

1
2
3
4
5 **MODELLING THE MICROFOUNDATIONS OF THE AUDIT SOCIETY:**
6 **ORGANIZATIONS AND THE LOGIC OF THE AUDIT TRAIL**
7
8
9
10

11
12 Michael Power

13
14 London School of Economics and Political Science, UK

15
16 m.k.power@lse.ac.uk
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

38
39 This is a single author paper only in name. I would especially like to thank editor Joep
40 Cornelissen for his expert guidance, care and patience. In addition, I am indebted to his three
41 anonymous reviewers. Many audiences have commented on previous manifestations of the
42 ideas in this paper. In particular, I thank Peter Armstrong, Wai Fong Chua, David Cooper,
43 Marie Laure Djelic, Wendy Espeland, Roger Friedland, Martin Giraudeau, Ann Langley,
44 Michael Lounsbury, Donald MacKenzie, Afshin Mehrpouya, Andrea Mennicken, Anette
45 Mikes, Peter Miller, Yuval Millo, Julia Morley, Danielle Morin, Jan Mouritsen, Tommaso
46 Palermo, Brian Pentland, Sigrid Quack, Paolo Quattrone, John Roberts, Keith Robson,
47 Kerstin Sahlin, Hendrick Vollmer, Stephen Walker, and Steve Woolgar.
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

We live in an “audit society” in which performance accounting and auditing requirements continue to expand, despite widespread criticism by academics and practitioners alike.

Macro-institutional theories are good at explaining why organizations adopt practices whose efficacy is dubious by appealing to the power of their legitimizing and symbolic properties.

Yet these theories are less able to explain how adoption happens and why practices of accounting and auditing persist and amplify, despite being objects of critique. This article addresses this puzzle by supplementing macroinstitutional explanations of the audit society with a microfoundational analysis grounded in a process model. The model theorises the humble notion of the audit trail as a process which not only produces auditable accounts but is also a logic which is formative of organizational actors’ dispositions to reproduce those accounts. The analysis contributes to debates about organizational micro-processes and microfoundations by proposing that this logic of the audit trail is strongly performative of the conditions of its own reproduction and expansion. In explaining the persistence and amplification of the audit society, the model also shows how accounting and auditing are not inherently pathological and value-subverting but may be value-enhancing.

Key words: accounting, audit society, audit trail, disposition, facticity, institutional logic, meta-logic, performativity, Selznick, traceability

1
2
3 Organizations are permeated by a wide variety of performance accounting and
4 auditing practices (Bromley & Powell, 2012). Indeed, it has been argued that we live in an
5 “audit society” in which organizations are increasingly constituted to be auditable entities
6 (Power, 1997). In addition to traditional financial accounts, organizations now provide
7 reports on their performance regarding diversity, sustainability, quality, security, data quality,
8 customer satisfaction, employee engagement and many other values besides. The scope of
9 this performance accounting is continuously evolving and seems to have no limit. For
10 example, in addition to reporting on research and teaching quality, UK universities have
11 recently been required to report on the social and economic impact of their research outside
12 of the academy.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 The subverting effects of this explosion of accounting and auditing for the mission
28 and values of organizations have been extensively documented, and are readily familiar to
29 organization theorists: goal and attention displacement; elevation of process over ends;
30 increased bureaucracy in the name of efficiency; declining trust in professional judgement;
31 and crises of professional purpose (Bevan & Hood, 2006; Cooper, 2001; Munro, 2004; Shore
32 & Wright, 2015; Strathern, 1997; 2000a; 2000b). Yet, despite these extensive critiques by
33 both academics and practitioners, the seemingly dysfunctional and value-subverting practices
34 of accounting and auditing persist and amplify.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 Accounting scholars attribute the expanded organizational and societal significance of
47 accounting and auditing practices to the central role they play in the realisation of
48 “neoliberal” ideals of governance, control and accountability (Miller & Rose, 1990; Miller &
49 Power, 2013). In a similar vein, macroinstitutional theories explain the adoption of
50 ineffective and value-threatening practices in terms of their legitimising and symbolic power
51 (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Thus, while accounting and auditing practices are manifestly
52 adopted by organizations because they are compelled to so by regulation, they are also
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 culturally valued embodiments of myths of rational organizational control, encompassing
4 notions of transparency, accountability, and the power of the market (Meyer, 1986;
5 Dirsmith, 1986; Christensen & Cornelissen, 2015).

6
7
8
9
10
11 Yet, despite the generally compelling nature of these explanations for the adoption of
12 accounting and auditing practices, they are less satisfactory, if not silent, on the question of
13 *how* audit society effects unfold at the organization level. Indeed, if these changes are as
14 negative in their impacts as critics suggest, why do they nevertheless amplify, self-perpetuate
15 and sustain the rational myth status which drove adoption in the first place? How, for
16 example, is the audit society progressively built up “from below” as organizations internalise
17 and normalise requirements for audit and evaluation, and make themselves into “audit-ready”
18 organizations? And how as part of this process do organizational actors become formed into
19 “auditable” subjects who come to welcome and expand accounting and audit beyond the
20 scope of formally mandated requirements? These questions cannot be answered at the level
21 of macro-cultural myths and regulatory pressures alone. They demand supplementation by a
22 microfoundational analysis of the audit society and its underlying processes (Thornton,
23 Ocasio & Lounsbury, 2012 chapter 7; Powell & Rerup, 2017; Harmon, Haack & Roulet, in
24 press).

25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44 This article delivers this microfoundational analysis in the shape of a formative model
45 of the accounting production process - the “audit trail”. Despite an extensive body of
46 scholarship on accounting and its organizational and societal effects, the mundane
47 mechanism of the audit trail and its effects remains largely unstudied. In what follows it is
48 modelled as a logic of organizing which operationalises and realises different performance
49 values. Via repeated enactment, this logic of the audit trail is strongly performative
50 (MacKenzie, 2006: 17) of the conditions of its persistence and amplification by forming the
51 disposition of organizational actors to reproduce, refine and expand it in new settings.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Indeed, the model shows how, despite being aware of the reductive and value-distorting
4 impact of the performance accounts they must produce, organizational actors nevertheless
5 come to make sense of them via the audit trail process as taken-for-granted representations of
6 the facts of performance.
7
8
9
10
11
12

13 While the formation of subjectivities and the naturalisation of social facts are well-
14 known themes in sociological accounting (Miller & Power, 2013), anthropology (Douglas,
15 1986) and general sociology (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), the contribution of the proposed
16 model of the audit trail is to integrate these constructs in the theorization of a formative
17 process, thereby grounding the microfoundations of the audit society. The model explains
18 not only how audit trails and the accounts they produce are adopted and embed themselves in
19 organizational routines despite critiques of their lack of efficacy, but also why they expand
20 and amplify within and across different specific performance accounts and organizations.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 A further unexpected contribution of modelling the microfoundations of the audit
33 society is a more general reading of means-end decoupling (Bromley & Powell, 2012; Wijen,
34 2014; 2015; Dick, 2015) in which values are not just “precarious” (Selznick, 1957: 119) and
35 at risk from proceduralization, as the many critics of the audit society argue. Rather, via the
36 logic of the audit trail, values can also acquire organizational visibility, operability, and a
37 facticity that they would otherwise lack. In short, implicit in the model is a general
38 performative theory of how values can acquire organizational facticity via accounting. This
39 insight requires us to recast the well-documented pathologies of the audit society in terms of
40 trade-offs between the risks and benefits of accounting for values.
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

53 The remainder of this article is structured as follows. The next section synthesises
54 insights from performative studies of accounting and auditing and themes in institutional
55 theory. This synthesis converges on the problem of audit society microfoundations and leads
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 to the explication of the audit trail as a widely diffused logic. This logic is then explicitly
4 modelled as a strongly performative process in which the disposition to reproduce that logic
5 and accounting facticity are co-formed over time. The argument is distilled into a core
6 proposition, the contingent dynamics of which are then considered in more depth; focusing
7 on the organizational conditions under which the performativity of audit trails might be
8 stronger or weaker. Finally, the article engages with Selznick's thought to explore how the
9 microfoundations of the audit society reveal a process which is not inherently pathological
10 before developing some of the wider implications and limitations of the theory.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 **ACCOUNTING PERFORMATIVITY, INSTITUTIONALISM AND AUDIT** 26 27 **SOCIETY** 28 29

30 Performative theorizations of accounting pre-date debates about performativity in
31 management and organization studies (Burchell, Clubb, Hopwood, Hughes & Nahapiet,
32 1980: 17; Hines, 1988; Miller & Power, 2013; Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth,
33 2016). In the 1980s, the recognition that accounting constitutes the organizational context of
34 its own operations established an agenda in accounting research which transcended the
35 predominant analysis of behavioural reactions to accounting information (Miller & Power,
36 2013). It rapidly became axiomatic that accounting does not just "represent" the pre-given
37 facts of organizational performance, but is agentic in its own right. It constructs the reality or
38 "facticity" of performance that organizational actors come to take for granted (Chapman,
39 Cooper & Miller, 2009; Dent, 1991; Mazmanian & Beckman, 2018).
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 It is also argued that the accounting process performs "governable persons" in the
55 sense of organizational agents who orient themselves to the requirements of accounting and
56 who internalize the categories used to describe them (Miller & O'Leary, 1987; Miller, 1992).
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Accounting is thereby understood to be a calculative technology (Foucault, 1977; Miller,
4 1992; Townley, 1993) whose power is not hierarchical and manifestly coercive, but
5 progressively constitutes and “makes up” subjects and their identities as performance-
6 accountable actors (Hacking, 2002).
7
8
9
10
11

12
13 Furthermore, accounting is deeply implicated in the “economization” of organizations
14 i.e., in performing them as rational economic entities (Mennicken & Espeland, in press). For
15 example, anticipating explicit formulations of performativity theory by many years,
16 Hopwood argued that the cost of patient care was a “conceptual idea promoted by health
17 economists but, without accounting, it could not become operational as an “organizational
18 fact” (1992:141). Classical articulations of performativity theory (Callon, 1998; MacKenzie,
19 Muniesa & Siu, 2007) also recognise how calculative practices like accounting operationalise
20 economic models and theories, thus enabling economics to perform and constitute markets.
21 However, accounting is not simply an enabling instrument through which economic theory is
22 performative. Fundamental notions of “income” and “cost” have evolved from theoretical
23 and metaphorical exchanges between accounting practices and economic theories (Klamer &
24 McCloskey, 1992), and accounting is itself a theoretically-infused practice. It is not a
25 scientific theory with predictive ambitions, although there has been an ambition to predict
26 financial failure on the basis of accounting numbers (Kurunmäki & Miller, 2013). Rather,
27 accounting is able to be “practical” precisely because it is also theoretical in the sense of
28 abstracting, reducing and commensurating complex economic and other phenomena into
29 organizing typologies, like the balance sheet (Espeland & Stevens, 1988; Astley & Zammuto,
30 1992: 455; Strang & Meyer, 1993).
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 Accounting and economics have a broad cultural fit and mutually authorising
56 relationship with one another (Hopwood, 1992; Vollmer, Mennicken & Preda, 2009).
57 Moreover, this conceptual affinity with financial forms of accounting explains why economic
58
59
60

1
2
3 theories may be more performatively successful than others (Marti & Gond, 2018), even if
4 they are unsuccessful in terms of societally-valued outcomes (Zuckerman, 2010). At its
5 strongest, the performativity of accounting is analogous to that of a self-fulfilling theory
6 (Barnes, 1983; MacKenzie, 2006) which is “ontologically performative” (Butler, 2010: 147;
7 1999), i.e., its repeated enactment or “citation” brings about and sustains the organizational
8 conditions for the continued production of its own kind of “accounting truth” about
9 performance (Hines, 1988; Miller & Power, 2013). In short, accounting is performative of its
10 own “facticity”, in the sense that organizational actors accumulate a disposition to act “as if”
11 its economic representations are “about” an independently existing world.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 However, this accounting-produced truth is also bounded by a “logic of auditability”
26 (Power, 1996). Accounting and auditing practices perform organizations as economic
27 entities, but also as auditable ones. Furthermore, practices of auditing and evaluation do not
28 simply check and evaluate the independently constituted performance of organizations and
29 individuals. Instead, organizations and their members are changed, or change themselves, in
30 order to be ready for audit, to be “made auditable”. Indeed, it will be argued that this process
31 of organizational structuring, by which organizations create control systems and reporting
32 structures in order to be amenable to observation, inspection, and evaluation, is where the
33 generative engine of the “audit society” is to be found.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 **The Audit Society**

47
48

49 The concept of the “audit society” (Power, 1997) refers imprecisely to the expansion
50 of new forms of accounting and performance measurement in public sector management in
51 the United Kingdom and elsewhere. The immediate cause of this expansion is attributed to a
52 bundle of “animating myths”, namely a neoliberal political consensus in the early 1980s and
53 its heightened emphasis on values of transparency, efficiency, responsibility, auditability and
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 accountability, which characterised the reform vectors of a so-called “new public
4 management” ((Bromley & Powell, 2012: 498; Hood, 1995). Accounting and audit grew in
5 cultural and organizational significance as the rational means by which this bundle of myths
6 could be operationalised (Meyer, 1986; Miller & Rose, 1990; Power, 1997: 96; Bromley &
7 Sharkey, 2017). This in turn created opportunities for powerful actors, like professional
8 service firms, to codify and expand the abstract building blocks of auditing beyond their
9 context of origin to form new advisory services (Meyer & Rowan, 1977: 347; Suddaby,
10 Cooper & Greenwood, 2007).

21
22 There is no shortage of criticism of audit society effects, such as goal-displacement
23 and the “gaming” of new performance accounts and related metrics (Hood, 1995; Bevan &
24 Hood, 2006). It is also argued that “intrinsic” motivation has been displaced or damaged by
25 the introduction of “extrinsic” incentives systems in which the “language of indicators takes
26 over the language of service” (Strathern, 2000b, 314). These critiques find theoretical
27 support in behavioural studies which show how excessive control may “crowd out” good
28 motives to the extent of inducing organizational actors to act self-interestedly, and even
29 deviantly (Frey & Jegen, 2001; Falk & Kosfeld, 2006). Selznick’s (1957) diagnosis of value-
30 subversion, by which technical routines acquire excessive moral authority in organizations,
31 anticipates these critiques by several decades: “The tendency to emphasize methods rather
32 than goals is an important source of disorientation in all organizations” (Selznick, 1957: 12).
33 However, few critiques of audit society effects have drawn on Selznick’s insights to explain
34 and theorize its persistence and self-reproducing capacity (Power, 1997:144).

