

Professionalism Redundant, Reshaped, or Reinvigorated? Realizing the 'Third Logic' in Contemporary Healthcare

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1 **Professionalism Redundant, Reshaped, or Reinvigorated? Realizing the 'Third Logic' in**

2 **Contemporary Healthcare**

3 **Abstract**

4 Recent decades have seen the influence of the professions decline. Lately, commentators have
5 suggested a revived role for a 'new' professionalism in ensuring and enhancing high-quality
6 healthcare in systems dominated by market and managerial logics. The form this new
7 professionalism might take, however, remains obscure. This article uses data from an
8 ethnographic study of three English healthcare-improvement projects to analyze the place,
9 potential, and limitations of professionalism as a means of engaging clinicians in efforts to
10 improve service quality. We found that appeals to notions of professionalism had strong support
11 among practitioners, but converting enthusiasm for the principle of professionalism into
12 motivation to change practice was not straightforward. Some tactics used in pursuit of this
13 deviated sharply from traditional models of collegial social control. In systems characterized by
14 fissures between professional groups and powerful market and managerial influences, we suggest
15 that professionalism must interact creatively but carefully with other logics.

16 **Professionalism Redundant, Reshaped, or Reinvigorated? Realizing the 'Third Logic' in**
17 **Contemporary Healthcare**

18 Recent decades have seen a transformation in the nature of professional healthcare work
19 worldwide. The so-called 'Golden Age' of medicine has faded; managerialism and markets now
20 occupy territories that were once the exclusive domain of the health professions (Light 2000).
21 Though rumors of the death of medical dominance may be exaggerated (Timmermans and Oh
22 2010), the place—and even the definition—of professionalism in contemporary healthcare is
23 deeply contested. One major area of contestation concerns the extent to which the apparent
24 subduing of the professions represents a necessary—if sometimes overzealous—brake on the
25 excesses of professional autonomy thought to characterize earlier eras (e.g. Light 2010), or
26 whether, in undermining a service ethic, it represents a threat to quality and equity of healthcare
27 (e.g. Freidson 2001).

28 Amid these debates, a determined attempt is now being made to rehabilitate
29 professionalism as a force for good, and thus rescue it from the persistent and damaging
30 accusation that it is primarily a self-interested claim aimed at obtaining monopoly rents and other
31 privileges. Eliot Freidson's (2001) sermon on the 'soul' of professionalism has been a major
32 contribution to this effort; it has been joined by a chorus of voices calling for a reinvigorated
33 'new professionalism' that might embody the best of the professional ethic and secure its place at
34 the heart of healthcare delivery (see, e.g., Brennan 2002; Cruess, Johnston, and Cruess 2002;
35 Irvine 1999; Royal College of Physicians 2005). Our focus in this article is on the fate of efforts
36 to promote this 'new professionalism' in an institutional field governed by multiple, often
37 competing forces. The empirical material we use to advance our analysis derives from a study of
38 a program of healthcare improvement initiatives in England. What makes this program

39 analytically significant is that it explicitly and purposefully sought to mobilize professionalism in
40 the pursuit of quality. We animate our analysis by identifying professionalism as an institutional
41 logic (Thornton and Ocasio 2008) that may have particular valence in influencing healthcare
42 professionals alongside ascendant corporate, state, and market logics (Goodrick and Reay 2011).
43 We focus particularly but not exclusively on medical professionalism, and we begin by briefly
44 scoping its history and current position in a complex and heterogeneous institutional field.

45 **Background: The Rise, Fall, and Resurrection of Professionalism?**

46 On both sides of the Atlantic, the professions, and particularly medicine, enjoyed a privileged
47 place in the organization of healthcare through the early and mid-twentieth century—the period
48 often characterized as the ‘Golden Age’ of medicine (Starr 1982). Autonomy and self-regulation
49 were underwritten by an overwhelmingly positive public image of the professions, broadly
50 endorsed by a generation of social scientists (see Light 2010 for an overview). Given the esoteric
51 knowledge base, information asymmetries, and potential for malpractice, functionalist sociology
52 identified in the ideal type of professionalism an apparent solution to the challenge of ensuring
53 that vulnerable patients obtained appropriate care, and that the practitioner's duties to wider
54 society were upheld (e.g. Parsons 1939).

55 The turn from functionalism from the late 1950s onward prompted a different set of
56 concerns within the sociology of professions. Sociologists began to argue that claims of special
57 credentials were strategic maneuvers aimed at securing exclusive rights to particular titles and
58 practices in pursuit of occupational enhancement (Larson 1977)—rights which were established
59 by the state through legal provisions that offered professions protection not enjoyed by
60 nonprofessional occupational groups (Salter 2004). Critiques from the likes of Freidson (1970)
61 and Larson (1977) saw the professions less as noble defenders of the public good than as cabals

62 that used their institutionalized protection from competitive forces to advance their own interests.

63 Beyond academia, in the 1980s, institutionalized protection for professions came under
64 challenge in health policy. Increasingly, the autonomy of the medical profession in particular
65 came to be seen as a vice rather than a virtue, one that had given rise to, *inter alia*, spiraling
66 healthcare costs, clinically unjustified variations in care, and a dangerously cozy relationship
67 with the pharmaceutical industry (Mechanic and McAlpine 2010). In the US, the rise of managed
68 care saw insurers and other healthcare purchasers assert their power over the professions (Starr
69 1982; Light 2000), while in England a series of reforms saw increasing managerial power over
70 professional decision-making, marketization of the National Health Service (NHS) (Klein 2006),
71 and the erosion of professional self-regulation (Dixon-Woods et al. 2011).

72 At the same time the very nature of professional work—what physicians and other
73 healthcare professionals actually do—itself has changed dramatically (Noordegraaf 2011).
74 Complex conditions and new treatment modalities have brought with them new risks and
75 interdependencies with which traditional professional approaches to managing risk and assuring
76 quality are ill-equipped to deal. Professionals also now work in a very different occupational
77 environment from that of the mid-twentieth century. New interdependencies have been created;
78 work is increasingly done by inter-professional teams rather than the heroic individuals of mid-
79 twentieth century imagining; it is made visible, monitored, and controllable in multiple ways.
80 The rise of evidence-based medicine and new technologies have opened previously
81 inconceivable possibilities for the surveillance of professional conduct by external actors (Martin
82 et al. 2013), including the state, managers, insurers, and patients, such that these actors now
83 engage with the professions on the basis of ‘justifiable’ or ‘verifiable’ trust rather than the
84 unconditional trust that perhaps once prevailed (Kuhlmann 2006).

