Both report directly to Board. Each in charge of clearly separate domains reporting in separate structure to one leader.	Clearly allocated domains. One adm and professional leader.	High role differentiation. Everyone is highly aware to whom they report. Do not even figure on the same organizational charts.	Medium to low interaction within dyad. High interaction with leaders in own domain.
Newspaper C	Dual	Two leaders who report directly to Board. Each in charge of separate structures/ domains.	Clearly separated domains. ED in charge of adm, PD in charge of professional domain. Some cross-reporting in new media (web, TV, radio).	High role differentiation although both show some desire to cross over to the other's domain.	High interaction within dyad. Talk every day.
Newspaper D	Dual	Two leaders who report directly to the Board.	Clearly separated domains. ED in charge of adm. PD in charge of prof domain.	High role differentiation.	Little information but indications of low to medium interaction within dyad. Few signs of knowing each other to the extent indicative of more than low interaction.

Orchestra A	Hybrid	In daily work members report to ED. Two ADs responsible for clearly defined professional domains.	Clearly allocated task and social functions. ED works with a leader group touching upon both professional and administrative domains. ADs clearly allocated tasks and functions. Could also be considered in terms of internal (ED) and external (ADs) issues.	Medium role differentiation. In daily work ED present and in charge. However certain functions and roles which he never takes on.	High interaction within on site leader team and ED. Medium to low interaction between ED and ADs. High awareness of interdependence between professional decisions and actions and administrative issues.
Orchestra B	Hybrid	Formal dual structure where adm reports to ED and prof report to AD. Both report directly to Board.	Clear division over task and social functions. Written agreement regulates who does what. Intervention by ED in AD matters through adm decisions.	Medium to high role differentiation. Due to high interdependence and low quality and frequency of interaction roles have sometimes overlapped more than AD and Board comfortable with.	Low interaction within dyad. Medium to high interaction within each domain. Members of each domain who bridging domains.
Theatre A	Unitary	All report to AD. Leader team of five people who work closely with AD. AD and one team member both clear on who has the last word - whatever the issue.	Tasks and social functions clearly allocated. AD in charge of all prof issues and external issues. Adm staff in charge of adm issues by delegated authority on a case by case / issue by issue basis.	Low to medium role differentiation. AD is an artist as well as AD thus some role overlap takes place.	Medium to high interaction within leader group. Medium to high interaction between AD and professional staff.
Theatre B	Dual	Two lines of reporting. Everyone knows who to report to.	Clearly separated professional and adm domains and who is responsible for what. Very clear structural separation. ED invited to speak to professional coalition - not something to do often or without agreement with AD beforehand.	High role differentiation. Stable and recognizable reporting patterns.	Medium to high interaction in dyad and in leader group. Both leaders display high awareness of the interdependencies between domains and the need to work constantly work with these.

University A	Hybrid	Adm staff top level report to ED. Adm staff lower level dual reporting both to formal leader and through adm line. Professional staff report in one line to rector.	Task specialization so that executive director responsible for all administrative tasks in practice, although not according to formal charts. Rector in charge of all professional issues.	High role differentiation.	Medium interaction within dyad/ across domains.
University A Faculty A	Dual	Adm staff report to faculty director and prof staff to dean. Subordinates report in line according to domain.	High task specialization although some strategic issues now taken care by only dean.	High role differentiation. Despite reform which has taken away director's formal authority - stable and recognizable roles. For all practical purposes structural separation although more overlap than in the past.	High interaction within dyad. High interaction within each line.
University A Faculty B	Hybrid	Adm staff report to director, but director report to dean rather than board. Still some reporting directly up the administrative line.	Task specialized according to domains.	High role differentiation. At the time of interviews uncertainty over director's future role.	Medium interaction within dyad. High interaction within administrative domain.
University A Faculty C	Hybrid	All leaders report to dean. Adm role unclear.	Some task specialization, high task autonomy for adm leader. Dean takes on large range of tasks and social issues despite agreed task division. Dean has high focus on external issues.	Medium role differentiation. Not stable reporting structures.	High interaction within leader team and extended team.
University A Dep A	Unitary	All report to department leader.	Task and social functions rests with dep leader.	Low role differentiation.	Medium to low interaction with faculty leaders. High interaction with own members.