51
52 Audit society processes are resilient to these many criticisms because they draw upon
53 the bundle of myths noted above, not least that of transparency (Christensen & Cornelissen,
54 2015). Transparency is known to be paradoxical (Tsoukas, 1997; Roberts, 2018) and many
55 of the audit society practices invoked in its name in fact lead to opacity and specialist control
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (Strathern, 2000b). However, as Christensen and Cornelissen (2015) argue, the myth of
4
5 transparency remains immune to these specific manifestations and their problems. It is
6
7 “somehow sheltered from critique” and its lack of specificity is part of its mythical and moral
8
9 power. Thus, even if organizational actors want to resist the audit society and its value-
10
11 subverting, reductive accounts of performance, they confront the cultural power of this myth
12
13 of transparency as it is manifest in specific accounting representations.
14
15

16
17 Yet, despite the influence of this audit society thesis as stated, it lacks an explicit
18
19 model of its generative microprocesses. The aforementioned studies of the performativity of
20
21 accounting and auditability refer to these processes but are themselves insufficiently precise
22
23 about their dynamics. Furthermore, macro-level explanations of the audit society in general
24
25 “rational myth” terms, such as transparency and neoliberalism, are inevitably limited in their
26
27 explanatory power. They may explain why the adoption of accounting and auditing practices
28
29 happens but not how it happens and why such practices seem to have “practice shifting
30
31 performativity” (Marti & Gond, 2018). For this we need to develop a microfoundational
32
33 model based on a deeper engagement with institutional theory.
34
35
36
37
38

39 **Towards the Microfoundations of the Audit Society**

40
41

42 The artificial duality between old and new institutionalisation (DiMaggio & Powell,
43
44 1991: 13) has given way to a consensus that macroinstitutional explanations of change can
45
46 and must be supplemented by arguments at the micro-level, where practices are enacted by
47
48 organizational actors with varying degrees of mindfulness (Pentland, 1993; Selznick, 1996;
49
50 Greenwood & Hinings, 1996; Hirsch & Lounsbury, 1997; Thornton et al., 2012; Barney &
51
52 Felin, 2013). Specifically, in reaction to the perceived abstractionism and process-
53
54 insensitivity of macro-institutional approaches, there has been a turn towards the role of
55
56 agency and discourse in creating, maintaining, resisting or even destroying institutions
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (Phillips, Lawrence & Hardy, 2004; Lawrence, Suddaby & Leca, 2009; Thornton, et al.,
4
5 2012). Powell and Rerup argue further that micro-level explanations provide the necessary
6
7 “depth and texture to accounts of macro-level events and relationships” (2017:312). They
8
9 point to practice theory, ethnomethodology, and routines theory as resources and reminders
10
11 that habitual activity involves sustained mindful reflection and effort (Felin, Foss, Heimeriks
12
13 & Madsen, 2012). In essence, a more process-sensitive theory of reality is needed in place of
14
15 the macro-neoinstitutionalist emphasis on “cloned” organizations (Abbott, 1995: 879).
16
17
18
19

20 Although approaches to, and concepts of, microfoundations are varied (Felin, Foss &
21
22 Ployhart, 2015; Barney & Felin, 2013) they commonly shift the level of analysis from a
23
24 Durkheimian bias to macro-stability towards an understanding of micro-level practices and
25
26 variation (Lounsbury, 2008). Furthermore, they emphasise institutional complexity and
27
28 pluralism in which human agents navigate, and account for, competing values and logics
29
30 (Thornton, Jones & Kury, 2005; Thornton et al., 2012; Greenwood et al., 2011). In short, it
31
32 has become paradigmatic for institutional theory that organizational agents are not slaves to
33
34 specific macro-cultural myths of rational practice and governance but actively generate,
35
36 maintain and resist such myths as they operate in value-plural landscapes in different fields
37
38 (Kraatz & Block, 2008).
39
40
41
42

43 This wave of microfoundationalist reactions to the macro-cognitive “cloning”
44
45 institutionalism of scripts and habit (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991) has also generated a revival
46
47 of interest in values, and particularly in the work of Phillip Selznick and his focus on
48
49 processes of “value change and subversion” (Kraatz & Block, 2008; Kraatz et al., 2010:
50
51 1522; Kraatz & Flores, 2015). Indeed, as noted above, Selznick identifies and anticipates the
52
53 symptoms of the audit society at the organizational level where “achievement or survival is
54
55 confounded with organizational success” (1957:27). He observes that organizations can fail
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Specifically, when organizations make seemingly innocuous operational changes, such as
4
5 new performance accounting requirements, they necessarily place values at risk of crowding-
6
7 out by process, unless there is corresponding vigilance and intervention by organizational
8
9 elites (Besharov & Khurana, 2015). Three broad value-subverting outcomes of these
10
11 operational changes characterise the audit society (cf. Kraatz et al., 2010). First, as
12
13 accounting and accountants become more powerful, “internal elites”, such as professional
14
15 service providers, lose their autonomy and licence to define the values and performance of
16
17 the organization. Second, and relatedly, “power shifts to the operative system” in the form of
18
19 the performance accounting infrastructure and its logic. And third, “market values penetrate
20
21 the organization” via the performative power of accounting as discussed above.
22
23
24
25
26

27 In these circumstances of value-subversion, where we would normally expect
28
29 organizational resistance, such as decoupling, the very opposite is observed (Espeland &
30
31 Sauder, 2007; Sauder & Espeland, 2009; Kraatz et al., 2010). Operational practices, like
32
33 accounting and auditing, are introduced to represent performance and to change decision-
34
35 making and behaviour on the basis of those representations. Yet they also become
36
37 institutionalized practices which are “prized for their own sake” (Selznick, 1957: 17) and
38
39 underwrite the professional autonomy of their proponents. Bromley and Powell (2012: 498)
40
41 theorize this organizational outcome as “means-ends decoupling”, defined as the symbolic
42
43 implementation of means like accounting which follow their own logic. They argue that this
44
45 kind of decoupling is on the rise and is increasingly evident in situations where there are
46
47 uncertain relations between means, like accounting, and imprecise ends, such as diversity,
48
49 respect or environmental sustainability. Like scholars of bureaucracy from Weber onwards,
50
51 including Selznick and his followers, Bromley and Powell suggest that value subversion is
52
53 hard to prevent via classical “policy-practice” decoupling (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Zajac &
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Westphal, 2004) because technical means develop their own rationales. To use older
4
5 sociological language - procedural rationality eclipses substantive rationality.
6
7

8
9 The audit society is a form of means-end decoupling on a macro-scale and is
10
11 characterised by an “increasing emphasis on monitoring and tracking organizational
12
13 activities.” (Bromley & Powell, 2012: 484). This is not only the expansion of traditional
14
15 financial accounting and auditing but, as organizations are required to process expanded
16
17 claims on performance embodying a wider array of societal values, it is also an expansion of
18
19 the accounting and monitoring for many non-economic values, such as social impact. This
20
21 world of multiple accountabilities and performance accounts is one in which data collection
22
23 and measurement rapidly become ends in themselves, exacerbated by the demands of audit
24
25 and regulation (Bromley & Powell, 2012: 501), and where new forms of accounting and
26
27 metrics are constantly being sought and refined to provide assurance to potentially critical
28
29 audiences.
30
31
32

33
34 Yet, while the categories of coupling and decoupling have played a major role in
35
36 orienting organizational studies (Boxenbaum & Jonsson, 2017), we need to open the “black
37
38 box” (Powell & Rerup, 2017) of these concepts to reveal more of the audit society micro-
39
40 processes that give rise to, and seem to stabilise as, means-end decoupling (Dick, 2015). Just
41
42 as macroinstitutional theories emphasize how organizations are strongly influenced by
43
44 cultural forces, so micro-level analysis can reveal how organizational actors “pull” down and
45
46 adapt (Ansari, Fiss & Zajac, 2010) institutionalized scripts of good accounting and auditing
47
48 as standard operating procedures (Pentland, 1993; Thornton et al., 2012: 85). And while
49
50 “means-end decoupling” is a helpful sensitising concept for understanding how new
51
52 accounting and auditing practices can generate their own autonomous logic and subvert
53
54 values in Selznick’s sense, it is insufficiently granular for modelling the process by which
55
56 organizational actors are “imprinted” (Barney & Felin, 2013; Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013;
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Cardinale, 2018; Harmon, et al., in press) with dispositions to reproduce these value-
4
5 subverting practices. Developing this micro-level theory in the form of a model of how the
6
7 audit society sustains itself is the task of the remainder of this article.
8
9

10
11 In summary, the audit society can be theorised as systemic means-ends decoupling
12
13 arising from macro-institutional adoption of auditing and accounting practices. Yet how
14
15 adoption happens and why it reproduces itself and makes “organizations auditable” requires a
16
17 more fine-grained, micro-processual analysis. We find this analysis and a more compelling
18
19 theory of the persistence of audit society effects, despite widespread critique, at the level of
20
21 the performative dynamics of the “audit trail”. In fact, it will be argued that the audit society
22
23 is built and stabilised from below via the repeated enactment of the audit trail process. And
24
25 in theorising how the audit society sustains itself at this microfoundational level, we also find
26
27 a process which explains why the amplification and elaboration of seemingly value-
28
29 subverting practices occur. Before we get to this, we need to understand the construct of the
30
31 audit trail more fully.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 **THE AUDIT TRAIL AS “META-LOGIC”**

41
42 Abstract practice theorizations (Strang & Meyer, 1993) of audit trails are plentiful. For
43
44 example, an audit trail has been defined online by a professional training organization as a:

45
46
47
48 “the documented *flow* of a transaction. It is used to investigate how a *source*
49 document was *translated* into an account entry, and from there was inserted into the
50 financial statements of an entity. The audit trail can be used in reverse, to track
51 backwards from a financial statement line item to the originating source document. A
52 well-run accounting system should have a clear audit trail for all transactions. An
53 audit trail is used by both external and internal auditors to *trace* transactions through
54 an accounting system, as well as by the accounting staff to track down errors and the
55 causes of variances in the financial statements.” (Emphases added) (Accounting
56 Tools, 2018)
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Within this rich definition, the audit trail is multifaceted (Kraatz, Ventresca & Deng, 2010:
4 1525) and variable in its ontology. First, it is *material* and textual (Phillips et al., 2004)
5
6 consisting of documents, records and traces which are the created evidentiary residues of
7
8 transactions. Second, it is *ideational*. An audit trail operationalizes the cultural ideal of
9
10 transparency as *traceability* (Power, in press). Third, the audit trail is *processual*. The
11
12 definition references both a process for *producing* accounts of performance by the
13
14 aggregation of primary data, the progressive abstraction and commensuration of the
15
16 chronological stream of organizational transactions, and also a process by which these
17
18 accounts can be *checked* by auditors. The remainder of this article focuses primarily on this
19
20 processual ontology of the audit trail and expands it to encompass the formation of actor
21
22 dispositions and the production of accounting facticity.
23
24
25
26
27
28

29
30 Empirically, audit trails are not restricted to financial bookkeeping and are evident in
31
32 many different settings where there are institutional pressures to account for different aspects
33
34 of organizational performance (Phillips et al., 2004: 642; Bromley & Powell, 2012; Marquis,
35
36 Toffel & Zhou, 2016). For example, audit trails are central to computer security practice and
37
38 enable the detection of unauthorised usage, fraudulent transactions, and other deviant actions
39
40 which leave traces in the system (e.g. Merconi, 2003). And they are increasingly prominent
41
42 in settings where the origins, quality and sustainability of foodstuffs have become important
43
44 to consumers, e.g., GM crops (Lezaun, 2006) or palm oil (Rival, Montet & Pioch, 2016). In
45
46 the seafood industry, the traceability enabled by audit trails is valued for its own sake and
47
48 inter-operative digital technologies, such as blockchain, are supporting the creation of precise
49
50 point of harvest data (WWF, 2015; Lewis & Boyle, 2017). Thus, audit trails can be trans-
51
52 organizational and trans-national when the unit of performance accounting is an entire supply
53
54 chain.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 These and other empirical instances of audit trails can be understood as specific *tokens* of
4 an underlying *type* or process logic for the production of organizational performance
5 accounts. This logic consists of two sequential sub-processes as follows:
6
7

10 **The Production of “Primary Traces” of Performance (A).**

11
12
13 The “atomic facts” of performance are created by organizational actors utilizing a variety of
14 instruments and artefacts, such as account daybooks, questionnaires and checklists. The
15 traces in these artefacts, whether documentary or digital in nature, are a distinctive kind of
16 organizational text which is coherent and amenable to structuring and aggregation into
17 organizational-level performance accounts. The logic of the audit trail therefore demands the
18 production of primary traces which are reductive (reduce complexity) and systematic
19 (standardised) representations of actions in simplified inscriptions which can be aggregated.
20 They are often but not always numeric. Such primary traces constitute and define the
21 auditability of performance.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33

35 **The production of organizational performance accounts (B).**

36
37
38 In this second sub-process, the primary traces of performance are systematically aggregated
39 into public and private organizational-level accounts. This aggregation process can also be
40 extended as accounts are subject to further compression into metrics, and then formally
41 ranked to enable comparisons of performance across organizations in different fields. Audit
42 trails are therefore deeply implicated in the production of rankings and ratings.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 These two components constitute the sequential logic of the audit trail as a process of
51 accounts production from primary performance data. Each of these sub-process types are
52 likely to contain many more specific routines with their own protocols, artefacts and
53 enactments (Feldman & Pentland, 2003). Sub-process B and the specific output tokens of the
54 audit trail process in the form of performance accounts of different kinds – especially
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 financial reporting, environmental disclosures and rankings – have received considerable
4 attention from accounting and organization scholars. In contrast, the micro-level of sub-
5 process A is relatively unexplored, despite being the engine of sub-process B.
6
7

8
9
10 Understood as a type, the process logic of the audit trail seems to lack any specific
11 content or performance value, other than the imperative to produce performance accounts in
12 accordance with the requirements of making performance traceable to primary performance
13 data. Specific first order performance values such as “profit”, “fairness”, “diversity”,
14 “sustainability”, and “impact” determine the contingent and potentially varying empirical
15 tokens of the logic of the audit trail. How and to what this logic is applied seems therefore
16 open and uncertain, but also unbounded. On this view, the logic of audit trail can
17 institutionalise performance values, but is neutral about them.
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

30 Yet, the value-neutrality of procedural logics is questionable (Quattrone, 2015;
31 Friedland, 2017). As a type, the logic of the audit trail is better conceptualised as “meta-
32 logic” which is substantive and formative in its own right. Thus, if first order values are to
33 feature in formal performance accounts, they are necessarily subject to, and processed by, the
34 meta-logic of the audit trail. This logic appears to be merely procedural but, as the bearer of
35 the bundle of organizing myths referred to earlier, it is a second order-value which organizes
36 first order values into accounts. It is not sectorally or value-specific, hence its meta-logical
37 status, and as a logic or type it cannot exist apart from the tokens which embody it (Friedland,
38 2017). Yet it is more than merely formal; it cuts across field and sector-specific logics and
39 their multiple dimensions and tensions (Thornton et al., 2012).
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

53 To summarise: while the concept of the audit trail is closely associated with financial
54 accounting, it has an abstract process logic ($A \rightarrow B$ above) which is not confined to its
55 specific enactment in the bookkeeping paradigm. As an abstract type, the audit trail is a
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 globally diffused (Strang & Meyer, 1993) “meta-logic” for organizing the production of
4
5 performance accounts in general. The dynamics of this logic constitute the microfoundations
6
7 of the audit society, understood as a continuously unfolding and repeating organizational
8
9 process of accounts production. As we now argue, this logic has “explosive organizing
10
11 potential” (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Power, 1997: 96) and is strongly performative of the
12
13 conditions of its own perpetuation.
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 21 **A PROCESS MODEL OF AUDIT TRAILS: FACTICITY AND DISPOSITION** 22 23 **FORMATION** 24 25

26 It has been argued above that prior studies of the formative and performative
27
28 dynamics of accounting require more elaboration of micro-processes, not least to understand
29
30 the paradox that efforts to resist performance accounts, such as rankings, end up extending
31
32 their power. Indeed, sustained attention towards “primary traces” of performance, such as
33
34 student placement data, seems to promote coupling rather than decoupling (Sauder &
35
36 Espeland, 2009: 64). Exactly as Durkheim (1982) claimed for social facts in general,
37
38 rankings in particular and accounting in general assert themselves, and are attractive to
39
40 organizational leaders, even in the face of efforts to resist them. On the one hand, accounting
41
42 objectivity, its taken-for-grantedness or “facticity” is produced as performance accounts
43
44 receive more organizational attention and are normalized. Organizational actors are drawn to
45
46 externalisations of their performance in accounting numbers, experience their authority as
47
48 social facts and the possibilities of comparability they bring, and welcome their complexity
49
50 reducing properties (Esposito & Stark, in press). Accounts may even be a source of pride for
51
52 critics and supporters (Sauder & Espeland, 2009).
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 On the other hand, reflexive organizational actors are also critical of the reductive,
4 partial and “unrealistic” nature of rankings as representations of performance. Although they
5 perceive rankings as undermining core values, they also have little choice but to produce such
6 representations and pay increasing attention to them. So, even as they criticise rankings they
7 are entangled in their reproduction. In what follows, we integrate these two conflicted
8 processes – allure and resistance, “pull” and “push” - in a micro-processual and formative
9 model of the audit trail. Before articulating this model explicitly, it is necessary to clarify
10 two of its key conceptual units – “facticity” and “disposition”.