85 This nexus of changes within healthcare and the contemporaneous mutations in the nature
86 and cultural accounts of professionalism have not occurred in isolation. Wider, societal-level
87 changes have further eroded the influence of medical professionalism. These changes are
88 manifest in the rise of alternative, overlapping ‘institutional logics’ that have to some extent
89 displaced the rules and norms of the logic of medical professionalism in determining behavior,
90 notably the logics of market, corporatism, and state (Goodrick and Reay 2011; Scott et al. 2000).
91 Institutional logics are “the socially constructed, historical pattern of material practices,
92 assumptions, values, beliefs, and rules by which individuals produce and reproduce their material
93 subsistence, organize time and space, and provide meaning to their social reality” (Thornton and
94 Ocasio 1998:804). With its roots in neoinstitutionalist sociology, the institutional logics approach
95 (Friedland and Alford 1991; Thornton and Ocasio 2008) offers a useful conceptual starting point
96 for understanding the fortunes and potential of professionalism in healthcare; three
97 distinguishing features of the approach are especially relevant for our current purpose.

98 First, theorists of institutional logics have helpfully articulated how logics can form and
99 evolve at multiple social levels and in multiple fields of organization, interacting and mutually
100 shaping as they do so (Thornton, Ocasio, and Lounsbury 2012:150). This helps to explain why
101 medical professionalism shares many characteristics of the higher-order logic of professionalism,
102 but also characteristics of professionalism in other fields (law, accountancy, and on on), at the
103 same time as being clearly distinctive. Second, the approach illuminates not only how competing
104 logics may coexist, with dominant logics ebbing and flowing through time, but also how even
105 institutional logics that are in decline may continue to affect field practices (e.g. Reay and
106 Hinings 2005, 2009; Goodrick and Reay 2011). Third, recent expositions of the approach attend
107 to how change may occur within logics themselves, in response to shifts in societal-level “meta-

108 logics” (e.g. Scott 2008:232), to the influence of other institutional logics in the same and
109 neighboring fields (e.g. Thornton et al. 2012), and to the ‘bottom-up’ agency of individual and
110 organizational actors within a particular field (e.g. Seo and Creed 2002).

111 An account of healthcare informed by these analytic constructs might then identify the
112 fading dominance of a medical-professional logic, including its relegation to a bit-part rather
113 than starring role, subordinate to the rules, norms and cognitive-cultural frames presented by
114 ascendant logics of market and management—but not entirely without influence. Thus Scott et
115 al.’s (2000:338) study of providers in the San Francisco Bay Area documents the decline of
116 medical professionalism from 1965 onwards, but notes “a continuing cacophony of contending
117 logics and divided regimes” to which the medical-professional logic contributes an ongoing, if
118 quieter, melody.

119 For some, the retreat of professionalism into the background, leaving the foreground to
120 other logics in healthcare, deserves a qualified welcome, insofar as it reflects a reining in of the
121 excesses of professions and professionals (Light 2000). Others, though, identify the potential
122 risks—and actual iniquities—created by healthcare systems in which managerial or market
123 logics are dominant. Fears are expressed that the professional’s fiduciary duty to the patient may
124 be replaced by organizational interests (Mechanic and McAlpine 2010), and unbridled
125 managerial control may distort professional behavior in harmful ways (Bevan and Hood 2006).

126 Consequently, calls are increasingly loudly made for the continued importance of
127 professionalism. Yet what exactly professionalism might mean is itself disputed. Among the
128 rallying cries is Freidson’s (2001) notion of professionalism as a ‘third logic’. In a notable turn
129 from his earlier position, Freidson, once the hammer of the professions, puts forward a defense
130 of an ideal-type professionalism (as distinct from ‘actual existing professionalism’). He

131 envisages a professionalism that might act as a countervailing power against managerial and
132 commercial forces, working to the benefit of healthcare quality and patients' interests. In this
133 ideal type, he finds room for a much greater role for medical professionalism than it is seen
134 currently to play in much of the institutional logics literature (e.g. Reay and Hinings 2005; Scott
135 et al. 2000).

136 Separately, commentators in healthcare policy and practice have similarly argued for
137 salvaging the best characteristics of traditional professionalism and recasting them in terms of
138 the clinical, social, and organizational realities of today's healthcare systems and societies. Thus
139 leading figures including Irvine (1999) and Brennan (2002) have called, respectively, for "new
140 professionalism" and "civic professionalism," with the professional "leading the way, not being
141 brought along by regulations" (Brennan 2002:978). The medical profession itself on both sides
142 of the Atlantic increasingly promotes the value of a 'new', reconfigured professionalism
143 (American Board of Internal Medicine Foundation 2002; Royal College of Physicians 2005). In
144 England, the call for new professionalism has even been taken up by the state, where it is cast as
145 a means of fostering leadership for quality, freeing and empowering staff, and reinstating
146 accountability to patients rather than administrators (Secretary of State for Health 2008).

147 These various constructions of a reconstituted professionalism have in common a number
148 of features. All are agreed, for example, that a new professionalism must embrace features of
149 modern healthcare systems—such as evidence-based practice, active rather than passive patients,
150 and wider networks of accountability and regulation—rather than revert to a tradition that puts
151 individual professional autonomy center-stage (Starr 1982). Even Freidson—though sometimes
152 (mis)characterized as advocating a "nonsensical" "pure professionalism" (Noordegraaf
153 2007:781)—distinguishes between the ideal-typical characteristics of professionalism, and its

154 empirical realization: “reality is and should be a variable mix of all three logics, the policy issue
155 being the precise composition of that mix” (Freidson 2001:181). But while these constructions
156 envision a model that is quite different from the medical hegemony of the Golden Age, they also
157 call for professionalism to retain its distinctiveness and collective-level autonomy.

158 Some strains of work in the institutional logics approach gives reason to be cautious about
159 the fortunes of such efforts to rehabilitate the logic of professionalism—or indeed any logic in a
160 field of competing logics. Thornton et al. (2012:164) identify seven ways in which field-level
161 logics can mutate: one may displace another, or interaction between logics may result in the
162 characteristics of one being incorporated into another. This poses dangers to the integrity of a
163 reinvigorated professionalism: Evetts (2009:248), for example, notes that ‘occupational
164 professionalism’—a discourse that guides the conduct of individual professionals who subscribe
165 to the norms, values and expectations of their collegium—may be appropriated by
166 ‘organizational professionalism’— “a discourse of control, used increasingly by managers.”
167 Where organizational mandates displace collegial obligations, Evetts argues that
168 ‘professionalism’ loses the very characteristics that proponents of new professionalism wish to
169 restore.

170 In this light, exactly what form a reinvigorated professionalism should take, and how it
171 should interact with other institutional logics in the healthcare field, is unclear. Recent studies
172 have shown how receding logics can retain an important, if subordinate, role in an organizational
173 field (McDonald et al. 2013; Reay and Hinings 2009). However, no study has examined the
174 fortunes of a purposive attempt to rejuvenate a receding logic, its composition, and the degree to
175 which it can remain distinctive and command legitimacy in a field now dominated by other
176 logics. We seek to fill this void through a study of a program of healthcare improvement projects

177 that were premised explicitly on the idea of harnessing professionalism. We focus on the degree
178 to which this approach appeared to succeed in gaining legitimacy among individual clinicians,
179 the tactics used by leads to turn legitimacy into action, and the way this was received by
180 professionals themselves. In our discussion, we reflect on how far this form of professionalism
181 constituted a distinctive, autonomous logic alongside those of the market, state, and corporate
182 managerialism.