University A Dep B	Unitary	All report to department leader. Team of 6 section leaders through which everyone reports.	Task and social functions rests with leader. But high autonomy in sections.	Low role differentiation. Has an adm staff but this is clearly a support function.	Medium interaction with section leaders - meet with them every two weeks.
University B	Hybrid	Professional units report to PD. Adm and support units report to ED but some also directly to PD.	Strong professional leader. No one in doubt as to who has the final word. Communicates directly with parts of adm domain ED allocated distinct adm domains.	Medium role differentiation. Hybrid constellation because structural separation is not consistent throughout organization.	High interaction in dyad and with leader team. Meets several times per week. High interaction between professional leaders and lower levels professionals. PD tried higher interaction with leaders from both adm and prof domains, but made reporting patterns confusing and process time consuming.
University C	Hybrid	Faculty report to PD. Adm report to ED. Changing top structure so that ED report to PD rather than to Board. Faculties report in line to PD.	Task functions divided for the most part, but PD involved in adm domain and expected to be by faculty.	Medium role differentiation. PD involved in adm domain. Recognizable to subordinates who does what.	High interaction within professional domain. Unclear about interaction in dyad.
University C Faculty A	Hybrid	All report to dean.	Task division between dean and office manager. Social issues managed by dean. Emphasize the sharing of daily work combined with leader accountability especially in financial and professional events.	Medium role differentiation. Unrest in the organization over this.	High interaction within dyad. Work together and has a common goal.

University C Faculty B	Unitary	All report to dean, including administration.	Task and social issues managed by dean. Adm staff is support function.	Low role differentiation. No office manager, adm staff self-managed for the most part. Any issues brought to the dean. Stable and recognizable roles.	Very high interaction with faculty. Medium interaction with adm staff.
---	---------	---	--	---	--

Appendix 5.1: Examples of profession logic expressions

Dimension	Professional identity	Professional norms and values	Jurisdictional issues	Leadership role as an extension of the profession
Organization				
Hospitals	Nurse's culture and doctor's culture are very different. You must understand this. They need different stimuli and have different frames of reference. (CEO advisor, Hospital A)	I was surprised that the different health workers are so dissimilar. Basic norms are very different...if you look at nurses...at bio-engineers...at doctors...look at all the groups... (Middle-level Professional Director A, Hospital A)	The hospital suggested that we merge with the neurosurgeons and the neurologists but that was out of the question. We handle rehabilitation and long-term patient care, they do emergency medicine. We know who would lose. (Middle level Professional Director, Hospital D)	You have to know the profession in order to be a good leader. Maybe it could be taken care of by including someone with medical competence on a leadership team, but this might easily create unclear divisions of authority. I would be uncomfortable if a nurse was my boss and I had medical responsibility for the department. I would have to have a very clear mandate in order to properly fulfill that responsibility. This would be necessary from an ethical, legal and medical point of view. (Lower-level Professional Director A, Hospital A)
Education		This lonely business of ours – a learned person working in solitude and stepping down after four years. The time has passed for that. It is much more rewarding to work on a team – a research team. This is a given for biologists and medical researchers, and to some extent for mathematicians and in the natural sciences, but not for others. (Professional Director, University B)	I guess it would be acceptable for a dean to take on administrative tasks, but the departmental director could never take on professional responsibility. (Middle-level Executive Director A, University A)	I may be an elitist – but I do think that the faculty leader should be a highly respected professor...whose professional authority will earn respect from all employees in the field and who will allow you to be a part of professional processes and give some direction to those processes. (Middle-level Professional Director C, University A)

Culture	<p>We do see that the stronger the profession, the more important formal competence becomes. And that makes the person stronger. After all, it's hard to argue with someone who has an education to back him up. It may be an outdated way of thinking, but that doesn't influence the attitudes that we run up against.</p> <p>(Executive Director, Theatre B)</p>		<p>Now we have exhibitions and collections as two separate things: There's a former conservator – now curator – for the collections - who isn't attached to and doesn't work with the exhibitions anymore. The people doing it instead never worked with the collections or with the exhibitions before.</p> <p>(Middle-level Professional Director, Museum C)</p>	<p>It is a dilemma because if you don't have researchers in leadership positions the staff won't take any advice or direction. "Why listen to him, what does he know about what I need?" But if you've been there, and they know it, it's a different matter.</p> <p>(Professional Director, Museum D)</p>
Newspapers	<p>Journalists need stroking – they're kind of prima donnas. They think they're the most important people in the world.</p> <p>(Board Member, Newspaper B and C)</p>	<p>People working here are individualists, yet at the same time the loyalty and the firm belief in the idea of the newspaper are strong. Loyalty to the basic principles and traditions of the party is strong, yet at the same time there's room for discussion and disagreement. It can be hard to understand for people from a different background.</p> <p>(Professional Director, Newspaper B)</p>	<p>It's the editor-in-chief's responsibility to create the product. I can give my input and if he doesn't agree that's the end of it. It's just the way things are. He reigns, just as I have complete authority on the commercial side.</p> <p>(Executive Director, Newspaper D)</p>	<p>I don't recall the details, but he asked me why I was in the seven o'clock news all the time. Why couldn't I just leave all that to the executive director? He just didn't understand that the editorial staff would never relate to the ED...</p> <p>Journalists expect the chief to front any concerns of theirs.</p> <p>(Board Member, Newspaper B and C)</p>