21 22 **The Facticity of Performance.**

23
24
25 The notion of “facticity” is often used interchangeably with that of “objectivity”. Yet
26 it has distinctive origins in the philosophy of German idealism and is associated with the
27 work of thinkers such as Husserl, Heidegger and Merleau-Ponty. The concept is part of the
28 vocabulary of phenomenological psychology and refers to the way facts appear, and are
29 experienced, as facts. Facticity is the quality of taken-for-grantedness or “givenness” of
30 experience (Friedland, 2017). It is the way things like accounting statements are taken as
31 referring to, and producing facts about, the world. The concept also has currency in general
32 sociology, not least in the work of Garfinkel who was influenced by phenomenology:
33 “.....every feature of an activity’s sense, *facticity*, objectivity, accountability, communality is
34 to be treated as a contingent accomplishment of socially organized common practices”
35 (Garfinkel, 1967: 33, emphasis added). On this view, facticity is an institutional rather than a
36 transcendental accomplishment (Douglas, 1986).

37
38
39 Accounting facticity has little to do with truth or accurate representation. In an age of
40 “fake news” (Allcott & Gentzkow, 2017), it is not surprising that “false” numbers (Lampland,
41 2010), “bad” measures (Dambrin & Robson, 2006) and “selective disclosures” (Marquis et
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 al., 2010) can acquire organizational and social facticity. In effect, accounting numbers come
4 to be seen, and made sense of, by actors as referring to an organizational reality of
5 performance. More generally, it is the job of phenomenological and sociological analysis to
6 recover these collective processes by which facticity is formed (Berger & Luckmann, 1966:
7 78). Accounting, despite its numerous scandals and failures, seems to possess a facticity so
8 authoritative and so securely grounded in modernity “that we have trouble imagining other
9 forms of coordination and discipline or other means of creating transparency and
10 accountability” (Espeland & Sauder, 2007: 5).

21
22 Facticity as an acquired taken-for-grantedness is not only a property of forms of
23 quantification like accounting. It is also an effect of documentary processes in general.
24 (Smith, 1984: 66). We know that organizations are saturated in documents and digital
25 records and texts: files, diaries, memos, timesheets, questionnaires, checklists, log books as
26 well as formal accounting records (e.g. Riles, 2006; Phillips et al., 2004). These
27 organizational documents or artefacts do not simply mirror organizational events. As
28 elements of routine practices they perform “organizational facts” (Garfinkel, 1967; Smith,
29 1984; Cooren, 2004; D’Adderio, 2008; Hull, 2012; Kaghan & Lounsbury, 2006). This
30 performative power has little to do with whether documents describe any specific work
31 process faithfully or accurately. Rather, they produce facticity by subsuming that process
32 within the formal, reductive schema of the document that represents it (Garfinkel, 1967;
33 Smith, 1984). Extending this reasoning, what is recorded in an audit trail primary trace is
34 never simply “what happened” (Van Maanen & Pentland, 1994; Hull, 2012). It is a re-
35 description of an action according to an institutional purpose – accounting for performance in
36 a specific way - which is more or less widely accepted by organizational actors. Primary
37 traces are therefore the paradoxical engines of performance facticity: they are known to be
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 simple and reductive but they generate a reality which is experienced by, makes sense for,
4
5 and is desired by, organizational actors.
6
7

8
9 In what follows, the concept of facticity is preferred to that of objectivity, which is
10 often contested and crudely counterpoised to “subjectivity.” It is also more processual and
11 experiential in connotation, having affinities with Berger and Luckman’s (1966:49) notion of
12 “objectivation” as something produced by social actors. In the context of performance
13 accounting, facticity results from the repeated, collective externalization of performance
14 representations. Organizational actors experience and increasingly make sense of these
15 performance accounts as not simply conventional in nature, but as being about, and referring
16 to, the world (Douglas, 1986). They experience the “pull” or “compelling and coercive
17 power” (Durkheim, 1982: 51) of performance accounts as “social facts”. And this accounting
18 facticity strengthens with the accretion of accounting infrastructure in the form of audit trail
19 routines for accounts production.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 34 **The Concept of Disposition.** 35

36
37 The concepts of disposition and habit are closely related (Camic, 1986:1044). For
38 Dewey habit is equated with a disposition to particular ways of acting which are acquired
39 through past experience (Dewey, 1922; Turner & Cacciatori, 2016:78). He understands habit
40 not just as a mechanical, automatic response to triggers, but also as a positive force for
41 learning and agency (Cohen, 2007). This richer concept of habit and agency has influenced
42 the understanding of organizational routines as generative accomplishments by mindful
43 actors (Feldman & Pentland, 2003). Indeed, a more varied typology of habit recognises that
44 while it may be an acquired tendency or inclination in the face of repeated experiences,
45 automaticity is but one point on a spectrum of possibilities (Turner & Cacciatori, 2016).
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Bourdieu transforms the notion of habit from its origins in the psychology of the
4 individual into the sociology of habitus. Habitus is understood as the sum of acquired
5 abilities or dispositions formed from the entanglement of individual embodied life history and
6 structural position in fields (Butler, 1999). Thus, what Bourdieu calls the “aesthetic
7 disposition” is a generalised capacity traceable to specific forms of the division of labour in
8 society (Bourdieu, 2010: 47). On this view, dispositions are pre-reflective but also flexible
9 and purposive in the sense of a skilled performance by an expert player of a game (Crossley,
10 2013: 139). Cardinale (2018) builds on Bourdieu’s approach to argue that social structure is
11 neither inherently “enabling” or “constraining” (Adler & Borys, 1996) but “imprints”
12 orientations or dispositions which may vary in their reflexivity or automaticity, as argued by
13 theorists of habit.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 In what follows, Bourdieu’s grounding of the category of disposition in the formative
30 nature of wider social structures is “bracketed” both for exegetical reasons and also to avoid
31 burdening a micro-level analysis of audit trails with the structure-agent debate (Harmon et al.,
32 in press). The model focuses instead on disposition-formation arising from repeated micro-
33 encounters with, and enactments of, the “game” of performance accounting via the
34 production of primary traces. By adopting this restricted focus on organizational sites of
35 disposition-formation, the model leans more towards Foucault (Townley, 1993) than
36 Bourdieu. Both Bourdieu and Foucault share a critique of the autonomous self but differ
37 importantly in how they conceptualize the processes by which subjects are formed
38 (Callewaert, 2006; Cronin, 1996). Where Bourdieu locates this formative process firmly in
39 the class structure and social position, Foucault locates it at the micro-level of encounters
40 between individuals and infrastructures of control and their discourses – what he calls the
41 *dispositif* or “apparatus”. For Foucault, subjects and their dispositions are formed from
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 immersion in material devices of control and their textual “systems of intense registration”
4
5 (Foucault, 1977:188), such as primary trace production for audit trails.
6
7

8 **A Process Model of the Audit Trail** 9

10
11 Having refined the concepts of facticity and disposition, drawing on very different
12 theoretical traditions and reference points for each, we now integrate them within an extended
13 model of the audit trail process which captures the tension between allure and resistance
14 noted earlier. The architecture of this model adopts Berger and Luckmann’s (1966: 78) well-
15 known typology of institutionalisation which theorizes three fundamental dialectical and
16 formative processes: “externalization”, “objectivation” and “internalization”. In the proposed
17 model, these three process types are extended by analogical reasoning (Swedberg, 2014;
18 Ketokivi, Mantere & Cornelissen, 2017) respectively to: the production of primary traces; the
19 emergence of performance facticity from the production of accounts; the formation of
20 dispositions to reproduce audit trails. Furthermore, the dialectical dynamics identified by
21 Berger and Luckmann are further specified in terms of MacKenzie’s well-known typology of
22 contingently unfolding performativity (MacKenzie, 2006: 17; Marti & Gond, 2018;
23 D’Adderio, 2008). This enables us to begin by theorizing three discrete logical *stages* of a
24 formative process as a static sequential analysis, before elaborating the dynamics of transition
25 between these stages. In effect, we are building a performative model of an institutionalizing
26 process.
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48
49 **Stage 1.** This stage, which begins with adoption, is characterised by *generic* or weak
50 performativity in MacKenzie’s sense. As macroinstitutional theories suggest, actors adopt
51 new audit trail requirements because of the exogenous compulsion of a bundle of myths as
52 sources of legitimacy, but they also do so to avoid regulatory sanction (Thornton et al., 2012:
53 87). In this first stage of audit trail production, new organizational accounts of performance
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 have limited initial facticity for organizational actors, especially where primary trace
4
5 production is ad hoc and non-routine. The disposition to reproduce audit trails in the absence
6
7 of regulatory and institutional pressure is weak. Actors adopt and comply because they must
8
9 for cultural and regulatory reasons, but are aware of the conventional nature of the accounts
10
11 produced, and are openly critical of performance reductionism and value subversion. In this
12
13 stage of weak performativity, they are also likely to engage in strategic compliance,
14
15 decoupling and even deviant actions in relation to performance accounting (Oliver,
16
17 1991:152).
18
19
20
21

22 **Stage 2.** The second stage is *effective* or medium performativity. It is characterised by
23
24 the increased repetition and routinization of primary trace production within infrastructures
25
26 for accounts production. As a consequence of this routinization, the organizational facticity
27
28 of accounted-for performance increases for organizational actors because they have little
29
30 choice but to pay more attention to the audit trail process in their work. Yet, even though
31
32 these actors are immersed in performance accounting and make sense of, and operationalise,
33
34 their performance as represented in accounting systems, they still retain a reflexive capacity
35
36 to be critical and strategic about the adoption of performance accounts (Turner & Cacciatori,
37
38 2016). However, in contrast to stage 1, this critique is more reformist than rejectionist.
39
40
41 Organizational actors want to make performance accounts “less bad” or improve them, rather
42
43 than dismiss them outright.
44
45
46
47

48 **Stage 3.** The third stage of performativity of the audit trail process is strong or
49
50 “Barnesian” performativity (Barnes, 1983; MacKenzie, 2006; Marti & Gond, 2018). At this
51
52 stage, the facticity of performance accounts exerts a strong influence over actors whose
53
54 disposition to produce audit trails becomes less reflexive about value subversion, less
55
56 dependent on macroinstitutional factors or regulatory push, and more automatic in nature.
57
58 The formation of such a disposition means that organizational agents are constituted as
59
60

1
2
3 carriers of the abstract logic or type of the audit trail regardless of its efficacy. They are now
4
5 agents of its replication, amplification and expansion into new performance reporting settings
6
7
8 (Turner & Cacciatori, 2016: 78).
9

10
11

12
13 **Insert Table 1 about here**
14

15
16

17
18
19 Table 1 summarises and depicts the three stages of audit trail performativity as a
20
21 temporal sequence culminating in strong form performativity. A more dynamic reading of
22
23 this sequence is needed to understand how audit trails transition between the stages and
24
25 become strongly performative and amplificatory. In essence, strong performativity emerges
26
27 from a mechanism of positive cumulative feedback from exposure to the audit trail process.
28
29 The audit trail is not itself a self-fulfilling theory but has analogous looping effects as
30
31 facticity, disposition and primary trace production positively reinforce each other (Barnes,
32
33 1983). It is this strengthening of the performativity of audit trails which explains both how
34
35 organizations adopt accounting and auditing practices which may be ineffective and value-
36
37 subverting, and also why they expand in ways that cannot be explained by structural or
38
39 regulatory pressures in organizational environments, pressures which only explain adoption.
40
41 The mechanism of this transition between stages is theorized below in terms of a
42
43 dispositional conflict between two forces, which we simplify with the metaphors of “push”
44
45 and “pull”.
46
47
48
49
50

51
52 **Push.** This is understood as critical resistance by organizational agents to new
53
54 performance requirements, and is well documented in studies of audit society pathology, such
55
56 as the reaction of doctors to new performance appraisal systems (McGivern & Ferlie, 2007),
57
58 as well as more generally (Oliver, 1991). Organizational agents make sense of primary
59
60

1
2
3 traces as simplistic and reductive. They are regarded as in conflict with existing values, with
4 more expansive and less reductive ways of making sense of work practices, and with their
5 own identities in performing this work (Thornton et al., 2012: chapter 7). Push is both
6 emotional and cognitive (Cohen, 2007; Voronov & Weber, 2016; Lok, Creed, DeJordy &
7 Voronov, 2017) and results from anxiety in the face of new modes of performance evaluation
8 (Espeland & Sauder, 2016). Push should not be equated with active or organized resistance,
9 for which many other enabling conditions are needed. It is essentially dispositional in nature;
10 push is resistance to performance value internalization.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 **Pull.** This points to a different dispositional vector, namely the attraction of
23 organizational actors to the externalization of their performance in primary traces and the
24 facticity of the accounts which they produce. This idea takes its theoretical lead from
25 Durkheim's notion of the compulsion of social facts. Like push it can be grounded
26 psychologically (Cohen 2012; Winter 2013) and psychoanalytically (Cooper, 2001; Voronov
27 & Weber, 2016) as a desire by organizational actors to externalise, and make sense of
28 themselves and their performance in primary traces. As noted above in the discussion of
29 facticity, pull also exists when features of performance accounting lose their conventional
30 status and come to be understood and communicated by organizational actors as
31 representations of the way things are. This recursive interaction between an emotional desire
32 for identity, validation and complexity reduction in externalized representations of
33 performance, and the increased organizational facticity of such performance presentations,
34 drives the formative process from stage 1 to stage 3. Academic readers might reflect on the
35 affirmation and gratification provided by citations of their work despite their misgivings.
36 Citations have become "facts" about researcher performance despite widespread critique of
37 their crudity as measures.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The model dynamics are therefore constructed from a simple psychological
4 mechanism of conflict-resolution between push and pull, between a desire to resist and push
5 away from performance reductivism, and the Durkheimian compulsion or pull of
6 performance facticity. This push and pull can be modelled as a recursive sensemaking
7 process in which the material practice of primary trace and account creation (externalization),
8 progressively generates collective meaning in the form of facticity (objectivation) which in
9 turn generates a desire or disposition to account (internalisation). Once set in motion, this
10 dynamic of primary trace production, facticity emergence and disposition formation becomes
11 endogenous (Dionysiou & Tsoukas, 2013). Organizational actors welcome and desire the
12 production of audit trails and performance accounts, regardless of their efficacy or value-
13 subversion.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 Returning to the three stylised stages of performativity in table 1, we can express the
30 logic of this recursive process as follows: in stage 1 primary traces are produced by
31 organizational actors but push is strong and the pull of accounting representations is weak.
32 The production of primary traces is not a priority for organizational actors and bears little
33 relation to existing work and value dispositions which remain intact. As the process of
34 primary trail production is repeated and embedded in organizational routines, stage 2 is
35 reached in which primary traces necessarily require increasing time and attention from
36 organizational actors, making them less critical about their limitations than stage 1. As
37 infrastructure for the production of primary traces accretes, primary traces also acquire
38 facticity and exert more pull over actors. In the face of this, continued critique is psychically
39 and economically costly and continued employment may be at risk. Resistance mutates into a
40 more strategic attitude to the production of primary traces, not least by editing, adapting and
41 improving them. In stage 2 the initial dispositional conflict is being resolved as pull
42 strengthens and push weakens.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 By stage 3, organizational actors have experienced extensive exposure to audit trail
4 production. Both primary trace and performance accounts are products of mature
5 infrastructures and have acquired strong facticity for organizational actors. Performance is
6 fully externalized and objectified. Performance accounts are not simply compositional
7 aggregates of primary traces; facticity is an emergent and dynamic property (Barney & Felin,
8 2013) of their production process. The outcome is that organizational performance has
9 become auditable in a way that comes to seem entirely natural and self-evident to
10 organizational actors. Repetition of the audit trail process creates ever “deeper ruts in the
11 road” for organizational actors (Pentland, Haerem & Hillison, 2011) and the disposition to
12 reproduce and expand them is strong.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 Under the strong form performativity of audit trails, primary documentary traces are
27 no longer objects of reflexive critique for their reductionism and conventionalism, but also
28 themselves become imbued with facticity (Van Maanen & Pentland, 1994; Hull, 2012).
29 Organizational actors come to accept them as the micro-facts of performance, not from
30 external compulsion anymore but from the internalization of its logic. This recursive
31 formative process is represented in summary form by figure 1, which takes audit trail sub-
32 processes [A → B] from the preceding section, combines this with a disposition-formative
33 dimension (C), and visualises the transition from stage 1 to 3.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46