183 **Data and Methods**

184 The program that was the subject of our inquiry was known as ‘Closing the Gap through Clinical
185 Communities’. Funded by the Health Foundation (a British charity that funds quality and safety
186 improvement initiatives), it included 11 projects, each charged with improving healthcare quality
187 and safety in areas where there were known deficiencies in current clinical practice. Each project
188 comprised a *core team* that led and managed the project, and a number of *participating teams*
189 that undertook the improvement activities in their own organizations. Significantly, the program
190 was explicitly based on notions of professionalism as a means of driving improvement, based on
191 the guiding principle that professionally led change would be more likely to mobilize clinical
192 staff into action than alternative approaches such as top-down, managerially imposed mandates.

193 This paper derives from an evaluation of this program, involving in-depth ethnographic
194 study of three projects that were purposively sampled from the program. These were:

- 195 • ILCOP—a project led by the Royal College of Physicians of London, which sought to
196 improve care of people diagnosed with lung cancer;
- 197 • AAA-QIP—a project led by the Vascular Society of Great Britain and Ireland, which sought
198 to improve the quality of multidisciplinary care pathways for patients with an aortic
199 abdominal aneurysm potentially requiring surgery;

- 200 • ENABLE—a project led by Kidney Research UK, a charity, which sought to improve the
201 care of people diagnosed with chronic kidney disease (CKD), a long-term condition managed
202 in primary care.

203 Case-study selection, both of these three projects and of participating teams in local NHS
204 organizations, was guided by theoretical and empirical literature, and aimed to include variation
205 in characteristics considered likely to influence the success or otherwise of this approach to
206 improvement. These included clinical setting, the 'quality gap' to be tackled, host organization,
207 professional leadership, and organizational context. Table 1 provides an overview of the projects
208 selected and key features; it also serves as a glossary of acronyms and specialist terminology for
209 readers unfamiliar with English healthcare.

210 [TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]

211 We undertook 63.5 days' ethnographic observation across the three case studies (ILCOP:
212 25.5; AAA-QIP: 21.5; ENABLE: 16.5), focusing on core teams' activities (internal meetings and
213 events convened by core teams to bring participating teams together) and participating teams'
214 implementation work in clinical and managerial settings. Additionally, we undertook five days'
215 observation of overarching program-level events. We conducted 126 in-depth interviews with
216 members of core and participating teams (45 each in ILCOP and AAA-QIP; 36 in ENABLE),
217 and 11 program-level actors. Interviewees included, among others, clinicians from all involved
218 professions, healthcare administrators, data managers, and commissioners (payers).

219 Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed *verbatim*. Fieldnotes from observations
220 were 'debriefed' within the team, with each member's fieldnotes discussed with other members
221 to document key events and begin to identify areas of analytic interest; debriefs were audio-
222 recorded and transcribed. Relevant project documents were also collected for analysis, including

223 plans, reports and training materials. Data analysis was based on the constant-comparative
224 method (Charmaz 2007). Analysis involved intensive engagement with the data for each of the
225 case studies to ensure that they were each understood in terms of their own context and meaning,
226 followed by comparison across cases to generate higher-order themes, and then further
227 interrogation to attempt to identify reasons for differences and similarities across cases. NVivo 8
228 software was used to assist in coding the data, locating recurrent themes, and grouping themes
229 together.

230 **Findings**

231 We present our findings in three sections. First, we highlight how the program grounded its
232 activities in the ideals of professionalism. Then, we discuss the tactics used by core teams to
233 secure the commitment and actions of their peers. Finally, we explore the responses of
234 professionals themselves.

235 *New Professionalism's Promise*

236 In interviews, those involved in directing and funding the Closing the Gap through Clinical
237 Communities program explicitly proposed that an approach founded on handing over leadership
238 and control to clinicians might help to make improvement happen where managerialism and
239 markets might fail:

240 "If you think of healthcare in terms of tribes, it's your own tribe wanting you to do
241 things, rather than some rival or alternative or non-tribal person." (Program manager 1)

242 "If clinicians aren't fully engaged and fully involved in improvement then it won't
243 happen, it can't be something that's driven from outside the professions." (Program
244 manager 2)

245 Across all three case-study projects, those involved—from core teams to participating teams—
246 were similarly enthusiastic about the potential for the professionally led approach espoused by
247 the program to achieve positive change. They identified the need for and importance of a new,
248 reimagined professionalism, arguing that initiatives led by professional insiders could confer
249 credibility and legitimacy that was lacking when the leadership came from outside the
250 profession. Two of the three projects were led by professional associations, which were
251 described by project participants as having evolved from club-like organizations of a previous
252 era into institutional structures that could both define and promote standards of practice and
253 conduct for their members and command authority and allegiance:

254 “[We] went through phases when colleges were supposed to be, you know, old boys’ club
255 and old physicians talking nonsense. That is changing. [...] I take a great influence from
256 the Royal College of Physicians so if the RCP says something, I take it seriously, as
257 compared to few other organizations within the NHS.” (Respiratory physician,
258 participating team, ILCOP)

259 Professionally led efforts to improve care were seen by leads and participants alike to have
260 particular value and salience in a healthcare context laden with other priorities (often driven by
261 central government and implemented through managerial edict) because of their ability to align
262 with professional instincts and ethics:

263 “GPs didn’t particularly want the QOF [payment-for-performance system; see Table 1] but
264 had it forced upon them. [Our project] doesn’t demand that all things are done, but,
265 interestingly, when you recruit people to a study like this and they get involved with it,
266 they seem to be self-motivated to do it.” (Core team member, ENABLE)

267 “I went to a study day on renal medicine. [ENABLE core team member] was one of the

268 main keynote speakers, presenting her work and presenting the work of ENABLE, and I
269 thought, 'That's just what we need', and got in touch with them. [...] It seemed to fit
270 exactly how I'd like to run it, in terms of the whole ENABLE project and the way of
271 working with patients, it seemed [...] exactly where primary care should be heading."
272 (Family physician, participating team, ENABLE)

273 Clinicians participating in the projects thus endorsed an approach to improving quality that
274 aligned with their own motivations towards improving patient care. Further, because the projects
275 were free to use methods of their own choosing and to work in areas that the participants
276 themselves recognized as most important, participants saw them as much less prone to 'gaming',
277 tick-box compliance, or perverse incentivization than managerial diktat or financial incentives:

278 "I thought this was a really good and useful new initiative that would pick up where peer
279 review left off. [National] peer review [see Table 1], I felt, had become very bureaucratic,
280 very process-driven and had lost sight of the point of peer review, which was to identify,
281 on a peer-to-peer basis, areas for improvement. And traditional peer review has now
282 become little more than a tick-box exercise and if you've got your paperwork in order,
283 that's fine." (Respiratory physician, participating team, ILCOP)

284 These views were not confined to physicians; nurses and others offered very similar responses,
285 affirming a 'new' kind of professionalism that appealed across, rather than solely within,
286 professional groups:

287 "It's allowed us to focus on how we're doing things, in what feels like quite a safe way.
288 Unthreatening, maybe. It's about the time and space to focus on what we're doing and to
289 try and find ways of improving it, because I'm not sure that without the project, we might
290 have necessarily looked quite so hard at what we could change." (Nurse specialist,

291 participating team, ILCOP)

292 “We are in a very privileged position I feel up here, because it was being driven by the
293 clinicians. They see the value in working together closely. I think they do it informally I
294 think and this just formalizes the process.” (Network coordinator, participating team,
295 AAA-QIP)

296 The projects thus enjoyed considerable legitimacy with the clinicians whose behavior they
297 sought to influence. Next, we explore the approaches core teams used in seeking to turn this
298 legitimacy into something that would motivate clinicians towards change.

299 Strategies for Securing Commitment: Seduction, Deliberation, Coercion, Enforcement

300 We identified four strategies used by core teams in various combinations over the course of the
301 program to attempt to translate good will into real influence: seduction, deliberation, coercion,
302 and enforcement. Some of these resembled traditional modes of influencing behavior within
303 professional collegia (e.g. Freidson and Rhea 1963); others went well beyond it.

304 1. Enacting the Collegium: Seduction, Deliberation and Coercion. What we term seductive
305 tactics were an especially important feature of early phases of the projects. Clearly operating
306 through collegial principles, they sought to appeal to professional values, sensibilities, and
307 identities, and were explicitly persuasive in character. They aimed to convince participants (and
308 would-be participants) that changes in norms, practices and behaviors were an important
309 professional responsibility, and that delivering on this duty would be likely not only to improve
310 outcomes for their patients but also bolster occupational status, offering a defense against
311 external attempts at control. Core teams offered demonstrations of inspiring leadership, provided
312 evidence of apparently poor practice and of the benefits of change, and emphasized how, if
313 clinicians did not seize the initiative themselves, it would be seized from them by those outside

314 the professions. In these ways, they sought to reinforce both the identity and the responsibilities
315 of the collegium of professionals, soothing misgivings by stressing how the changes sought had
316 been selected and endorsed within rather than without the professional communities, with some
317 effect on participants:

318 “‘There’s always this thing, some managerial person comes along and says, ‘You’ve got
319 to do X, Y, Z’, and everyone just puts their hackles up. Whereas if it’s coming from
320 within, I think it’s much better and [...] I don’t think anyone can argue with the principle
321 of it.” (Vascular surgeon, participating team, AAA-QIP)

322 But while seductive tactics often created the necessary receptivity among professionals, they did
323 not always do much more than this. Whatever its appeal in principle, relying on clinicians’
324 intrinsic motivations to translate legitimacy into motivation for change was prone to obstacles in
325 practice. Feeble or perfunctory efforts that stopped well short of what the core teams believed
326 was needed to secure improvement were reported, as were inertia and non-engagement.

327 “The people who have the bad results tend not to engage with this kind of thing anyway.
328 Which is perhaps why they have the bad results. And how you get them on board, I’m not
329 sure.” (Vascular surgeon, participating team, AAA-QIP)

330 “Some [participating teams’ plans] were just like, ‘Wow, that’s a fabulous project they’ve
331 thought up’, [...] and then others, really piddly [minor] things. [...] There was one about
332 changing a Friday afternoon meeting to a Monday morning. It’s kind of, ‘You don’t need a
333 project to help you do this. Really! Do you?’” (Core team member, ILCOP)

334 One important reason for these lackluster responses to the call to professional arms was that
335 seductive tactics failed to convince all possible participants that the actions proposed were
336 necessary or that they had a duty to engage. The changes being advocated by core teams did not

337 always align with the ways clinicians in the participating sites viewed their responsibilities and
338 accountabilities. Some interviewees noted 'nihilistic' colleagues:

339 "I think our consultant [attending physician] buddies are quite resistant to changing the
340 way we do things. [...] It's a rather insular and inward-looking environment and I think
341 it's perhaps tended to attract people who make themselves a comfortable life that suits
342 them and then they don't like changing because it doesn't suit them to change."

343 (Respiratory physician, participating team, ILCOP)

344 "No-one's disagreeing with the concept of trying to improve things and trying to reduce
345 mortality. The problem is when you get down to the fine detail and individuals, and no-
346 one really wants to change. [...] As in every aspect of medicine, there's an attitude, 'Well
347 I've done this for the last 10 years, why should I change now?' Well the answer to that is,
348 'Mortality isn't low enough', but no one ever thinks it's *their* problem." (Vascular

349 surgeon, participating team, AAA-QIP)

350 A second major reason for the faltering of efforts to secure participation and action through an
351 appeal to professional was the force exerted by competing institutional logics. Mandatory
352 expectations from other masters were often impossible for professionals to evade:

353 "Daily work has to be the priority; you can't tell the waiting room to go home. That is the
354 constant feature of [primary care], that you have morning and afternoon [clinics] and you
355 have visits and that's unrelenting. And so in our structure we haven't built in project time,
356 or adequate admin time, so whatever spare minutes you have got, you're constantly doing
357 letters and reports and stuff that has to be done." (GP [family physician], participating
358 team, ENABLE)

359 "We've been pushing but we haven't had any—well we've had a response to say that he's

360 been too busy. [...] I think that's the general trend really, it's a trend with GPs in that
361 there's so many competing demands on their time that this is quite difficult." (Core team
362 member, ENABLE)

363 Thus in a regime dominated by rather different logics, the seductive appeal of projects premised
364 on professionalism did not translate automatically into motivation to engage in the changes
365 proposed. Core teams were therefore obliged to look to other tactics.

366 A second important tactic was that of creating opportunities for *deliberation*, which
367 involved bringing participants together to talk through and take ownership of the changes. The
368 AAA-QIP project, which sought to change the behavior of vascular surgeons, a traditionally
369 highly autonomous group, used this tactic extensively. The project proposed a care pathway to
370 standardize what would happen to patients across multiple sites, but this pathway was supported
371 (of necessity) by an incomplete evidence base, and provoked controversy and complaint.
372 Deliberation was deliberately used to counter these challenges: the core team convened regional
373 meetings at which affected stakeholders from participating teams worked together across
374 occupational groups to adapt the care pathway to their region, on the assumption that once the
375 community took ownership of the design, the norming effects would then take care of the
376 laggards.