Appendix 7.1: Examples of dominant mode of integration

Dominant mode of integration	Description	Illustration
Professional logic	<i>Hospital A</i> PD from dominant coalition: acts according to dominant coalition logic although department include other domains. Would like to continue in profession, but as professional participation would be unpredictable and thus put a strain on other professionals within own domain has decided this is not possible.	<i>At my level I have a competence and experience that my superior has not got, and I find that there is a different understanding and priority from the people I lead and to the level above me. This means that what I have in terms of my profession he doesn't have, and what he controls in terms of decision making authority and so on I don't have. Thus, part of my job is to further his understanding for our profession, its development and the treatment that we offer.</i> (Middle level Professional Director, dominant profession)
	<i>University C</i> Professional logic combined with command and control logic dominant. Reflected in expressed view of administrative domain and expectations that professionals control all decisions arenas and resources. Administration considered in terms of its ability to provide support.	<i>We have strong deans and we can not change and develop the professional domain if we have administrators who interfere. Administrators usually are not professionals. They rarely have a professional background – and even when they do that competence is often outdated</i> <i>We don't want – an executive director should not interfere with how departments organize things – he should supply the necessary resources – and fulfill the role of financial controller</i> (Professional director, dominant profession)
Business logic	<i>Newspaper D</i> ED dominant business logic Is concerned that dividends have not been paid out to owners and that return on investment should be much higher.	<i>When the journalists choose to interview other people than our commercial partners – of course the partners are upset. OK, so they do it now and again – but if it is the rule 99% of the time. It is not possible to call it cooperation when the editorial staff just doesn't want to listen. I don't see that this has anything to do with upholding editorial freedom.</i> (Executive director, non-dominant profession)
	<i>Newspaper B</i> ED dominant business logic. Accepts that editorial staff has their idiosyncrasies but can not really see why this should be any different from any other business.	<i>All of the resources are dedicated to a certain cost center. It is the only way to keep control. People generally don't like it...but it is impossible to keep developing all kinds of without a commercial basis. Unfortunately that's the truth. There has to be a commercial side to all new editorial products.</i> (Executive director, non-dominant profession)
	<i>Hospital D</i> ED primarily act according to a dominant follow the resources logic – could also be called a business logic. Dominant coalitions affect most of the resources, therefore often leading the way.	<i>If we talk about leadership it is about the refining of resources – and in pour system doctors control resources. In the end that is what all of this is about –directly and indirectly doctors control resources.</i> (Executive director, non-dominant profession)

Command and Control logic	<p><i>University A</i> ED displays a dominant command and control logic. Demonstrate understanding for the professional values of the educational institution, but place the professional leaders in a clear command and control logic.</p>	<p><i>It is not the difference between a unitary or a dual structure that is essential. The point is that professional leadership must be expressed through a system from the top to bottom. The executive director report to rector. Department directors and institute leaders report to deans, and so on. (Executive director, non-dominant profession)</i></p>
	<p><i>Museum C</i> ED follows two dominant logics. He first redefines core organizational purpose from collection to exhibition. He also follows a C&C logic emphasizing the need for a hierarchical structure and to adhere to 'the line'.</p>	<p><i>I have emphasized the need to keep the line – the hierarchy is the only thing that may save us – all these different cultures – with people who have worked here for thirty – forty years. I am constantly pointing out that the only thing that can keep us together is to keep to the structure. (Executive director, non-dominant profession)</i></p>