47
48 **Insert Figure 1 about here**
49

50

51
52
53
54 The precise outcome of this modelled disposition-formative process will depend on
55 the relative strengths of the components of the formative mechanism: the collective “pull” of
56 facticity and the resistance to primary trace reductionism. The three stage model proposes
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 ceteris paribus that the former will weaken the latter over time, but the speed of transition
4 between stages can vary. For example, where primary trace production is frequent or
5 continuous, the pull of facticity and disposition formation is likely to be stronger and the
6 transition between stages will be quicker. Where it is infrequent, ad hoc and competes with
7 embedded incumbent performance accounting systems, new accounts can fail to generate
8 organizational facticity, and their process is stalled at the first stage of weak performativity
9

10
11
12 By way of illustration, consider the following stylized but not entirely fictional
13 “process narrative” (Langley, 1999): the CEO of a private company sends an email to a
14 university researcher noting how her published research has helped him to make important
15 changes to management processes. The email is a matter of personal pride for her, but little
16 more. However, subsequently her university is subject to a new performance accounting
17 regime and is required to report on the external impact of its research (Power, 2015).
18
19

20
21
22 **Stage 1.** The researcher now recognises that the email in question could be used as
23 textual evidence, as a primary trace, for this new accounting requirement. She is deeply
24 sceptical of the process and of the entire idea of accounting for external impact. She believes
25 strongly in curiosity-driven research for its own sake, and knows that the benefits of her work
26 to society flow in many indirect and subtle ways, including teaching, and cannot be
27 encapsulated in something as crude as “impact”. Yet she is also “strongly encouraged” by
28 her Dean to produce a case study of her research impact based on the email and other pieces
29 of primary evidence.
30
31

32
33
34 **Stage 2.** She receives help in preparing this account of her impact from the newly
35 appointed “chief impact officer” and, to her surprise and pleasure, her case study – one of
36 many submitted by her academic colleagues - receives the highest numerical score by
37 external evaluators and contributes to the high ranking for impact of her university. Despite
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 her initial scepticism she enjoys being congratulated by the Dean, who says he shares her
4
5 misgivings but is delighted by the university's performance. The Dean also receives a bonus
6
7 from the governing body for his performance in delivering this outcome. The researcher's
8
9 perceived success in impact becomes part of both formal and informal discussions of her own
10
11 performance. She is increasingly described by others as an "impactful" researcher and is
12
13 seen as a source of expertise on how to expand the impact of colleagues' research. Via the
14
15 case studies and the overall ranking, research impact as a policy value has acquired
16
17 organizational facticity in the university sector.
18
19
20
21

22 **Stage 3.** The researcher, and those who she now advises as part of the "impact
23
24 strategy" of her university, not only routinely attend to emails like the one she originally
25
26 received but also actively seek them from a new class of "users" of their research. They
27
28 enjoy being recognised as "impactful" and emails are valued as legitimate traces of the
29
30 micro-facts of research performance. She has become committed to collecting and editing
31
32 them to be auditable for the impact officer and any possible external inspection. The original
33
34 email from the private organization which used the research has been transformed
35
36 ontologically into a "primary" trace in an audit trail process and used systematically to
37
38 produce a new class of performance facts.
39
40
41
42

43 Good theoretical models represent a process like the one above "as if it happens in a
44
45 certain way and necessarily suggest further questions" (Swedberg, 2014: 26). The fit
46
47 between the process model of the audit trail logic and the narrative illustration above is not,
48
49 and never can be, perfect. But the illustration is also rich enough to suggest that performance
50
51 accounts production and disposition formation are likely to be strongly associated in the way
52
53 that the model predicts. It shows how organizational agents may go beyond external
54
55 pressures to produce new accounts. As organizations develop accounting infrastructure, they
56
57 internalise and amplify these requirements in the process of adoption.
58
59
60

1
2
3 The concept of disposition has been used to open up the “black box” of
4
5 microfoundations (Powell & Rerup, 2017) of the audit society yet, as the stylized example
6
7 also shows, it is itself a black box or “placeholder” concept for more embedded processes.
8
9 For example, the illustration suggests how habits and dispositions may be formed or
10
11 “imprinted” at particular moments of sensemaking (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013) rather than as a
12
13 smooth function of enactment. In addition, while the example illustrates the model, it also
14
15 points to, but abstracts from, the discursive processes (Phillips et al., 2004) and language
16
17 games (Astley & Zammuto, 1992) of organizational performance accounting within which
18
19 the audit trail process is embedded (Fauré, Brummans, Giroux & Taylor, 2010). The
20
21 researcher in the illustration is eventually drawn to audit trails of impact and seems to
22
23 internalize their logic, but there are also likely to be counter-dispositions and competing
24
25 forms of facticity at stake. We should expect this when new performance accounts are
26
27 introduced into complex organizational settings in which multiple performance values and
28
29 their forms of accounting exist (Thornton et al., 2005; Kraatz & Block, 2008).
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 Despite these inevitable qualifications and the model’s simplifications of actor
37
38 sensemaking, discourse and psychology, it draws attention to a feedback mechanism by
39
40 which the audit trail process entangles and constitutes organizational agents. Its logic
41
42 cumulatively and repetitively (Berger & Luckman, 1966) exerts a disciplinary power over
43
44 them. They come to feel not just compelled but motivated to reproduce this logic, even when
45
46 core organizational values may be at stake. The “anxiety” of organizational actors identified
47
48 by Espeland and Sauder (2016) can be grounded in the dynamics of this model as a residual
49
50 form of “push”. Its key insight, adapted from accounting sociology, is that the emergence of
51
52 performance facticity is disposition-formative via the much neglected mediating role of
53
54 primary trace production.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The model also explains why, far from minimizing inspection via practices of
4 decoupling as Meyer and Rowan (1977) famously suggest, organizational agents, including
5 Selznick's (1957) leaders and Espeland and Sauder's (2009) Law School Deans, are part of
6 an endogenous process by which they come to embrace the logic of the audit trail, the
7 performance accounts it produces, and the resulting organizational facticity of performance.
8 It shows how the audit trail process is institutional in the sense of being a self-regulating and
9 socially-constructed mechanism which also enforces and expands its own application
10 (Jepperson, 1991: 145; Phillips et al., 2004: 638). However, we need to refine the claims of
11 the model one step further in order to be more precise about its amplifying and diffusing
12 nature.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 **From Audit Trail "Token" to "Type"**

28
29 At the micro-level of organizations and groups of organizational actors, the
30 disposition to reproduce audit trails is necessarily a disposition formed within *specific*
31 performance accounting settings, such as impact accounting described in the previous
32 section. It was also noted earlier that any number of performance values can motivate the
33 production of specific performance accounts, and organizational actors engage in institutional
34 work to create, improve, maintain and even destroy them (Battilana, Leca & Boxenbaum,
35 2009; Lawrence et al., 2009; Bromley & Powell, 2012: 500). Indeed, there are often intense
36 arguments about how best to account for values such as diversity or sustainability, and there
37 can be fierce competition between different performance accounts and the facts they produce.
38 All these important issues concern specific audit trail "tokens".
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

53 Yet, in the transition from weak to strong performativity, the disposition being formed
54 is an orientation to reproduce the abstract meta-logic or "type" of the audit trail in any
55 specific performance accounting setting, regardless of content. This notion of type is
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 analogous to that of a “deep grammar” (Wittgenstein, 1976, para. 664) in that it is a condition
4
5 of possibility for “auditable” performance account construction in general which requires the
6
7 sequential production of aggregate representations of performance from primary traces.
8

9
10 However, this *logical* distinction between token and type must now be reframed within our
11
12 model as a dynamic process of abstraction in which type emerges from token.
13
14

15 Within each specific audit trail setting organizational actors form a disposition to
16
17 reproduce *both* the specific token of the logic of the audit trail and also its abstract type, its
18
19 logical form. By definition, the specific token is contingent and can fail or be reformed
20
21 without necessarily damaging the emerging disposition to reproduce the logical form or type.
22
23 This meta-logic or type is both more durable than its empirical tokens and can also diffuse
24
25 well-beyond them (Meyer & Strang, 1993). It is less discretionary than the form and content
26
27 of specific performance accounts. Deviations from, and resistance to, it will impose
28
29 economic, cognitive and legitimacy costs on organizational actors (Phillips et al., 2004)
30
31 because they violate cultural norms and the bundle of myths embodied in its logic.
32
33
34
35

36
37 A more dynamic and formative reading of the well-known distinction between token
38
39 and type suggests that the seemingly exogenous organizing myths revealed at the so-
40
41 called “macroinstitutional” level of analysis, and which are assumed to set in motion
42
43 pressures at the organizational level, are themselves generated and sustained from the micro-
44
45 level of accounts production. In other words, the strongly performative model of the logic of
46
47 the audit trail is also an abstraction “engine” which is productive of the rational myth of itself
48
49 at the macro-level. This is consistent with other models of micro- to macro-level endogeneity
50
51 and mutuality, such as studies of behaviour and meaning formation (Cornelissen, Durand,
52
53 Fiss, Lammers & Vaara, 2015; Zucker, 1977), the dynamics of institutional logic formation
54
55 and availability (Thornton et al., 2012: 85) and the mutually formative relation between
56
57 habitus and field (Butler, 1999: 117). Moreover, we can now position the formative model of
58
59
60

1
2
3 audit trails as a micro-level of analysis, which is not a proposed “solution” to the structure-
4
5 agency problem but is itself a theory of the generative core of a multi-layered whole
6
7
8 (Cardinale, 2018; Harmon et al., in press).
9

10 In summary, we have developed a performative model of the microfoundations of the
11
12 audit society. This model shows how the audit society is the macro-outcome of a micro-
13
14 process which embeds itself in organizations via the repeated production of audit trails. This
15
16 process co-produces both performance facticity and the dispositions of organizational actors
17
18 which sustain that production. The strongly performative form of the model shows how the
19
20 logic of the audit trail is a self-fulfilling, self-regulating and self-amplifying meta-logic or
21
22 “type” which expands the range of situations in which it can be applied (Jepperson, 1991;
23
24 Marti & Gond, 2018). It shows how organizations adopt and amplify performance reporting
25
26 systems regardless of whether they are ineffective or counterproductive or value subversive.
27
28 This disposition-generating property of audit trails goes beyond an inability to resist, or the
29
30 passification of organizational agents in settings of hierarchical power. Rather, the model
31
32 proposes that the much criticised audit society and its pathologies is the outcome of a strong
33
34 collective disposition towards the facticity generated by audit trails which progressively
35
36 nullifies the reflexive critique of organizational actors. This model of the performative power
37
38 (Marti & Gond, 2018) of the logic of the audit trail supports the core theoretical proposition
39
40 of this article:
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 *Proposition 1: the more that organizational actors enact the audit trail process, the more that*
49 *performance accounts acquire organizational facticity, and the more that these actors*
50 *become disposed to reproduce and expand the logic of that process, despite evidence of value*
51 *subversion.*
52
53
54
55

56 DYNAMICS AND VARIATION

57
58
59
60

1
2
3 In this section, we fine-tune the audit trail model and core proposition 1 above by
4 considering four possible sources of variation which influence the strength, direction and
5 timing of the performativity of the logic of the audit trail, and therefore its persistence and
6 amplification.
7
8
9
10
11
12

13 **Primary Trace Production and Work Processes.**

14
15

16 As noted earlier, primary traces are reductive representations of performance and the
17 artefactual building blocks for organization-level accounts of performance (cf D’Adderio,
18 2008). They are systematically collected, classified, commensurated, made combinable and
19 aggregated (Espeland & Stevens, 1998; Mennicken & Espeland, in press). However, the
20 disposition-forming dynamic expressed in proposition 1 will vary according to the extent to
21 which new primary traces are experienced by organizational actors as continuous with pre-
22 existing practices of performance accounting. There may be more or less stage 1 “push”
23 against the reductionism of primary traces from organizational actors depending on whether
24 they are already engaged in producing them.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 As Gawande (2010) notes in his popular tribute to the checklist, the take-off-readiness
38 protocol used by airline pilots is accepted as fundamental to their operating routines. The
39 “tick” which is entered into a check-box as an on-board “control action” by a pilot
40 simultaneously creates a trace for an audit trail. Modifications, and even expansions, of their
41 checklists are unlikely to be systematically resisted by pilots since they are normally designed
42 by pilots themselves, and align with existing patterns of working. Checklists are both
43 functionally useful to pilots and are also an inscription of pilot and airline performance.
44 Even where primary performance data is created by third parties, such as the use of
45 questionnaires to measure “student satisfaction” and “patient experience” (Pflueger, 2016),
46 organizational actors may experience this as continuous with normal feedback and learning
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 processes. Furthermore, organizational actors may be more likely to embrace the reductivism
4
5 of new primary trace requirements when they are involved in their design (Falk & Kosfeld,
6
7 2006).
8
9

10
11 The situation is likely to be different with radically new performance demands (Dent,
12
13 1991; Townley, 1997), such as requirements to account for the external impact of research by
14
15 universities mentioned in the previous section, or the need for banks to demonstrate good
16
17 culture (Palermo, Power & Ashby, 2017). In these circumstances organizational actors will
18
19 be initially less receptive to the reductivism of audit trail requirements and the facticity of
20
21 performance accounts will be weaker. Where primary trace and reporting requirements have
22
23 little or no continuity with existing work practices, they may even encourage deviant
24
25 behaviour, such as creating the required traces (“box-ticking”) without the substantive
26
27 performance (Baxter & Clarke, 2013). Where the reductivism of primary traces receives
28
29 very strong push back, pressure is also created to design “better” primary traces.
30
31
32
33

34
35 In summary, the performative strength and persistence of the logic of the audit trail as
36
37 summarised in the core proposition will vary depending on whether newly demanded primary
38
39 traces at stage 1 have a low-push, “high cultural fit” (Marti & Gond, 2018; Ansari et al.,
40
41 2010: 78) with current work practices. On the one hand, the lower the cultural fit between
42
43 audit trail production work and other work (Power, 2016), the more likely it is that
44
45 organizational agents will initially push back and try to decouple new reporting requirements,
46
47 leading to weak performativity and the delayed or even rejected facticity of such accounts
48
49 and their primary traces. On the other hand, prior experience matters. Where organizational
50
51 actors have developed low push against the logic of the audit trail for a specific token, it is
52
53 more likely that they will have low push for any subsequent token of performance accounting
54
55 to which they are exposed. Yet even the power of this accumulated experience may be
56
57 diluted where organizational actors who are generally disposed to reproduce the logic of the
58
59
60

1
2
3 audit trail as a type nevertheless resist particular tokens of that logic because they are too
4
5 dissonant with existing practice. Thus, while proposition 1 argues that the power of the logic
6
7 of the audit trail process to generate performance facticity will erode strategies of decoupling
8
9 and resistance at stage 1 over time (Boxenbaum & Jonsson, 2017), its dynamics can be
10
11 modified in the following sub-proposition to recognise these frictions:
12
13