377 "It's a really good starting place because they will dismantle it and then put it back
378 together with what works for them and that's a really good place to be. Everybody has said
379 they're quite happy, because I think they did that to some degree. The paperwork came
380 from somewhere, we all had a look at it and thought, 'We didn't like that; that's a good
381 idea; have you seen this?'" (Service administrator, participating team, AAA-QIP)

382 The effects of these deliberative forums went beyond the processes of discussion and consensus-

383 making. They were also, crucially, concerned with the creation of a collectivity and with the
384 performance of professional identity.

385 “Me coming along and saying, ‘These are the standards, get on with it’: you’d say, ‘On
386 whose authority, mate?’ These are all intelligent people, they’re busy, they need to have a
387 reason to get involved, and the reason to get involved is that their peer group, that they
388 subscribe to, has said it’s important.” (Core team member, AAA-QIP)

389 “It’s about us being able to check what’s happened, so as a clinician in a busy team myself,
390 I know if I’ve got to go to a meeting in three months’ time and present what we’ve done,
391 I’m going to get something done to present: I don’t want to stand up and look a fool. And I
392 think that will prompt people to get stuff done. [...] They don’t want to turn up at meetings
393 or be highlighted as people who had this chance and didn’t use it.” (Core team member,
394 ILCOP)

395 Seduction and deliberation together appeared to go some way towards engendering
396 commitment from participating sites, but again, did not always appear to translate into personal
397 motivation or collective will among clinicians. Increasingly, therefore, core teams resorted to
398 more *coercive* tactics for instigating change, using collective-level influence and edict. Again,
399 however, these tactics retained the source of the imperative within the collegium itself. Two
400 projects began to augment the scope for peer pressure by altering the way they published figures
401 from audit databases; they moved away from confidential feedback to individual teams, towards
402 more open publication to allow teams to compare their own performance with that of others. The
403 core teams recognized that this was an approach that needed care, so as not to “single people out
404 too much” (Core team member, ILCOP). It thus involved “not so much naming and shaming; it’s
405 more about openness, it’s allowing people be to be subjected to peer pressure” (Core team

406 member, AAA-QIP). In AAA-QIP in particular, there seemed to be an acceptance of the
407 inevitability of this more open approach to audit, since surgical outcome measures were already
408 in the public domain in neighboring disciplines such as cardiac surgery. Core teams promoted—
409 and broadly gained acceptance for—the idea that open comparison of data and management of
410 performance *within* the profession was better than the alternative of an externally imposed
411 managerialist regime (Meyer and Rowan 1977) or ‘trial by media’:

412 “[Participating teams] are very mindful of the fact that our mortality is high and it needs to
413 be driven down. And I don’t think they’ll want to see themselves having been outliers on
414 any graph that’s published, because they don’t want a visit from *The Guardian* [a national
415 newspaper], they don’t want *The Guardian* coming saying, ‘Look, why are you an
416 outlier?’” (Vascular surgeon, participating team, AAA-QIP)

417 “It allows us to compare ourselves with other centers as well and I think it’s important
418 nationally, to have some standards and some way of recording actually that what we’re
419 doing is right.” (Vascular surgeon, participating team, AAA-QIP)

420 ILCOP and AAA-QIP thus increasingly embraced ‘harder tactics’ (Aveling et al. 2012) to
421 change behavior, explicitly seeking to place limits on *individual-level* autonomy to fulfill wider
422 societal accountabilities. Insofar as they maintained professional autonomy at the *collective level*,
423 *within* the collegium, and operated through modes such as peer influence and top-down pressure,
424 such tactics were by-and-large accepted by those subjected to them. Here, then, was evidence of
425 a ‘borrowing’ from other field-level logics (including managerialist tactics of measurement as a
426 means of control), but a retention of the imperative for change within the collegium itself.

427 2. Underwriting the Collegium: From Coercion to Enforcement. At times, however, the tactics
428 went further still: they went outside the collegium and sought to build synergies with *external*

429 mechanisms of change. In particular, the projects came to utilize alignments with wider aspects
430 of healthcare governance, including forces associated with other institutional logics. In
431 ENABLE, this alignment with external forces existed from the start: the project sought to
432 consolidate and build upon a set of quality-related requirements that had been implemented by
433 the state through financial incentivization (QOF—see Table 1). In ILCOP, the core team decided
434 over time to invoke the power of non-clinical service managers where the professional model
435 alone seemed insufficient to secure clinically led change:

436 “These [hospitals] can't just sign up for this project and not do anything about it, so, e-
437 mailing the trusts to tell them that we're going to be speaking to their CEOs, I think it was
438 a way of, you know when you're at school and they're like, 'We're going to talk to your
439 mum if you don't improve!’” (Core team member, ILCOP)

440 The improvements targeted by AAA-QIP, meanwhile, were aligned with wider pressures on
441 hospitals and practitioners: a move towards rationalization of vascular surgery prompted by
442 evidence of associations between volume and outcome; greater transparency and publication of
443 surgical outcome data; and the introduction of a population screening program which demanded
444 similar quality to those espoused by AAA-QIP. To a large extent, therefore, the project was
445 operating in a wider environment that already underwrote its aims:

446 “They all know the screening program is going to come in their area in the next six
447 months and therefore they're all keen to provide the same service of care, and [AAA-
448 QIP's] care pathway bundle will ensure the consistency of the service that's provided and
449 it will enable them to audit their practice as well.” (Service manager, participating team,
450 AAA-QIP)

451 Handled skillfully, alignments with broader shifts could motivate participants towards change

475 particular tend to focus an enormous amount on targets, meeting the targets, organizing
476 things they have to do like peer-review targets.” (Respiratory physician, participating team,
477 ILCOP)

478 Even in AAA-QIP, which as we noted above benefited from an apparent synergy with wider
479 moves towards rationalization of provision, the confluence between managerial and professional
480 agenda could sometimes undermine, rather than support, the project's efforts to engage
481 clinicians, for example where external targets were already being met or exceeded:

482 “[Hospital management] will only help to drive it if it becomes a hard target, that we’re
483 not doing this and we’ve got to be. [...] At the moment, you know, [the hospital managers
484 are] saying, ‘OK, the target is 3.5 [percent elective mortality]; our overall mortality is
485 2.7’, so we can’t even say, ‘Actually, we’re not performing and you need to do it’. I can’t
486 see management being too keen to invest.” (Vascular surgeon, participating team, AAA-
487 QIP)

488 Across cases there was a sense that while sometimes necessary, interactions with other
489 logics could constitute a dangerously double-edged sword. External, hierarchically imposed
490 targets could bolster projects’ own efforts at engaging clinicians, but could also provoke goal
491 displacement and even perverse incentives. Moreover, efforts to actively generate confluences
492 between professionalism and other logics sometimes had counterproductive consequences. In
493 ENABLE, for example, project leads sought to ensure alignment between the project’s objectives
494 around CKD management and wider, state-driven managerial mandates. In practice, however,
495 they found that this apparent synergy did not always work as anticipated:

496 “[GPs have] probably got all the money from QOF [for] CKD that they can get. Most of
497 them have—if you look at the register for example, you just have to make a register and

498 you get all the money [available through the QOF system]. It doesn't matter how many
499 people [are on the register]." (Core team member, ENABLE)

500 In consequence, family physicians (GPs) seemed reluctant to engage fully with ENABLE.
501 English primary care is a system that, as others have noted (McDonald et al. 2007), is
502 particularly 'crowded' with the extrinsic incentive mechanisms of market and state logics. The
503 powerful motivator of financial incentives, in which 'adequate' performance according to
504 imperfect metrics was rewarded, might be understood as crowding out the intrinsic motivation to
505 excel in service quality that ENABLE sought to encourage. But it would be a mistake to
506 construct the problem quite so simplistically: it was also true that some GPs were skeptical about
507 the extent to which it was appropriate to identify and manage CKD as a disease (rather than as a
508 normal part of human aging). For them, professionalism meant engaging critically with the
509 evidence, not simply accepting what they were being asked to do:

510 "There's an awful lot of skeptics, some doctors—there's a huge argument [...] about CKD,
511 and they didn't believe it at all." (Core team member, ENABLE)

512 Similarly, in the other two projects, there was resistance to the more hard-edged approaches
513 taken by the core teams. Some clinicians challenged the desirability of the changes being
514 proposed, suggesting for example that the evidence base for certain interventions was
515 inconclusive. For others, *collective*, clinical ownership of the improvements was not enough for
516 them to endorse managerialist-style monitoring and enforcement of changes at the expense of
517 *individual* professional autonomy. Again, the potential adverse consequences for patients were
518 invoked as part of these arguments:

519 "One should always be striving to improve but one of my concerns is that we're now
520 putting things into place [that are ...] taking the effort out of thinking for yourself. I think

521 that guidelines are just that, they're guidelines, and any individual patient's treatment
522 should be tailored for that individual patient and should be based on evidence and best
523 practice, but not dictated by evidence and best practice." (Vascular surgeon, participating
524 team, AAA-QIP)

525 Core teams were thus not always successful in reassuring participating clinicians that their tactics
526 remained true to the professional ethic: for some, a professionalism based on enforcement
527 seemed little more than a fig leaf for the managerial logic (cf. Evetts 2009).

528 Context was also important. AAA-QIP and ILCOP needed to secure the attention and
529 commitment of practitioners outside their traditional spheres of influence (defined largely by
530 their respective professional associations, the RCP and the Vascular Society), and here they
531 could not be confident of legitimacy and sway. The regional meetings convened by AAA-QIP,
532 for example, were better attended by surgeons (who were members of the Vascular Society) than
533 by radiologists, anesthetists (anesthesiologists) and nurses—who were not members, yet were
534 essential to the project's multidisciplinary vision.

535 "A vascular surgeon will be a surgeon who works only in vascular surgery. Anesthetists
536 tend to work in a number of areas: certainly in theatre, I can't think of anybody in the
537 country that just does vascular, just provides anesthetics for vascular-surgical procedures."

538 (Anesthetist, participating team, AAA-QIP)

539 ILCOP, similarly, found it easier to engage physicians, clinical nurse specialists and
540 multidisciplinary team coordinators than radiologists, surgeons, oncologists and pathologists:

541 "[Pathologists] tend to not site specialize, which I think is why we in lung cancer are
542 behind, because of pathology. [...] If you don't have expertise, you don't have any
543 ownership, and if you don't have any ownership you won't be involved, you don't feel

544 involved in service development and improvement because you're just doing general
545 service-level work." (Clinical oncologist, participating team, ILCOP)

546 Besides their positioning outside the scope of the intradisciplinary influence of professional
547 societies and collegial peer pressure, groups such as pathologists in ILCOP and anesthetists in
548 AAA-QIP also lacked a crucial sense of *ownership* of the issues around quality. Consequently,
549 their motivation to engage seemed considerably weaker: these were not 'their' problems to fix.

550 In the primary-care context in which ENABLE operated, meanwhile, GPs' generalism
551 militated against ownership of a problem that affected only a small proportion of their patients,
552 and made it challenging to define CKD management as a legitimate problem deserving attention:

553 "We are constantly being asked to do more, especially in terms of audits and QOF work.
554 We're also facing very significant cuts in our budget and going to commissioning
555 meetings the whole time, [...] that's taken up a huge amount of spare time. So this
556 important clinical project has regrettably gone under some of these more pressing
557 initiatives." (GP [family physician], participating team, ENABLE)

558 All three projects, then, faced challenges in motivating participants through the range of
559 strategies they adopted in environments characterized by dependencies on multiple occupational
560 groups whose interests and motives were not always aligned, and by strong influences on
561 practitioner behavior deriving from other logics. While the use of hard tactics based on coercion
562 and enforcement seemed a necessary corrective to the softness of seductive and deliberative
563 approaches, it also gave rise to resistance from clinicians who conceived of professionalism
564 differently. Clinicians' receptivity to the program thus varied according to the constraints of
565 different clinical contexts, the perceived legitimacy or otherwise of the tactics adopted within
566 those contexts, and the varying sway held with clinical groups whose engagement was also

567 influenced by wider interests, pressures and structures (see Table 2).

568 **Discussion**

569 Our analysis sheds empirical light on the scope of the promise that writers within and beyond the
570 health professions have claimed for a reinvigorated professionalism as a means of enthusing and
571 motivating clinicians to engage with healthcare improvement initiatives. Evident from our
572 findings is that faith in the potential of 'new professionalism' is not merely a preoccupation of
573 academic commentators or the elite: it is shared by frontline practitioners, many of whom saw in
574 clinically led and owned projects a moral authority and potential for influence that was not to be
575 found in other institutional logics that pervade modern healthcare systems. In principle,
576 practitioners on the ground welcomed the way in which these projects sought to re-empower
577 them as professionals. In practice, ensuring that good intentions translated into concrete action
578 was rarely straightforward. Romanticized appeals to professionalism were not enough; instead,
579 enrolling clinicians required the use of multiple tactics from seduction and deliberation to
580 coercion, sometimes aligning with other logics, sometimes bumping against them.