Appendix 7.2: Examples of balancing mode of integration

PD - professional director

ED - executive director

AD - artistic director

Balancing mode of integration examples	
Description	Illustration
<p><i>College C</i> ED display a balance logic where profession logic is expected to be working within an overall organization and resource framework.</p>	<p><i>If you are building two separate cultures in an organization – if this is going to work the administration has to be integrated with the professional domain.</i> <i>It is so intertwined all that we do – it is impossible to do anything on the professional side without an effect on money or people. (ED)</i></p>
<p><i>College G</i> Both leaders agree in their description of an institution characterized by a focus on core professional development placed in a resource accountability framework.</p>	<p><i>I can understand why artistic institutions keep an administrative position. The institution itself has very little interest and competence in financial matters – and there is no reason they should. Still someone needs to hold on to that and make those issues accessible to help everyone understand how it is connected. If we manage our funds some substantial professional development projects would be possible. (ED)</i></p> <p><i>Professional priorities have not only been purely made based on the highest professional standard. We also need to allocate funds so that new development can take place. (PD)</i></p>
<p><i>Hospital A</i> PD from non-dominant coalition at operating core: act according to the need to balance between all professional groups and within given resource framework. Expectations of equal need for all – and expecting all staff to chip in regardless of domain.</p>	<p><i>The perspectives of what we are here to do can be very different. But if you enter a group like this with the perspective that you are here to promote your own group it just isn't going to work. We have to aim for the best solutions even if that sometimes may hurt my own group. If we can not get to that point we won't succeed. (PD)</i></p> <p><i>To follow up the professional and the administrative needs go hand in hand. If a new activity is to be introduced next year then it has to keep a high professional standard and unless it does we can not do it. And then there is dialogue and we follow all the routines and find a way. (PD)</i></p>
<p><i>Hospital C</i> Leaders from non-dominant professions act according to a balance logic where priorities are made according to health authority protocol, hospital priorities and available resources. Secure in their understanding that the leader position grants them the right and obligation to make priorities on behalf of the department as a whole.</p>	<p><i>It is not my job to be the specialist – the professional specialist – I am the leader – my job is to understand what it is that we do and help everyone reach the goals that we decide on. I didn't make an effort to try to learn those things either....I am not a doctor and I never wanted to be a doctor – I am comfortable with that. (PD)</i></p> <p><i>My focus is usually to make daily operations work – treat the patients that we have here – within the resources that we have. (PD)</i></p>

<p><i>Hospital E</i> All respondents hold out a very convincing balance logic. Claim that jurisdiction or dominant coalition logic has no bearing on priorities. Must consider all domains and be aware that everyone is involved and should act autonomously within a responsible resource framework</p>	<p><i>The administration – they have nothing of their own – We treat patients, educate and research. And all of that happen within given legal and financial frameworks. It is our responsibility to make sure it all happens. But there is no way to separate them. (ED/PD)</i></p> <p><i>At the clinic level – they have to work together to run operations – all of the professions have to be involved. The idea here is that everything is based on a functioning team who agree to work towards the same goal. (ED/PD)</i></p>
<p><i>Newspaper A</i> Both ED and PD demonstrate high degree of Balance logic. Emphasis on the interdependence between content decisions and commercial side.</p>	<p><i>Among the leaders – there are tensions of course – The editorial staff is constantly looking for more resources to develop the journalistic product – yet at the same time they realize that we need a reasonable amount of earnings. I find the goals for commercial success and the goals for editorial success are well connected. We discuss and agree. (ED)</i></p>
<p><i>Orchestra A</i> ED focuses on content, resources and C&C. Must always balance between these. The goal is an ultimate artistic product development within available resources and structure.</p>	<p><i>It really is impossible to measure of course – those are two different dimensions – and yet you must give the art some frameworks to work within – and art must be created within those limits. The challenge is to create some positive energy out of that situation. There is energy and tension all the time that have to be transformed into a positive and creative energy. (ED)</i></p>
<p><i>Theatre B</i> Both leaders demonstrate balance logic. Clearly agree that resources and content need to go hand in hand in order to fulfil community mission, gain external stakeholder respect and continue the artistic development.</p>	<p><i>I agree – we should perform for all groups – children, the young – something for everybody – something for those especially interested. We are given public money – we shouldn't follow an all commercial logic. We believe in the mandate given to us. (ED)</i></p> <p><i>I have to plan the program, which again has to go hand in hand with the sales budget and the production budgets. I simply can not plan for more than the available resources. Considering what is possible here. (AD)</i></p>
<p><i>University B</i> PD displays a clear focus on upholding and developing professional standards within a resource and strategic priorities framework. Emphasis on actually making priorities within the professional domains.</p>	<p><i>Professional priorities and administrative issues can not be separated. One thing affects the other. The purpose of that team was to make sure we agreed and didn't focus on different issues. (PD)</i></p>