14
15 *Proposition 1.1: the less (more) that organizational actors experience specific primary trace*
16 *requirements as continuous with existing work practices and values, the stronger (weaker)*
17 *the push-back and the weaker (stronger) will be the facticity-pull and disposition-forming*
18 *effects of audit trails.*
19

20
21 The expansion of digital platforms, such as TripAdvisor, means that consumers create
22
23 primary traces of performance, such as satisfaction scores, when they rate hotels, holidays
24
25 and restaurants. The general public is empowered as a direct evaluator and, much like the
26
27 case of law school rankings (Sauder & Espeland, 2009), this stimulates evaluated
28
29 organizations to track primary traces of customer satisfaction and produce summative metrics
30
31 and accounts (Jeacle & Carter, 2011; Orlikowski & Scott, 2014). TripAdvisor and similar
32
33 engines are therefore an increasing source of digitized audit trail construction as
34
35 organizations seek to manage how they are rated and ranked.
36
37

38
39
40 Organizational actors increasingly use digital platforms to engage in evaluation and
41
42 audit activity outside the workplace. Indeed, trace creation and traceability are now features
43
44 of everyday life as people quantify, monitor and evaluate many aspects of their personal
45
46 lives, such as health and educational attainment (Sharon & Zandbergen, 2017; Mennicken &
47
48 Espeland, in press). The anxious law school Deans interviewed by Espeland and Sauder
49
50 (2016) most likely use rankings and ratings as diners choosing a restaurant, or as parents
51
52 choosing a primary school for their children. As the audit society has evolved, the distinction
53
54 between expert auditor and auditee, evaluator and evaluatee, rater and rated has become
55
56 blurred; monitoring and being monitored are an increasing part of everyday experience. It is
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 therefore likely that organizational actors will already have a pre-disposition to reproduce
4
5 reductive primary traces, and will accept the facticity they produce, when they are also
6
7 engaged in similar activity in their personal lives e.g. as “disciplined selves” monitoring their
8
9 own health, refining their CVs, rating restaurants, films and other leisure experiences, as well
10
11 as choosing schools (Lupton, 2016; Esposito & Stark, in press). Accordingly, we can add an
12
13 amplifying/dampening moderation to the core proposition 1 as follows:
14
15

16
17
18 *Proposition 1.2. The more (less) that organizational actors enact forms of auditing and*
19 *evaluation in non-work settings, the weaker (stronger) their push-back against reductivism*
20 *and the quicker (slower) the emergence of the strong performativity of audit trails in*
21 *organizational work settings.*
22

23 **Blame and Amplification**

24

25
26 Studies of legalization, understood as the growth of law-like forms, such as due
27
28 process, show why organizations may “overcomply” and internally amplify external
29
30 requirements (Argyris, 1994). These studies show that organizational actors exhibit a
31
32 defensive “litigation mentality” (Bies & Tyler, 1993; Sitkin & Bies, 1994), and keep detailed
33
34 records “just in case” (Van Maanen & Pentland, 1994). By analogy, audit trail requirements
35
36 will also be amplified by organizational actors in institutional environments where there is
37
38 personal legal risk or reputational exposure to censure from both regulatory bodies and civil
39
40 society organizations. In such settings where blame is anticipated, organizational actors will
41
42 manage accounting disclosures strategically (Marquis et al., 2016) and also, in parallel, will
43
44 devote effort to creating and maintaining audit trails as evidence of compliance. They will
45
46 make primary traces more precise, more elaborate and more rationalized than formally
47
48 required. Thus, rather than critically pushing against the reductivism of primary traces in
49
50 stage 1, they are already defensively pre-disposed to amplify their precision as auditable
51
52 traces of performance. For example, in reacting to the Sarbanes-Oxley legislation (“Sarbox”)
53
54 following the collapse of Enron and Worldcom, organizations and their advisers elaborated
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 primary traces (of internal controls) greatly in excess of formal requirements (Economist
4
5 Leader, 2003; SEC, 2005).
6
7

8 Organizational studies of legalization, which focus on these defensive properties of
9
10 precise documentation, explain why there is both strategic acquiescence (Oliver, 1991) to the
11
12 logic of the audit trail and also amplification of its requirements in specific cases like Sarbox.
13
14 Audit trails and their primary traces can become valued for their own sake by organizational
15
16 actors who are averse to the risk of blame. Rather than resisting the reductionism of new
17
18 performance requirements at point of adoption, these organizational actors are more likely to
19
20 amplify and elaborate them from the outset. This pre-existing defensive disposition will
21
22 accelerate the transition to the strong performativity of audit trails.
23
24
25

26
27 *Proposition 1.3: the more (less) that organizational actors believe that they face possible*
28
29 *censure and blame, the more (less) that they will embrace, elaborate and amplify audit trails,*
30
31 *and the weaker (stronger) will be the “push” against primary trace reductivism.*

32 **Agents of Amplification**

33
34 Habits and dispositions are formed interactively (Turner & Cacciatori, 2016) and
35
36 therefore the collective organizational context of audit trails will influence the nature and
37
38 extent of their performativity. In particular, different performance accounts in large
39
40 organizations are normally produced by specialised individuals in sub-units, such as finance
41
42 and risk management departments, with varying degrees of internal positional power and
43
44 influence. These individuals occupy subject-positions which mediate, interpret and
45
46 operationalise regulatory and other performance requirements (Gray & Silbey, 2014). They
47
48 acquire influence by building reporting infrastructures which embed audit trail processes and
49
50 they become willing carriers and enforcers of its logic. Their internal authority is reinforced
51
52 by their participation and credibility in wider field and professional networks (Hinings,
53
54 Logue & Zietsma, 2017) and invisible trans-organizational “colleges” (Lampel & Meyer,
55
56 2008) which promote performance accounts. These professionals also circulate around these
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 networks – sometimes as regulators, sometimes as advisers, sometimes as sub-unit actors –
4
5 and are carriers of audit trail logic to different settings. For example, in their study of risk
6
7 culture, Palermo et al. (2017) noted how the circulation of professionals across private firms,
8
9 regulatory bodies and consulting organizations led to similar diagnoses and audit trail-based
10
11 solutions for the problem of improving and reporting on risk culture. In this way, the strong
12
13 performativity of audit trails is accelerated by organisational actors with positional power to
14
15 share and diffuse practice within and across organizations.
16
17
18
19

20 These actors operate in complex internal organizational environments (Bromley &
21
22 Powell, 2012: 499; Greenwood, Raynard, Kodeih, Micelotta & Lounsbury, 2011) and their
23
24 positional power may be an outcome of “organizational rivalry” (Selznick 1957:9-10) as
25
26 much as perceived expertise (Gray & Silbey, 2014). They are also likely to use external
27
28 events as opportunities for internal positioning and resource expansion (e.g. Kelly & Dobbin,
29
30 1998). For example, the regulatory and reporting responsibilities of senior management and
31
32 directors of companies, such as under Sarbox, have grown considerably over the past two
33
34 decades, making them important internal clients for specialised internal actors. These
35
36 regulatory pressures to demonstrate the good governance of risks, such as financial crime
37
38 (Favarel-Garrigues, Godefroy & Lascoumes, 2011) and failure to treat customers fairly
39
40 (Gilad, 2011), reinforces both the positional power of risk managers and compliance officers
41
42 and also the logic of the audit trails by which they make these risks auditable and governable.
43
44 In contrast, “diversity officers”, who may be limited to operationalising the performance of
45
46 diversity as an annual half day awareness training session, may not acquire this kind of
47
48 positional power. Their primary traces for regulatory compliance with diversity requirements
49
50 might only be the training attendance certificates of organizational members. The weak
51
52 performativity of an audit trail is therefore likely to be correlated with weak the positional
53
54 power of its relevant internal representatives (cf Kalev, Dobbin & Kelly, 2006).
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 In sum, the performativity of audit trails will be modulated by, and will in turn
4 modulate, the presence of convinced organizational actors in specialised sub-units with
5 positional power. At its strongest, the logic of the audit trail generates the dispositions of its
6 own champion-subjects who reinforce that logic and are empowered as sensegivers to speak
7 on behalf of, and operationalise, culturally validated conceptions of performance accounting.
8 We capture one direction of this mutual influence in the following proposition:
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17

18 *Proposition 1.4: the stronger (weaker) the internal positional power of members of*
19 *specialised performance accounting sub-units, the faster (slower) to emerge is the strong*
20 *performativity of the audit trails which they promote, create, sustain and amplify.*
21

22 Taken together, the core proposition and the four selected variants outlined above,
23 though not exhaustive of all possibilities, provide an orientation for empirical enquiry into the
24 dynamic properties and implications of the core model (Cornelissen, 2017). They are testable
25 hypotheses in their own right and articulate contingent variations which may accelerate or
26 delay the pathway to the strong performativity of audit trails. The propositions are also
27 symmetrical in that they articulate factors which may strengthen or weaken the core
28 proposition. For example, where primary traces are regarded as too reductive and
29 “unrealistic”; *and* organizational actors do not act as evaluators in their everyday lives; *and*
30 the setting is free from potential blame; *and* specialised carriers are either weak or non-
31 existent, then the pull of facticity and the strength of disposition formation in respect of
32 specific audit trail tokens will be weak. The fact that such settings, while logically possible,
33 are difficult to imagine reinforces the strong performativity of the core thesis. Yet, even in
34 such a counter-setting, could we imagine it, the institutionalising power of the logic of the
35 audit trail as a type would not necessarily be undermined by a single counter case or token.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57

58 FROM “VALUE SUBVERSION” TO “VALUES AT RISK”

59
60

1
2
3 While the performative model of the logic of the audit trail provides a specific micro-level
4 explanation of how the audit society persists and expands, it also has broader implications. A
5 crucial feature of the theorized formative process is the production of accounting facticity and
6 the “pull” it exerts over organizational actors (Durkheim, 1982). In this respect, an
7 unexpected contribution of the model is to allow us to think of the audit trail “neutrally” as a
8 mechanism by which abstract policy values become coupled to organizational routines and
9 acquire an organizational facticity, via accounting, that they might otherwise lack. From this
10 perspective, the reductive and facticity-producing potential of audit trails need not be
11 regarded as inherently pathological. For example, Wijen (2014; 2015) argues that the risks of
12 means-end decoupling as Bromley and Powell (2012) describe them (and the value-inversion
13 which preoccupies the critics of the audit society) must be traded off against the possible
14 benefits of acquiring organization traction for important policy values, such as sustainability.
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 Anticipating critics of the audit society by several decades, Selznick also understood
32 this trade-off very clearly. The formative model of the audit trail developed in this article
33 helps to articulate the dynamics of this trade-off in accounting terms. Following Selznick, we
34 can say that opaque organizational or policy values necessarily require “completing”
35 (Selznick, 1996:273) by being operationalised in technical routines; values and technical
36 tasks like accounting are therefore interdependent (Besharov & Khurana, 2015). Indeed, core
37 organizational values at risk of subversion are not themselves externally given as ends and
38 immune from social construction (Haack & Schoeneborn, 2015; Wijen, 2015). Even
39 Friedland (2017), as a value transcendentalist, reminds us that values lack any capability for
40 self-manifestation outside of the material practices which presume and perform them.
41 Abstract values like transparency must of necessity undergo “risky” operationalizations
42 (Bernstein, 2017) or they will never acquire the opportunity for organizational facticity. This
43 means that when the theory of “means-end “decoupling is expressed in a formative model of
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the kind developed for audit trails, it is better understood as a theory of means-end *co-*
4 *formation and coupling*. The logic of the audit trail performs both means – primary traces
5
6 and the disposition to reproduce them - and ends in terms of producing the organizational
7
8 facticity for values. The audit trail is therefore a mechanism with strongly performative
9
10 potential for institutionalising values but they are always and necessarily “values at risk”.

11
12
13
14
15 In conclusion, the facticity-formation dynamic of the core model is open-ended. In
16
17 some settings it is crudely reductive of the lived complexity of actual work processes and
18
19 performance, and threatens pre-existing professional identities (Townley, 1997; McGivern &
20
21 Ferlie, 2007) – well-documented audit society effects. And yet, even seemingly crude
22
23 accounting measures such as student satisfaction metrics in schools, which risk distorting
24
25 pedagogic values of development via the dynamics of means-end decoupling, may
26
27 nevertheless create needed facticity for the value of the student experience and enable
28
29 decision making under uncertainty (Esposito & Stark, in press). Indeed, the much criticised
30
31 Sarbanes-Oxley legislation introduced in the United States in 2003, to which, as already
32
33 noted, organizations reacted defensively by amplifying requirements into a formal “box-
34
35 checking” exercise, did eventually create public visibility for the value of internal controls in
36
37 organizations. Over time a new class of performance facts – control facts – was created to
38
39 materialise this value. The core model therefore shows that while values are always at risk
40
41 because they are shaped by reductive primary trace production, performance accounting can
42
43 give these values the organizational facticity, and therefore traction, that their advocates
44
45
46
47
48
49
50 desire.

51 52 53 **DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

54
55
56 The model of the audit trail developed above articulates a generative process which
57
58 shows how audit trails are self-fulfilling. While macro-institutional theories explain why
59
60

1
2
3 organizations adopt new accounting and audit requirements in accordance with a bundle of
4
5 rational myths of control and performance, the model and its further propositional
6
7 refinements show both how this happens and also why they are likely to be strongly
8
9 performative and self-amplifying. This is in effect a microfoundational model of the audit
10
11 society which shows how the audit trail process can lead to the progressive reshaping and
12
13 inversion of organizational goals and core values (Selznick, 1957) in excess of formal
14
15 regulatory intention. The model grounds an endogenous formative process in which
16
17 institutionalised means like accounting develop their own ends and become decoupled from
18
19 policy values (Pache & Santos, 2010: 460; Bromley & Powell, 2012). This phenomenon is
20
21 well-recognised in social theory, was one of the central preoccupations of the Frankfurt
22
23 School under the motif of “dialectic of enlightenment” (Horkheimer & Adorno, 2002), and is
24
25 implicit in critiques of the audit society.
26
27
28
29
30

31
32 This article contributes to institutional theory by showing how, via the repetitive
33
34 enactment of accounting, organizational actors form dispositions to produce and expand the
35
36 logic of the audit trail. The model captures tensions between the so-called “pull” of
37
38 accounting facticity and the “push” back against audit trail reductionism. Organizational
39
40 actors are simultaneously drawn to, and repelled by, audit trails and the performance
41
42 representations which they produce (Kraatz et al., 2010: 1540). However, it is proposed that
43
44 the dynamics of repeated audit trail production eventuate in a strongly performative version
45
46 of the model. In other words, the “pull” of performance facticity eventually “crowds-out”
47
48 (Frey & Jegen, 2001) reflexive critical reservations about the reductive and unrealistic nature
49
50 of primary traces. This strong version of the model therefore explains why value-subverting
51
52 accounting systems, far from being decoupled, become strongly coupled, amplified and
53
54 expanded. In conclusion, four more specific contributions of the model, and its limitations
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 and possible implications for future theoretical and empirical research, are considered further
4
5 below.

8 **The Dynamics of Facticity**

10
11 In explicating the microfoundations of the audit society, we find, surprisingly perhaps,
12 elements of a formative process which are not inherently pathological. The strongly
13 performative “pull” of accounting facticity may potentially operate to “crowd in” values as
14 much as crowd them out. As institutional thinkers as diverse as Selznick and Friedland
15 recognise, the values we care about are inherently precarious in that the moment of their
16 operationalisation also places them at risk. The model of the logic of the audit trail therefore
17 contributes to the recent “Selznickian” turn in organization studies by emphasising an
18 important dynamic relation between values and accounting. On the one hand, accounting can
19 be value distorting via the economization of organizations – the audit society thesis. Yet, on
20 the other hand, accounting, via the mechanism of facticity production, can be value-
21 promoting.