581 We show that professionalism retains a legitimacy and a particular influence in the current
582 healthcare field. As others have found (Goodrick and Reay 2011; Reay and Hinings 2005, 2009;
583 Scott et al. 2000), it is perhaps less potent than it once was, but it nevertheless holds influence.
584 The peer pressure that derives from the 'company of equals' (Freidson and Rhea 1963) of the
585 professional collegium remains an important means of securing commitment to making
586 improvement. To the extent that they dealt with socially cohesive occupational groups, the core
587 teams in our study found that they could supplement their efforts to lead change with the more
588 diffuse influence of peers, and in combination this gave rise to legitimacy and motivation for
589 change among participants. But such influence varied with different professions, and even

590 among specialties within the medical profession. The notion of a new professionalism held much
591 more allure for hospital physicians than those in primary care, due to the latter's more diffuse
592 clinical work and to their increased subordination to the logics of market and the state,
593 epitomized in the system of incentives to which primary-care physicians were exposed. Unlike
594 English hospital doctors, GPs work in small businesses, largely physician-owned. In hospitals,
595 the influence of logics appeared to be largely 'segmented' (Goodrick and Reay 2011)—that is,
596 logics that might otherwise be in tension with one another could coexist, albeit somewhat
597 restlessly. In primary care, we found what Harris and Holt (2013; cf. McDonald et al. 2013) term
598 'interweaving', with a single group affected by multiple logics and thus less able to resist their
599 dominance. The threads of some logics in this weave, however, were more evident than others.
600 Our findings thus suggest that where multiple institutional logics coexist, segmentation and
601 interweaving may have different consequences. While segmentation may mean that the influence
602 of subordinate logics is tangible (in the accounts of clinicians at least, and perhaps in their
603 behavior), the influence of subordinate logics may be much less easy to identify where logics are
604 interwoven into the practice of a single group.

605 More than this, however, our findings suggest something of a shift in the institutional logic
606 of professionalism in healthcare itself. Institutional logics are not static (Seo and Creed 2002);
607 they may have a protean character, mutating as they evolve. We see some evidence of this in the
608 range of tactics—from seduction to enforcement—adopted by the core teams. The danger, of
609 course, is that if the healthcare professional logic absorbs so much of the content of other logics
610 that it is no longer distinctive, then it can hardly offer much of a countervailing power. Here,
611 Thornton et al.'s (2012:165) tentative distinction between "assimilation" and "blending" of
612 institutional logics is helpful. Assimilation involves the incorporation of some of the components

613 of one logic into another, while “the core elements of the original logic prevail.” Blending is a
614 more fundamental change in which “institutional logics are transformed by combining
615 dimensions of diverse logics.” Thornton et al. (2012:166) acknowledge that “the difference
616 between blending and assimilation requires further theoretical elaboration”; our findings suggest
617 that the distinction is conceptually crucial, but empirically slippery.

618 Conceptually, there is no necessary contradiction in assimilation: as Kuhlmann (2006)
619 argues, for example, the medical profession's growing adoption of managerial technologies such
620 as performance management through data collection and comparison may be seen as reasserting
621 professional power, but also recasting professions as progressive rather than conservative forces.
622 Numerato, Salvatore, and Fattore (2012) develop this line of argument further, proposing that
623 professionals' interactions with managerial technologies should be understood less in terms of
624 necessary opposition between conflicting modes of organizing, and more in terms novel
625 articulations and hybrids. Our data provide support for the suggestion that rather than spelling
626 the end of professionalism, a shift towards greater accountability and management of
627 performance might be better understood as a professionalizing strategy (Green et al. 2011)—a
628 means of ensuring that professionalism retains its moral stature despite the challenges that face
629 it—or as “professionalism finally realized” (Light 2010:283), presenting a means for professions
630 to fulfill their side of their compact with society. But the legitimacy of such a shift with
631 professionals themselves is not, as we have seen, universal.

632 Viewed in this light, nevertheless, the ingenious complex of approaches to achieving
633 influence adopted in the three cases might be viewed as a sign of the potential vitality of
634 professionalism in the healthcare system: not so much a rebirth of professionalism *despite* the
635 power of state, corporate, and market logics, but rather its rebirth *through* constructive

636 interaction with those countervailing powers (Light 2010). Yet our findings suggest a need for
637 caution in such optimistic pronouncements, and highlight the overlap *in practice* between
638 assimilation and blending. While productive synergies could sometimes be achieved, interaction
639 with other logics could also have more ambiguous consequences for professionalism. In
640 particular, the logics of management and market could easily overwhelm the intrinsic motivation
641 and sense of professional pride and identity that the three projects sought to channel. Even
642 seemingly complementary managerial targets sometimes displaced professional goals, or soured
643 good feeling towards those goals, so that professionalism became tainted by association for some
644 participating clinicians. Building on Thornton et al.'s (2012) concepts, we suggest on this basis
645 that while it may be possible to incorporate components of other logics while retaining the
646 autonomy of an institutional logic (i.e. *assimilation* rather than *blending*), such changes may also
647 have consequences for the balance of competing logics in the wider field: a professional logic
648 that assimilates aspects of the corporate logic offers a weaker counterweight against other logics.

649 If professionalism's legitimacy varied within occupational groups, then its influence on
650 professional motivation was even patchier across them. The multidisciplinary nature of
651 contemporary healthcare delivery fractures the affinities clinicians feel not just into professional
652 groups (physicians, surgeons, nurses, and so on) but into specialties and subspecialties. Thus,
653 while ILCOP and AAA-QIP were able to capitalize on their associations with professional
654 societies, they could not always exert influence, pressure and opprobrium beyond their own
655 boundaries: the influence of institutional logics was segmented (Goodrick and Reay 2011) by
656 subspecialty, specialty and profession. In consequence, motivation and coordination across
657 professional groups—an important prerequisite for quality improvement—was hard to achieve.
658 Segmentation as well as interweaving can thus limit the scope of influence of an institutional

659 logic. Those seeking to draw on a logic of professionalism should attend not only to making
660 change 'clinically led', but also to the question of which clinicians are leading what.

661 Taken in the round, our findings suggest that a reinvigorated professionalism does hold
662 legitimacy that other logics do not, but that features of the logic of professionalism and the
663 composition of the wider institutional field are both crucial in mediating its influence. As Gray
664 (1997:47; cf. Martin et al. 2004) points out, professionalism is not an immanent property of
665 professions themselves so much as a product of "institutional settings that allow the fiduciary
666 ethic of health professionals to exist and flourish." Interaction with other logics may have a
667 capricious impact on the ability of appeals to professionalism to motivate, but so too can the
668 dynamics of professionalism itself: consensus on what it means to whom remains elusive and
669 consequential. What this perhaps suggests most of all is that those seeking to motivate clinicians
670 towards a given end should cherish professionalism, but recognize, first, that it must be nurtured
671 skilfully if its advantages are not to be undermined, and second, that relying solely on
672 exhortations to live up to a vaguely defined professionalism—particularly where other logics are
673 dominant—is perilous.

674 **In Conclusion: Redundant, Reinvigorated, or Reshaped Beyond Recognition?**

675 Finally, we return to the theorists who have considered the fate of professionalism in
676 contemporary environments where it appears increasingly marginalized. Here we offer three
677 contributions.