22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37 More theoretical work is needed to develop and tighten the construct of facticity and
38 its relation to value. Empirical studies could usefully enrich the interactive and discursive
39 processes (Phillips, et al., 2004) by which the facticity of organizational performance
40 accounts is progressively constructed. There also remain questions about the nature of the
41 general allure or “pull” of accounting facticity, such as the organizing power of ratios
42 (Kurunmäki & Miller, 2013) and rankings (Espeland & Sauder, 2016; Esposito & Stark, in
43 press). More work is specifically needed to understand how facticity, as an experience of
44 otherness, may itself be grounded in a more fundamental disposition to externalise and treat
45 numbers and accounts as being about the world. The performative model of the audit trail
46 points to the significance of such a process but it invites further specification. This further
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 work should return to the phenomenological origins of the concept of facticity and
4
5 reconstruct its influence through ethnomethodology and studies of sensemaking in order to
6
7 enrich the category of “pull”. In strong form the model proposes that the “push” against
8
9 reductive and simplifying performance representations is somehow eliminated by the pull of
10
11 accounting facticity. Yet, contra the model, it seems unlikely that critical reflection would be
12
13 entirely suppressed. Future research could challenge the model’s simplifications and develop
14
15 our understanding of the power of audit trails to constitute less unified selves (Butler, 1999)
16
17 which remain critically-reflective, while preserving the formative insights of strong
18
19 performativity.
20
21
22
23

24 **Developments in Digitization**

25
26
27 The implications of developments in digital technologies, such as blockchain and big
28
29 data, for the logic of the core model have been glossed over but require careful future
30
31 consideration. Indeed, if the cultural and organizational position of performance accounts, as
32
33 aggregations of determinate primary data, declines, then the theoretical power of the model
34
35 will be significantly diminished. But this remains an open question. On the one hand
36
37 blockchain promises to expand the range of objects which can be accounted for and traced,
38
39 provided they can be digitally and uniquely tagged. In this sense blockchain elevates the
40
41 audit trail logic from meta-logic into an end in itself. Blockchain, as traceability made
42
43 explicit and digital, radicalises the model and provides a platform for new performance
44
45 accounts and new facticities for values such as “sustainable fishing” (Power, in press). On
46
47 the other hand, the sheer plurality and heterogeneity of primary traces which comprise big
48
49 data and its predictive analytics may make conventional forms of organization-level
50
51 accounting redundant. With big data, any primary trace can be related to any other to
52
53 generate new patterns and predictive capabilities. Accordingly, work is needed to explore
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 whether and how developments in digital technologies will mean that audit trail processes in
4 organizations will intensify, mutate or be displaced.
5
6
7

8 **Meta-Logics** 9

10
11 A third area for future development is the claimed meta-logical status of the audit
12 trail, which has implications for thinking about institutional complexity. Not only do
13 organizational agents often have to navigate the binary complexity of different values and
14 their trade-offs, such as education versus efficiency; professionalism versus commercialism
15 (Thornton et al., 2005; Greenwood et al., 2011), but also, under societal conditions of
16 expanded performance reporting requirements for these different values (Bromley & Powell,
17 2012), the meta-logic of the audit trail must be added to the “complexity mix”. However, as
18 noted, the logic of the audit trail is not simply one logic among others competing for priority
19 in a plural world of well-formed logics. Its status is not that of a “toolkit” to be chosen more
20 or less reflectively by agents (McPherson & Sauder, 2013; Pache & Santos, 2013). Rather,
21 as a meta-logic it is the basis by which these other logics - institutional logics (Friedland &
22 Alford, 1991: 248) and their existential values (Mutch, 2018) - can be made operable, and
23 observable (Palermo et al., 2017). In short, via performance accounts, this meta-logic is
24 productive of the organizational facticity of these other logics.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43

44 Building on this notion of a meta-logic could also shed more light on how logics are
45 not only plural but also varied in their amenability to strategic choice. Logics which are
46 amenable to choice and discretion are more likely to lead to situations of institutional
47 complexity requiring trade-offs and choice (Kraatz & Block, 2008; Pache & Santos, 2010;
48 2013). However, by construction the meta-logic of the audit trail is less discretionary than
49 this. It has been suggested that it has grammar-like status. Just as grammars define what it is
50 to speak competently in a specific language, the repeated grammatical use of a language also
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 reinforces the grammar. By analogy, the meta-logic of the audit trail is a condition for the
4 production of competent performance accounting which in turn reinforces it. Yet unlike a
5 grammar, the meta-logic of the audit trail is biased towards auditability and this will
6 influence choices under conditions of institutional complexity where one value or
7 institutional logic seems more “auditable” than the other (Palermo et al., 2017).
8 Accordingly, future work could focus more on how the meta-logic of the audit trail is not
9 neutral in situations of multiple logics and institutional pluralism, and may influence the
10 “centrality” of one logic over another (Besharov & Smith, 2014), exactly as we see in the
11 audit society. Indeed, it could be fruitful to characterise institutional pluralism as a
12 “competition of facticities” where the power over accounts production is a key strategic
13 stake.

14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Future work could also explore meta-logics more generally and show how the logic of the audit trail is one of a family of meta-logics with grammar-like status. For example, another plausible candidate for meta-logic status is the notion of “due process” as it has evolved within and beyond law (Edelman, 1990; Edelman, Uggen & Erlanger, 1999). Like the logic of the audit trail, it is also seemingly procedural and content-neutral, and is widely diffused in non-legal settings as a vehicle for the legalization of organizations. Indeed, there are likely to be deep affinities between law and accounting at the level of micro-processes which are worthy of examination and which suggest further lines of theory development.

Amplification, Diffusion and Audit work

Finally, the strongly performative version of the model shows how disposition-formation and abstraction are mechanisms of practice diffusion and expansion, which begin with amplification at the organizational level. While disposition formation creates new subject-positions as carrier-agents, the abstract form of the logic (Strang & Meyer, 1993)

1
2
3 enables rapid diffusion to new performance settings, including those of the carriers
4
5 themselves, who are “infected” by it. For example, while professional service firms are in
6
7 some sense the manifest agents of the expansion of the logic of the audit trail (Suddaby et al.,
8
9 2007), the strongly performative model of its diffusion shows how this logic becomes both
10
11 independent of their agency and also recursively determinative of it. In other words, auditors,
12
13 regulators and other oversight bodies are as much subjects of this logic as they are its carriers.
14
15 This can be observed: while there are certainly more auditors, evaluators and overseers in the
16
17 audit society (Hood, James, Jones, Scott & Travers, 1998), these carriers of audit trail logic
18
19 are also subject to its cultural power in the form of requirements to produce primary traces of
20
21 their work (Pentland, 1993; Van Maanen & Pentland, 1994). This seeming “reverse
22
23 diffusion” of audit trail logic deserves more attention.
24
25
26
27
28

29 The model has inevitably taken some short cuts in its specification of micro-
30
31 foundations. There is a danger within the model of over-identifying the micro-level with
32
33 individual human actors (Harmon et al., in press), and thereby making the mechanics of logic
34
35 amplification too individualistic. The model’s central concept of disposition remains “thinly
36
37 social” and does not situate organizational actors in relational webs of action (Emirbayer &
38
39 Mische, 1998). This limitation is important because organizations are likely to be saturated
40
41 in audit trails relating to different performance representation requirements. Organizational
42
43 actors are confronted by multiple audit trails and interact in multi-actor settings. Future work
44
45 could therefore situate the micro-analysis of audit trail production within richer notions of
46
47 practice and practice formation (Pentland, 1993; Vaara & Whittington, 2012:287), paying
48
49 attention to the role of organizational actors with positional power in amplification processes.
50
51
52
53
54

55 In addition, the formative model of audit trails invites greater integration and
56
57 specification in conjunction with routines theory (Feldman & Pentland, 2003; D’Adderio,
58
59 2008; Cacciatori, 2012; Powell & Rerup, 2017: 313) to understand how the emergence of
60

1
2
3 performance reporting routines may shift collective dispositions. An empirical programme
4 could usefully explore a new category of institutional work, namely “audit work” understood
5 as the routinized work of organizational actors to represent, report and evaluate performance
6 (Power, 2016). Indeed, the intensity of audit society could in theory be measured by the
7 proportion of total work which is audit work in this sense, at the level of the individual,
8 organization and field.
9

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18 Finally, it must be acknowledged that a strongly performative model of disposition
19 formation exists in tension with theoretical emphases on leadership (Kraatz, 2009). Strong
20 performativity leading to audit society persistence seems to be at odds with the kind of
21 leadership which Selznick envisaged, making the latter at best an epiphenomenon of a deeper
22 formative process. Yet, if we follow Selznick and those who are reviving his work on the
23 significance of values in organizations (Besharov & Khurana, 2015), it is a core task of
24 leadership to manage and mitigate the risks of value subversion and pluralism, and to
25 generate facticity for organizational mission and purpose. There is therefore work to be done
26 to address both this theoretical tension and also the practical challenges for leaders and
27 regulators who wish to utilise performance accounting systems while also controlling their
28 value-subverting effects (Selznick, 1957; 7; Kraatz at al., 2010). To face up to these
29 challenges, leaders will need to understanding how the audit society actually works and pay
30 attention to the formative power of audit trails.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 CONCLUSION

49
50
51 At first glance, audit trails appear of limited theoretical and empirical interest. Yet,
52 this article has shown that they embody a formative logic which is powerful precisely
53 because it is mundane and invisible (Douglas, 1986:98). This logic has expanded well beyond
54 financial accounting to shape an explosion of performance accounts of many different kinds.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Its mechanism is central to contemporary modes of defining, representing and intervening in
4 the performance of individuals and organizations, and shapes them as “auditable subjects”
5
6 committed to reproduce its logic. While the primary motivation for developing this model
7
8 was to ground the microfoundations of the so-called audit society and its pathologies in a
9
10 generative mechanism which explains its persistence, we also find that value inversion and
11
12 means-end decoupling are not inevitable. We cannot therefore ignore the possibility that
13
14 audit trails may sometimes be efficacious policy instruments for embedding values, economic
15
16 or otherwise, in organizations. For this reason they deserve more theoretical and empirical
17
18 attention by scholars, regulators and policy makers.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

REFERENCES

Abbott, A. 1995. Things of boundaries. *Social Research*, 62(4): 857-882.

Accounting Tools (2018). Audit trail.

<https://www.accountingtools.com/articles/2017/5/7/audit-trail?rq=audit%20trail>

Accessed 17th January 2019.

Adler, P. S. & Borys, B. 1996. Two types of bureaucracy: Enabling and coercive.

Administrative Science Quarterly, 41(1): 61-89.

Allcott, H. & Gentzkow, M. 2017. Social media and fake news in the 2016 election. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 31(2):211-36.

Ansari, S. M., Fiss, P. C. & Zajac, E. J. 2010. Made to fit: How practices vary as they diffuse.

Academy of Management Review, 35(1):67-92.

Argyris, C. 1994. Litigation mentality and organizational learning. In S. Sitkin & R. Bies (Eds.) *The legalistic organization*: 347-58. Thousand Oaks, Ca: Sage.

Astley, W. G. & Zammuto, R. F. 1992. Organization science, managers, and language games.

Organization Science, 3(4): 443-460.

Barnes, B. 1983. Social life as bootstrapped induction. *Sociology*, 17(4): 524-545.

Barney, J. & Felin, T. 2013. What are microfoundations? *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 27(2): 138-155.

Battilana, J., Leca, B. & Boxenbaum, E. 2009. How actors change institutions: towards a theory of institutional entrepreneurship. *Academy of Management Annals*, 3(1): 65-107.

Baxter, J. & Clarke, J., 2013. Farewell to the tick box inspector? Ofsted and the changing regime of school inspection in England. *Oxford Review of Education*, 39(5):702-718.

1
2
3 Berger, P. L. & Luckmann, T. 1966. *The social construction of reality: A treatise in the*
4
5 *sociology of knowledge*. NY: First Anchor.

6
7
8 Bernstein, E. 2017. Making transparency transparent: The evolution of observation in
9
10 management theory. *Academy of Management Annals*, 11 (1): 217–266.

11
12
13 Besharov, M. L. & Smith, W. K. 2014. Multiple institutional logics in organizations:
14
15 Explaining their varied nature and implications. *Academy of Management Review*, 39(3):
16
17 364-381.

18
19
20
21 Besharov, M. L. & Khurana, R. 2015. Leading amidst competing technical and institutional
22
23 demands: Revisiting Selnick's conception of leadership. In M. Kraatz (Ed.) *Institutions and*
24
25 *ideals: Philip Selznick's legacy for organizational studies*: 53-88. Emerald Group
26
27 Publishing Limited.

28
29
30 Bevan, G. & Hood, C. 2006. What's measured is what matters: targets and gaming in the
31
32 English public health care system. *Public Administration*, 84:517-538

33
34
35 Bies, R. J. & Tyler, T. 1993. The litigation mentality in organizations: A test of alternative
36
37 psychological explanations. *Organization Science*, 4(3): 352-366.

38
39
40 Bourdieu, P. 2010. *Distinction: a social critique of the judgement of taste*. Transl. R. Nice
41
42 (1984). London & NewYork: Routledge.

43
44
45
46 Boxenbaum, E. & Jonsson, S. 2017. Isomorphism, diffusion and decoupling: Concept
47
48 evolution and theoretical challenges. In R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, T. Lawrence, & R. Meyer
49
50 (Eds.). *The Sage handbook of organizational institutionalism*: 79-104.

51
52
53
54 Bromley, P. & Powell, W. 2012. From smoke and mirrors to walking the talk: decoupling in
55
56 the contemporary world. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 6: 483-530.

- 1
2
3 Bromley, P. & Sharkey, A. 2017. Casting call: The expanding nature of actorhood in US
4 firms, 1960–2010. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 59: 3-20.
5
6
7
8 Burchell, S., Clubb, C., Hopwood, A., Hughes, J. & Nahapiet, J. 1980. The roles of
9 accounting in organizations and society. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 5(1): 5-27.
10
11
12
13 Butler, J. 1999. Performativity's social magic. In R. Shusterman (Ed.) *Bourdieu: A critical*
14 *reader*: 113-128. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
15
16
17
18 Butler, J. 2010. Performative agency. *Journal of Cultural Economy*, 3(2):147-161.
19
20
21
22 Cacciatori, E. 2012. Resolving conflict in problem-solving: systems of artefacts in the
23 development of new routines. *Journal of Management Studies*, 49(8):1559-1585.
24
25
26
27 Callewaert, S. 2006. Bourdieu, critic of Foucault: The case of empirical social science against
28 double-game-philosophy. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 23(6): 73-98.
29
30
31
32 Callon, M. 1998. Introduction: the embeddedness of economic markets in economics. *The*
33 *Sociological Review*, 46(S1): 1-57.
34
35
36
37 Camic, C. 1986. The matter of habit. *American Journal of Sociology*, 91(5): 1039-1087.
38
39
40
41 Cardinale, I. 2018. Beyond constraining and enabling: Towards new microfoundations for
42 institutional theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 43(1): 132-155.
43
44
45
46 Chapman, C. S., Cooper, D. J. & Miller, P., 2009. Linking accounting, organizations, and
47 institutions. In C. S. Chapman, D. J. Cooper & P. Miller (Eds.), *Accounting, organizations*
48 *and institutions*: 1-29. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
49
50
51
52
53 Christensen, L. T. & Cornelissen, J. 2015. Organizational transparency as myth and
54 metaphor. *European Journal of Social Theory*, 18(2): 132-149.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Cohen, M. D. 2007. Reading Dewey: Reflections on the study of routine. *Organization*
4
5 *Studies*, 28(5): 773-786.
6
7

8 Cohen, M. D. 2012. Perceiving and remembering routine action: Fundamental micro-level
9
10 origins. *Journal of Management Studies*, 49(8): 1383-1388.
11
12

13 Cooper, A. 2001. The state of mind we're in: Social anxiety, governance and the audit
14
15 society. *Psychoanalytic Studies*, 3(3-4): 349-362.
16
17

18 Cooren, F. 2004. Textual agency: how texts do things in organizational settings.
19
20 *Organization*, 11(3):373-393.
21
22

23 Cornelissen, J. 2017. Editor's comments: developing propositions, a process model, or a
24
25 typology? Addressing the challenges of writing theory without a boilerplate. *Academy of*
26
27 *Management Review*, 42: 1-9.
28
29

30 Cornelissen, J. P., Durand, R., Fiss, P. C., Lammers, J. C. & Vaara, E. 2015. Putting
31
32 communication front and center in institutional theory and analysis. *Academy of*
33
34 *Management Review*, 40(1): 10-27
35
36
37

38 Cronin, C. 1996. Bourdieu and Foucault on power and modernity. *Philosophy & Social*
39
40 *Criticism*, 22(6): 55-85.
41
42
43

44 Crossley, N., 2013. Habit and habitus. *Body & Society*, 19(2-3): 136-161.
45
46

47 D'Adderio, L. 2008. The performativity of routines: Theorising the influence of artefacts and
48
49 distributed agencies on routines dynamics. *Research Policy*, 37(5): 769-789.
50
51

52 Dambrin, C. & Robson, K. 2011. Tracing performance in the pharmaceutical industry:
53
54 Ambivalence, opacity and the performativity of flawed measures. *Accounting, Organizations*
55
56 *and Society*, 36(7): 428-455.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Dent, J. F. 1991. Accounting and organizational cultures: a field study of the emergence of a
4 new organizational reality. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 16(8): 705-732.
5
6
7

8 Dewey, J. 1922. *Human nature and conduct: An introduction to social psychology*. New
9 York: Holt.
10
11
12

13 Dick, P. 2015. From rational myth to self-fulfilling prophecy? Understanding the persistence
14 of means–ends decoupling as a consequence of the latent functions of policy enactment.
15
16
17
18 *Organization Studies*, 36(7): 897-924.
19
20

21 DiMaggio, P. J & Powell, W. W. 1991. Introduction. In W.W. Powell & P.J. DiMaggio
22 (Eds.). *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis*: 1-38. University of Chicago
23 Press.
24
25
26
27

28 Dionysiou, D. D. & Tsoukas, H. 2013. Understanding the (re) creation of routines from
29 within: A symbolic interactionist perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(2): 181-
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 Dirsmith, M. W. 1986. Discussion of “social environments and organizational accounting”.
38
39 *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 11(4-5): 357-367.
40
41

42 Douglas, M. 1986. *How institutions think*. London: Routledge.
43
44

45 Durkheim, E. 1982. What is a social fact? In S. Lukes (Ed.), *Durkheim: the rules of*
46
47 *sociological method*: 50-59. London: Palgrave.
48
49

50 Economist Leader. 2003. Sox it to them. *The Economist* July 31st
51
52

53 Edelman, L. B., 1990. Legal environments and organizational governance: The expansion of
54
55
56
57
58
59
60 due process in the American workplace. *American Journal of Sociology*, 95(6): 1401-1440.

1
2
3 Edelman, L., Uggen, C. & Erlanger, H. 1999. The endogeneity of legal regulation: grievance
4 procedures as rational myth. *American Journal of Sociology*, 105(2): 406-54
5
6
7

8 Emirbayer, M. & Mische, A. 1998. What is agency? *American Journal of Sociology*, 103(4):
9 962-1023.
10
11
12

13 Espeland, W. & M. Stevens. 1998. Commensuration as a social process. *Annual Review of*
14 *Sociology*, 24:312-43.
15
16
17

18 Espeland, W. & Sauder, M. 2007. Rankings and reactivity: how public measures recreate
19 social worlds. *American Journal of Sociology*, 113(1): 1-30
20
21
22

23 Espeland, W. N. & Sauder, M. 2016. *Engines of anxiety: Academic rankings, reputation,*
24 *and accountability*. Russell Sage Foundation.
25
26
27

28 Esposito, E. & Stark, D. In press. What's observed in a rating? Rankings as orientation in the
29 face of uncertainty. *Theory, Culture & Society*.
30
31
32

33 Falk, A. & Kosfeld, M. 2006. The hidden costs of control. *The American Economic Review*
34 96(5):1611-1630.
35
36
37

38 Fauré, B., Brummans, B. H., Giroux, H. & Taylor, J. R. 2010. The calculation of business, or
39 the business of calculation? Accounting as organizing through everyday communication.
40 *Human Relations*, 63(8): 1249-1273.
41
42
43
44

45 Favarel-Garrigues, G., Godefroy, T. & Lascoumes, P. 2011. Reluctant partners? Banks in the
46 fight against money laundering and terrorism financing in France. *Security Dialogue*, 42(2):
47 179-196.
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 Feldman, M. S. & Pentland, B. T. 2003. Reconceptualizing organizational routines as a
55 source of flexibility and change. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 48(1):.94-118.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Felin, T., Foss, N. J. & Ployhart, R. E. 2015. The microfoundations movement in strategy and
4 organization theory. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 9(1): 575-632.

5
6
7
8 Felin, T., Foss, N. J., Heimeriks, K. H. & Madsen, T. L. 2012. Microfoundations of routines
9 and capabilities: Individuals, processes, and structure. *Journal of Management Studies*,
10 49(8): 1351-1374.

11
12
13
14
15 Foucault, M. 1977. *Discipline and punish*. Transl. A. Sheridan. London: Allen Lane.

16
17
18
19 Frey, B. & Jegen, R. 2001. Motivation crowding theory. *Journal of Economic Surveys*,
20 15(1): 589-611.

21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31 Friedland, R. 2017. The value of institutional logics. In G. Krücken, C. Mazza, R. Meyer &
32 P. Walgenbach (Eds.). *New themes in institutional analysis: Topics and issues from*
33 *European Research*: 12-50. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60 Friedland, R. & Alford, R. 1991. Bringing society back in: symbols, practices and
contradictions. In W. W. Powell & P.J. DiMaggio (Eds.), *The new institutionalism in*
organizational analysis: 232-263. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
103
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
205
206
207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225
226
227
228
229
230
231
232
233
234
235
236
237
238
239
240
241
242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284
285
286
287
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313
314
315
316
317
318
319
320
321
322
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
330
331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355
356
357
358
359
360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373
374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381
382
383
384
385
386
387
388
389
390
391
392
393
394
395
396
397
398
399
400
401
402
403
404
405
406
407
408
409
410
411
412
413
414
415
416
417
418
419
420
421
422
423
424
425
426
427
428
429
430
431
432
433
434
435
436
437
438
439
440
441
442
443
444
445
446
447
448
449
450
451
452
453
454
455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
464
465
466
467
468
469
470
471
472
473
474
475
476
477
478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513
514
515
516
517
518
519
520
521
522
523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531
532
533
534
535
536
537
538
539
540
541
542
543
544
545
546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626
627
628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716
717
718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755
756
757
758
759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766
767
768
769
770
771
772
773
774
775
776
777
778
779
780
781
782
783
784
785
786
787
788
789
790
791
792
793
794
795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803
804
805
806
807
808
809
810
811
812
813
814
815
816
817
818
819
820
821
822
823
824
825
826
827
828
829
830
831
832
833
834
835
836
837
838
839
840
841
842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885
886
887
888
889
890
891
892
893
894
895
896
897
898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917
918
919
920
921
922
923
924
925
926
927
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
945
946
947
948
949
950
951
952
953
954
955
956
957
958
959
960
961
962
963
964
965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000

Gawande, A. 2010. *The checklist manifesto: How to get things right*. London: Profile Books.

Gilad, S. 2011. Institutionalizing fairness in financial markets: Mission impossible?.
Regulation & Governance, 5(3): 309-332.

Gond, J.-P., Cabantous, L., Harding, N. & Learmonth, M. 2016. What do we mean by
performativity in organizational and management theory? The uses and abuses of
performativity. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 18(4): 440-464

1
2
3 Gray, G. & Silbey, S. 2014. Governing inside the organization: interpreting regulation and
4 compliance. *American Journal of Sociology*, 120(1):96-145.
5
6

7
8 Greenwood, R. & Hinings, C.R., 1996. Understanding radical organizational change:
9 Bringing together the old and the new institutionalism. *Academy of Management Review*,
10 21(4): 1022-1054.
11
12

13
14 Greenwood, R., Raynard, M., Kodeih, F., Micelotta, E. R. & Lounsbury M. 2011.
15 Institutional complexity and organizational responses. *The Academy of Management*
16 *Annals*, 5:317-71.
17
18

19
20 Hacking, I. 2002. Making up people. In I. Hacking (Ed.) *Historical ontology*: 99-114.
21
22 Cambridge, Ma.: Harvard
23

24
25 Haack, P. & Schoeneborn, D. 2015. Is decoupling becoming decoupled from institutional
26 theory? A commentary on Wijen. *Academy of Management Review*, 40(2): 307-310.
27
28

29
30 Harmon, D., Haack, P. & Roulet, T. In Press. Microfoundations of institutions: A matter of
31 structure vs. agency or levels of analysis? *Academy of Management Review*.
32
33

34
35 Hines, R. D. 1988. Financial accounting: In communicating reality, we construct reality.
36 *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 13(3): 251-261.
37
38

39
40 Hinings, C. R., Logue, D. & Zietsma, C. 2017. Fields, institutional infrastructure and
41 governance. In R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, T. Lawrence & R. Meyer (Eds.), *The Sage*
42 *handbook of organizational institutionalism*: 216-245. Thousand Oaks, Ca.: Sage.
43
44

45
46 Hirsch, P. M. & Lounsbury, M. 1997. Ending the family quarrel: Toward a reconciliation of
47 “old” and “new” institutionalisms. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 40(4): 406-418.
48
49

50
51 Hood, C. 1995. The “New Public Management” in the 1980s: variations on a theme.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Hood, C., James, O., Jones, G., Scott, C. & Travers, T. 1998. Regulation inside government:
4 where new public management meets the audit explosion. *Public Money and Management*,
5
6 18(2): 61-68.
7
8

9
10 Hopwood, A. G., 1992. Accounting calculation and the shifting sphere of the economic.
11
12 *European Accounting Review*, 1(1): 125-143.
13
14

15
16 Horkheimer, M. & Adorno, T. W. 2002. G. Noerr (ed.) Transl E. Jephcott. *Dialectic of*
17
18 *enlightenment*. Stanford University Press.
19

20
21 Hull, M. S. 2012. Documents and bureaucracy. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 41:251-
22
23 267.
24
25

26
27 Jeacle, I. & Carter, C. 2011. In TripAdvisor we trust: Rankings, calculative regimes and
28
29 abstract systems. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 36(4): 293-309.
30

31
32 Jepperson, R. 1991. Institutions, institutional effects, and institutionalism. In W.W. Powell &
33
34 P.J. DiMaggio (Eds.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis*: 143-163.
35
36 University of Chicago Press.
37

38
39 Kalev, A., Dobbin, F. & Kelly, E. 2006. Best practices or best guesses? Assessing the
40
41 efficacy of corporate affirmative action and diversity policies. *American Sociological*
42
43 *Review*, 71(4): 589-617.
44
45

46
47 Kaghan, W. & Lounsbury, M. 2006. Artifacts, articulation work and institutional residue. In
48
49 A Rafaeli & M. Pratt (Eds.), *Artifacts and organizations: beyond mere symbolism*: 259-278.
50
51 Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
52

53
54 Kelly, E. & Dobbin, F. 1998. How affirmative action became diversity management:
55
56 Employer response to antidiscrimination law, 1961 to 1996. *American Behavioral Scientist*,
57
58 41(7): 960-984.
59
60

1
2
3 Ketokivi, M., Mantere, S. & Cornelissen, J. 2017. Reasoning by analogy and the progress of
4 theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 42(4): 637-658.

5
6
7
8 Klamer, A. & McCloskey, D. 1992. Accounting as the master metaphor of economics.
9
10 *European Accounting Review*, 1(1): 145-160.

11
12
13 Kraatz, M. S. 2009. Leadership as institutional work: A bridge to the other side. In T.
14 Lawrence, R. Suddaby & B. Leca (Eds.), *Institutional work: Actors and agency in*
15 *institutional studies of organizations*: 59-91. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

16
17
18
19
20
21 Kraatz, M. S. & Block, E. S., 2008. Organizational implications of institutional pluralism. In
22 R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, R. Suddaby & K. Sahlin-Andersson (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of*
23 *organizational institutionalism*: 243-275. London: Sage.

24
25
26
27
28
29 Kraatz, M. S. & Flores, R. 2015. Reinfusing values. In M. Kraatz (Ed.), *Institutions and*
30 *ideals: Philip Selznick's legacy for organizational studies*: 353-381. Emerald Group
31 Publishing Limited.

32
33
34
35
36
37 Kraatz, M., Ventresca, M. & Deng, L. 2010. Precarious values and mundane innovations:
38 Enrollment management in American liberal arts colleges. *Academy of Management*
39 *Journal*, 53(6):1521-1545.

40
41
42
43 Kurunmäki, L. & Miller, P. 2013. Calculating failure: The making of a calculative
44 infrastructure for forgiving and forecasting failure. *Business History*, 55(7):1100-1118.

45
46
47
48
49 Lampel, J. & Meyer, A.D. 2008. Guest editors' introduction: Field-configuring events as
50 structuring mechanisms: How conferences, ceremonies, and trade shows constitute new
51 technologies, industries, and markets. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(6): 1025-1035.

52
53
54
55
56
57 Lampland, M. 2010. False numbers as formalizing practices. *Social Studies of Science*,
58
59 40(3): 377-404.
60

1
2
3 Langley, A., 1999. Strategies for theorizing from process data. *Academy of Management*
4 *Review*, 24(4): 691-710.

5
6
7
8 Lawrence, T., Suddaby, R. & Leca, B. (Eds.). 2009. *Institutional work: actors and agency*
9 *in institutional studies of organizations*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

10
11
12
13 Lewis, S. & Boyle, M. 2017. The expanding role of traceability in seafood: tools and key
14 initiatives. *Journal of Food Science*, 82(S1): A14-A21

15
16
17
18 Lezaun, J. 2006. Creating a new object of government: making genetically modified
19 organisms traceable. *Social Studies of Science*, 36(4): 499-531.

20
21
22
23
24 Lok, J., Creed, W. E. D., DeJordy, R. & Voronov, M., 2017. Living institutions: Bringing
25 emotions into organizational institutionalism. In R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, T. Lawrence & R.
26 Meyer (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of organizational institutionalism*: 691-620. Thousand
27 Oaks, Ca.: Sage.

28
29
30
31
32
33
34 Lounsbury, M. 2008. Institutional rationality and practice variation: new directions in the
35 institutional analysis of practice. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 33(4-5):349-361.

36
37
38
39 Lupton, D. 2016. The diverse domains of quantified selves: self-tracking modes and
40 dataveillance. *Economy and Society*, 45(1): 101-122.

41
42
43
44 MacKenzie, D. 2006. *An engine, not a camera: How financial models shape markets*.
45 Cambridge, Ma.: MIT Press.

46
47
48
49 MacKenzie, D., Muniesa, F. & Siu, L. 2007. Introduction. In D. MacKenzie, F. Muniesa &
50 L. Siu (Eds.), *Do economists make markets? On the performativity of economics*: 1-19.
51 Princeton University Press, Princeton.

52
53
54
55
56
57
58 Marquis, C. & Tilcsik, A. 2013. Imprinting: Toward a multilevel theory. *Academy of*
59 *Management Annals*, 7(1): 195-245.