678 First, our findings suggest that in some fields at least, professionalism remains much more
679 than a disciplining discourse for bending professionals to managerial priorities. In Evetts' (2009)
680 terms, *occupational* professionalism retains its distinctiveness from *organizational*
681 professionalism. The program studied here was funded and run by nongovernmental

682 organizations and professional societies, and though their influence was variable, they were able
683 to promulgate a notion of professionalism that was clearly not synonymous with unquestioning
684 subservience to managerial priorities. Evetts (2006:137) asks: “why do states allow professions
685 to flourish?” One answer is that there remain things that professions can do better than states—
686 including making judgments about quality of care, and encouraging their members to act on
687 these appropriately. This is the line taken by recent policy in England (Secretary of State for
688 Health 2008), and our findings here suggest that it is to some extent realized in practice.

689 Second, our findings highlight the care needed in finding accommodations with other
690 logics if professions are to avoid, in Freidson's (2001) dystopian vision, losing their souls.
691 Alignments with managerialist and market logics may be productive (cf. Waring and Currie
692 2009), and, as Numerato et al. (2012) suggest, professional and managerial logics should not be
693 understood as necessarily opposed; ‘hybrid’ forms may combine the merits of both. To remain a
694 worthwhile influence, however, even hybridized forms must retain something of the soul of
695 professionalism; care must be taken to ensure that assimilation of components of other logics
696 does not slip into blending.

697 This brings us to our third and final theoretical contribution. Some argue that the logic of
698 professionalism is changing. Our findings confirm this: conflicts over the content of
699 professionalism, and over what it was to ‘behave professionally’, were evident throughout our
700 data. However, also clear from our findings was that to be influential, professionalism must be
701 underwritten by collective, institutionalized arrangements. Such an analysis challenges those
702 (e.g. Noordegraaf 2007:774,781) who argue that professionalism is a set of embodied
703 characteristics of an individual practitioner—“reflexive practice” or “artistic, intuitive processes
704 which some practitioners do bring to situations of uncertainty”—rather than something

705 determined, negotiated and operationalized collectively, through professional collegia. Our
706 findings highlight the importance of an institutionalized means of translating professionalism in
707 the abstract into something meaningful to professionals. If anything, the need for professional
708 institutions is greater now than ever, in a context in which individual professional behavior is
709 subject to so many competing influences. The authority of the professional collegium remains,
710 we suggest, central in distinguishing professionalism from other logics.

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Aim	Host	Professional leadership	Clinical setting	(Sub)professional groups affected	Approach and methodologies to improvement	Clinical, policy and organizational context
Improving Lung Cancer Outcomes Project (ILCOP)						
To improve quality of care and outcomes for patients with lung cancer	Royal College of Physicians of London	Respiratory physicians	Multi-disciplinary teams in hospitals	Respiratory physicians; nurse specialists; oncologists; surgeons; clinical pathologists; radiologists	Supporting teams to develop ideas for improvement in areas of deficient practice through: analysis and feedback of performance data from a national audit; reciprocal face-to-face peer review processes; development of quality-improvement plans; national meetings	Cancer care dominated by top-down national directives, though lung seen as a 'Cinderella' cancer, relatively neglected. National Cancer Action Team (NCAT) runs audit-based peer review and performance management (Burnett et al. 2007)
Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm Quality Improvement Project (AAA-QIP)						
To reduce peri-operative mortality in elective surgery for abdominal aortic aneurysm	Vascular Society of Great Britain and Ireland	Vascular surgeons	Multi-disciplinary teams predominantly in hospitals	Vascular surgeons; anesthetists; interventional radiologists; nurse specialists	Supporting the implementation of an evidence- / consensus-based care pathway through: regional meetings to discuss, adapt, and reach consensus on proposed pathways; regional leads working with participating hospitals to implement pathways; increasing data input into a national audit database; analysis and feedback of performance data	Ongoing rationalization of surgery due to (contested) association between volume of cases and outcomes (Earnshaw and Hamilton 2007); provision being reviewed by commissioners (regional purchasers of care for a population) accordingly; new screening program also supports rationalization. Other surgical specialties subject to publication of outcome data
ENABLE-Chronic Kidney Disease (ENABLE)						
To achieve better quality of care and quality of life for chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients.	Kidney Research UK	Nurses; renal physicians	General practices (family physicians' offices)	General practitioners (family physicians) (GPs); primary care nurses; pharmacists	Supporting the implementation of evidence- / consensus-based care bundles to improve the management of CKD, with a particular focus on indicators included in the Quality and Outcomes Framework (QOF), a payment-for-performance scheme for GPs, through: training in disease management for staff; self-management training for patients	Primary care practice increasingly dominated by incentives of QOF system (McDonald et al. 2007).

Table 1: Summary of the three cases. Acronyms and specialist terminology pertaining to the English system are emboldened.

	Seduction	Deliberation	Coercion	Enforcement	Consequences for motivating clinicians
	<i>Appeals to professionalism as a desirable ideal; displays of inspiring leadership; provision of information</i>	<i>Creating forums for clinicians to discuss among themselves the changes proposed and how they might be realized</i>	<i>Use of collective-level influence within the collegium to dictate proper practice, e.g. by publishing internal league tables</i>	<i>Intentional alignment with other institutional logics to prompt change, e.g. government targets and incentive regimes</i>	
ILCOP	Across all three cases: Grounding of proposed changes in appeals to professional values, and with reference to the evidence base; provision of information on current performance nationally and of participating team (in confidence); displays of professional leadership; highlighting of the risks of failing to change	Reciprocal peer review meetings between participating teams; national meetings for leads to report progress and learn from others	Presentation of data comparing outcomes, standards of data entry and process data across participating teams	Few alignment opportunities; letters to senior executives in participating teams' host organizations to demand action; improvements could align with NCAT peer review	Appeals had legitimacy for clinicians in general, but acted as a motivating force only if they aligned with other logics (e.g. cancer targets). Resource demands achieved more legitimacy with administrators if also identified by NCAT reviews More influence achieved with core groups (e.g. respiratory physicians) than peripheral groups (e.g. pathologists)
AAA-QIP		Regional forums for all clinical groups to discuss changes and how they might be implemented locally	Presentation of data comparing outcomes, standards of data entry and process data across participating teams	Rationalization of service provision among hospitals and introduction of screening program drive introduction of changes similar to those advocated by AAA-QIP	Apparent synergy between state and professional logics, with both demanding very similar improvements—but where managerial requirements already met, motivation among clinicians and administrators harder to achieve More influence achieved with core groups (vascular surgeons) than peripheral groups (e.g. anesthesiologists)
ENABLE		Training sessions for staff in each team, which offered a space for discussion of how changes might be implemented locally	Conference calls involving more than one participating team to compare progress	Alignment with state-mandated QOF incentives around CKD management for one of the intended changes	Motivation more evident where alignment with state logic achieved (i.e. in relation to existing incentive structures) Professionalism has limited legitimacy in itself, since generalist orientation of GPs militates against interest in a clinical issue facing only a small minority of their patients, and whose medical significance is questioned by some

Table 2: The enactment of professionalism across the three cases, and its legitimacy and motivational power for clinicians.

Author Biosketches

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