1
2
3 Marquis, C., Toffel, M. W. & Zhou, Y., 2016. Scrutiny, norms, and selective disclosure: A
4 global study of greenwashing. *Organization Science*, 27(2): 483-504.
5
6
7

8 Marti, W. & Gond, J-P. 2018. Why do theories become self-fulfilling? Exploring the
9 boundary conditions of performativity. *Academy of Management Review*, 43(3): 487-508.
10
11
12

13 Mazmanian, M. & Beckman, C. M. 2018. "Making" your numbers: Engendering
14 organizational control through a ritual of quantification. *Organization Science*, 29(3): 357-
15 379.
16
17
18
19

20 McGivern, G.& Ferlie, E. 2007. Playing tick-box games: Interrelating defences in
21 professional appraisal. *Human Relations*, 60(9):.1361-1385.
22
23
24
25

26 McPherson, C. M. & Sauder, M. 2013. Logics in action: Managing institutional complexity
27 in a drug court. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 58(2): 165-196.
28
29
30

31 Mennicken, A. M.& Espeland, W. In press. What's new with numbers? Sociological
32 approaches to the study of quantification. *Annual Review of Sociology*.
33
34
35
36

37 Merconi, R. 2003. On auditing audit trail. *Security Watch*, 46 (1):17-20.
38
39

40 Meyer, J.W. 1986. Social environments and organizational accounting. *Accounting,*
41 *Organizations and Society*, 11(4-5): 345-356.
42
43
44

45 Meyer, J. W. & Rowan, B. 1977. Institutionalized organizations: Formal structure as myth
46 and ceremony. *American Journal of Sociology*, 83(2): 340-363.
47
48
49

50 Miller, P., 1992. Accounting and objectivity: the invention of calculating selves and
51 calculable spaces. *Annals of Scholarship*, 9(1/2): 61-86.
52
53
54

55 Miller, P. & O'Leary, T. 1987. Accounting and the construction of the governable person.
56 *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 12: 235-65.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Miller, P. & Power, M. 2013. Accounting, organizing and economizing: connecting
4 accounting research and organization theory. *The Academy of Management Annals*,
5 7(1):557-605.
6
7
8
9
10 Miller, P. & Rose, N. 1990. Governing economic life. *Economy and Society*, 19(1): 1-31.
11
12
13 Munro, E. 2004. The impact of audit on social work practice. *British Journal of Social*
14 *Work*, 34(8):.1075-1095.
15
16
17
18 Mutch, A. 2018. Practice, substance and history: reframing institutional logics. *Academy of*
19 *Management Review*, 43(2): 242-258.
20
21
22
23
24 Oliver, C., 1991. Strategic responses to institutional processes. *Academy of Management*
25 *Review*, 16(1): 145-179.
26
27
28
29 Orlikowski, W. & Scott, S. 2014. What happens when evaluation goes online? Exploring
30 apparatuses of valuation in the travel sector. *Organization Science*, 25(3):868-91.
31
32
33
34 Pache, A. C. & Santos, F. 2010. When worlds collide: The internal dynamics of
35 organizational responses to conflicting institutional demands. *Academy of Management*
36 *Review*, 35(3): 455-476.
37
38
39
40
41
42 Pache, A. C. & Santos, F. 2013. Inside the hybrid organization: Selective coupling as a
43 response to competing institutional logics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(4): 972-
44 1001.
45
46
47
48
49
50 Palermo, T., Power, M. & Ashby, S. 2017. Navigating institutional complexity: the
51 production of risk culture in the financial sector. *Journal of Management Studies*, 54(2):
52 154-181.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60 Pentland, B.T. 1993. Getting comfortable with the numbers: Auditing and the micro-
production of macro-order. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 18(7-8): 605-620.

1
2
3 Pentland, B., Haerem, T. & Hillison, D. 2011. The (N)ever-changing world: stability and
4 change in organizational routines. *Organization Science*, 22:1369-83
5
6

7
8 Pflueger, D. 2016. Knowing patients: The customer survey and the changing margins of
9 accounting in healthcare. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 53:17-33.
10
11

12
13 Phillips, N., Lawrence, T. B. & Hardy, C. 2004. Discourse and institutions. *Academy of*
14 *Management Review*, 29(4): 635-652.
15
16

17
18 Powell, W. & Rerup. 2017. Opening the black box: the microfoundations of institutions. In
19 R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, T. Lawrence & R. Meyer (Eds.). *The Sage handbook of*
20 *organizational institutionalism*, 387-416. Thousand Oaks, Ca.: Sage.
21
22
23

24
25 Power, M. 1996. Making things auditable. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 21 (2/3):
26 289-315.
27
28

29
30 Power, M. 1997. *The audit society: rituals of verification*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
31
32

33
34 Power, M. 2015. How accounting begins: Object formation and the accretion of
35 infrastructure. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 47: 43-55.
36
37

38
39 Power, M. 2016. Postscript: On riskwork and auditwork. In M. Power (Ed.), *Riskwork:*
40 *essays on the organizational life of risk management*: 274-284. Oxford: Oxford University
41 Press.
42
43
44

45
46 Power, M. In press. Infrastructures of traceability. In M. Kornberger, G. Bowker, N. Pollock,
47 P. Miller, A. Mennicken, J. Randa Nucho & J. Elyachar (Eds.), *Thinking infrastructures:*
48 *Research in the sociology of organizations*. Bingley UK: Emerald Group Publishing
49 Limited.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Quattrone, P. 2015. Governing social orders, unfolding rationality, and Jesuit accounting
4 practices: a procedural approach to institutional logics. *Administrative Science Quarterly*,
5
6 60(3), 411-445.
7
8

9
10 Riles, A. 2006. (Ed.). *Documents: artifacts of modern knowledge*. University of Michigan
11
12 Press.
13
14

15
16 Rival, A., Montet, D. & Pioch, D. 2016. Certification, labelling and traceability of palm oil:
17
18 can we build confidence from trustworthy standards? *OCL*, 23(6): D609.
19
20

21
22 Roberts, J. 2018. Managing only with transparency: The strategic functions of ignorance.
23
24 *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 55: 53-60.
25

26
27 Sauder, M. & Espeland, W. N. 2009. The discipline of rankings: Tight coupling and
28
29 organizational change. *American Sociological Review*, 74(1): 63-82.
30
31

32
33 SEC. 2005. Roundtable discussion on implementation of internal control reporting
34
35 provisions. Washington DC: United States Securities and Exchange Commission.
36

37
38 Selznick, P. 1957. *Leadership in administration: A sociological interpretation*. Berkeley,
39
40 Ca.: University of California Press.
41

42
43 Selznick, P. 1996. Institutionalism "old" and "new". *Administrative Science Quarterly*,
44
45 41(2): 270-277.
46

47
48 Sharon, T. & Zandbergen, D. 2017. From data fetishism to quantifying selves: Self-tracking
49
50 practices and the other values of data. *New Media & Society*, 19(11): 1695-1709.
51

52
53 Shore, C. & Wright, S. 2015. Audit culture revisited: Rankings, ratings, and the reassembling
54
55 of society. *Current Anthropology*, 56(3): 431-432.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Sitkin, S. & Bies, R. 1994. The legalization of organizations: a multi-theoretical perspective.
4
5 In S. Sitkin & R. Bies (Eds.), *The legalistic organization*:19-49. Thousand Oaks, Ca: Sage.
6
7
8 Smith, D. 1984. Textually mediated social organization. *International Social Science*
9
10 *Journal*, 36:59-75
11
12
13 Strang, D. & Meyer, J. W. 1993. Institutional conditions for diffusion. *Theory and Society*,
14
15 22(4): 487-511.
16
17
18 Strathern, M., 1997. "Improving ratings": audit in the British University system. *European*
19
20 *Review*, 5(3): 305-321.
21
22
23 Strathern, M. (Ed.). 2000a. *Audit cultures: anthropological studies in accountability, ethics*
24
25 *and the academy*. London: Routledge.
26
27
28 Strathern, M. 2000b. The tyranny of transparency. *British Educational Research Journal*,
29
30 26(3): 309-321.
31
32
33 Suddaby, R., Cooper, D. J. & Greenwood, R., 2007. Transnational regulation of professional
34
35 services: Governance dynamics of field level organizational change. *Accounting,*
36
37 *Organizations and Society*, 32(4-5): 333-362.
38
39
40 Swedberg, R. 2014. From theory to theorizing. In R. Swedberg (Ed.). *Theorizing in social*
41
42 *science: the context of discovery*: 1-28. Stanford, CA.: Stanford University Press.
43
44
45 Thornton, P. H., Jones, C. & Kury, K., 2005. Institutional logics and institutional change in
46
47 organizations: Transformation in accounting, architecture, and publishing. In C. Jones & P.
48
49 H. Thornton (Eds.), *Transformation in cultural industries (Research in the sociology of*
50
51 *organizations)*, 23:125-170. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
52
53
54 Thornton, P. H., Ocasio, W. & Lounsbury, M. 2012. *The institutional logics perspective: A*
55
56 *new approach to culture, structure, and process*. Oxford University Press.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Townley, B. 1993. Foucault, power/knowledge, and its relevance for human resource
4 management. *Academy of Management Review*, 18(3): 518-545.
5
6
7
8 Townley, B. 1997. The institutional logic of performance appraisal. *Organization Studies*,
9 18(2): 261-285.
10
11
12
13 Tsoukas, H., 1997. The tyranny of light: The temptations and the paradoxes of the
14 information society. *Futures*, 29(9): 827-843.
15
16
17
18
19 Turner, S. F. & Cacciatori, E., 2016. The multiplicity of habit. Implications for routines
20 research. In J. Howard-Grenville, C. Rerup, A. Langley & H. Tsoukas (Eds), *Organizational*
21 *routines: How they are created, maintained, and changed*: 71- 95. Oxford University Press.
22
23
24
25
26
27 Vaara, E. & Whittington, R. 2012. Strategy-as-practice: Taking social practices seriously.
28 *Academy of Management Annals*, 6(1): 285-336.
29
30
31
32 Van Maanen, J. & Pentland, B. 1994. Cops and auditors: the rhetoric of records. In S. Sitkin
33 and R. Bies (Eds.) *The legalistic organization*, 53-90. Thousand Oaks, Ca: Sage.
34
35
36
37 Vollmer H, Mennicken A & Preda A. 2009. Tracking the numbers: Across accounting and
38 finance, organizations and markets. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*. 34(5): 619-37.
39
40
41
42 Voronov, M. & Weber, K. 2016. The heart of institutions: Emotional competence and
43 institutional actorhood. *Academy of Management Review*, 41(3): 456-478.
44
45
46
47
48 Wijen, F. 2014. Means versus ends in opaque institutional fields; trading off compliance and
49 achievement in sustainability standard adoption. *Academy of Management Review*,
50 39(3):302-323n.
51
52
53
54
55 Wijen, F. 2015. Coupling, not decoupling, should be institutional theory's mantra: A rejoinder
56 to Haack and Schoeneborn. *Academy of Management Review*, 40(2): 310-313.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Winter, S.G. 2013. Habit, deliberation, and action: Strengthening the microfoundations of
4 routines and capabilities. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 27(2): 120-137.
5
6

7
8 Wittgenstein, L. 1976 [1953] Translated by G.E. Anscombe. *Philosophical investigations*.
9
10 Oxford: Blackwell
11
12

13
14 WWF. 2015. Traceability principles for wild-caught fish products.
15

16 [https://www.worldwildlife.org/publications/traceability-principles-for-wild-caught-fish-](https://www.worldwildlife.org/publications/traceability-principles-for-wild-caught-fish-products)
17 [products](https://www.worldwildlife.org/publications/traceability-principles-for-wild-caught-fish-products) Accessed 2018 January 9th
18
19

20
21 Zajac, E. J. & Westphal, J.D. 2004. The social construction of market value:
22

23 Institutionalization and learning perspectives on stock market reactions. *American*
24
25 *Sociological Review*, 69(3): 433-457.
26
27

28
29 Zucker, L. G. 1977. The role of institutionalization in cultural persistence. *American*
30
31 *Sociological Review*, 726-743.
32
33

34 Zuckerman, E. W. 2010. What if we had been in charge? The sociologist as builder of
35 rational institutions. In M. Lounsbury & P. Hirsch (Eds.), *Markets on trial: The economic*
36
37 *sociology of the US financial crisis (Research in the sociology of organizations)*, 30B: 359-
38
39 378. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

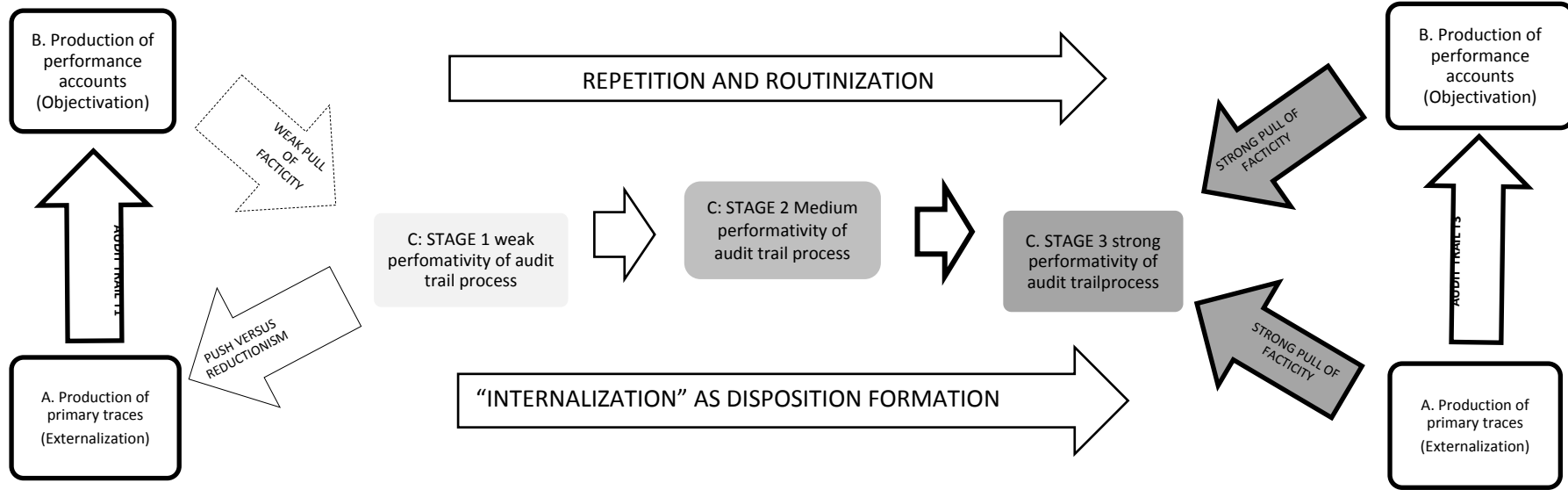
TABLE 1

Performativity and the audit trail process

Time	Form of performativity (based on MacKenzie, 2006 typology)	A: Production of primary traces (externalization)	B: Emergence of performance facticity in performance accounts (objectification)	C: Formation of disposition (to reproduce audit trails) (internalization)
T1	Weak = "Generic" (Accounting is simply adopted and produced by organizational actors)	Compliant adoption	Weak Pull (conventional)	Weak (critical-reflexive push)
T2	Medium = "Effective" (Accounting has effects on organizational processes)	Routinization	Medium Pull (becoming naturalised)	Medium (strategic-reflexive)
T3	Strong = "Barnesian" (Accounting production makes organizational processes and actors more like their accounting representations)	Amplification	Strong Pull (fully naturalised)	Strong (habitual- pre-reflexive)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

Figure 1
The Performative Logic of the Audit Trail



1
2
3 **Michael Power** (m.k.power@lse.ac.uk) is professor of accounting at the London School of Economics and a Fellow of the British Academy. He
4 obtained a PhD in philosophy from Cambridge UK. His research and teaching focus on regulation, accounting, auditing, risk management,
5 internal control and organization theory.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46