Appendix: Methodology of the Studies

The embryologists

The present study is based on a case study methodology (Siggelkow, 2007; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; David, 2006; Patton and Appalbaum, 2003; Gillham, 2000; Stake, 1996; Eisenhardt, 1989) and included 25 interviewees in eight different assisted fertilization clinics in Sweden, public as well as private, as well as researchers in the field of reproductive medicine. In addition, two patient couples were interviewed. In total, there are six public clinics and ten private clinics in the whole of Sweden. It is estimated that round 150–200 persons are employed in these clinics in toto. Interviews were structured by an interview guide, composed of both questions derived from the literature on assisted fertilization and wider theoretical interest pertaining to the organization of the clinics. The interviewees included directors of clinics, gynecologists, and other medical doctors, midwives and nurses, embryologists and biochemists, professors in university departments in reproductive medicine, and administrators. The study included some of the pioneers of assisted fertilization in Sweden, professors in reproductive medicine who have both advanced the clinical practice and various technologies and techniques and have served as entrepreneurs when private clinics have been started in the major cities in 1980s. Many of the interviewees had extensive experience from the field and could tell stories of how the field has advanced from being something like a curiosity, based on experimental reproductive medicine, to a full-scale, legitimate clinical practice with good clinical efficacy and high patient safety.

The sample of interviewees included all of the key professional groups operating in the field of assisted fertilization. All interviews were conducted in situ, were tape-recorded, and lasted around one hour, with
some interviews lasting for one and a half hours. Interviews were transcribed by a professional transcriber and were coded individually by two senior researchers. The interview excerpts were first coded (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) on basis of the basic content of the quote, and as all transcripts were divided into such encoded passages, they were structured into larger “second-order” categories serving to interrelate the theoretical framework and the empirical material (see, for example, Spradley, 1979, chapter 8). Examples of such codes were “technology development,” “policy and regulations,” and “scientific practices.” These second-order categories were used to “emplot” (White, 1987) the data into a narrative.

The ministers of the Church of Sweden

The study is based on a case study methodology, frequently used in organization studies and used in previous studies of the professional category of priests (in the Catholic Church) and ministers (in Protestant Churches) (Bagilhole, 2002; Aldridge, 1994). The Church of Sweden is here the case of a professional organization employing, inter alia, university-educated and ordained ministers. The Church of Sweden hires a variety of occupational and professional groups, including ministers, deacons, musicians, and administrative staff and janitors. The ministers, having five to six years of university training in theology, are the professional group that has the responsibility for the pastoral work in the dioceses and parishes. That is, they have a professional domain of jurisdiction excluding other professional and occupational groups in the Church. The managers and leaders of the Church, for example, the vicars (the head and administrative managing director of the parish), the bishops, and the archbishop are recruited from the category of ministers. In analogy with the health-care sector, the minister plays a role similar to that of physicians and physiologists as being the principal professional category having the expertise in the core activities (that is, theology and clinical medicine, respectively).

Data collection. The Internet homepage of the Church of Sweden presents the geographically organized dioceses and lists all parishes in the Diocese of Gothenburg. From an Internet list of 196 parishes in the diocese, an e-mail presenting the research project and research questions was submitted to 15 parishes. The parishes were selected to represent both the city of Gothenburg, Sweden’s second-largest metropolitan area with around 900,000 inhabitants, and the parishes in the suburbs and in the countryside. Of the 15 parishes, 8 responded they were interested
in participating in the study. Eventually, some ministers were preoccupied with other issues and concerns, and finally ministers in 7 parishes participated in the study. Twelve ministers, six men and six women, were interviewed. As discussed by, for example, Gubrium and Holstein (2003), Atkinson and Coffrey (2003), and Alvesson (2003), the interview situation must not be treated as a situation wherein the interviewee is getting access to “the ‘facts’ about the world” (Silverman, 1993: 90), so that the interview unfolds as “a simple information-gathering operation” (Gubrium and Holstein, 2003: 4). Instead, the interview is regarded an “[o]ccasion for purposefully animated participants to construct versions of reality interactionally” (Gubrium and Holstein, 2003: 14). At the same time as one cannot, as Atkinson and Coffrey (2003: 117) say, “take the interview as a proxy for action,” the interview situation provides a setting in which the interviewee can articulate and reflect on his or her work life situation. Based on a speech-act theory framework (see for example, Austin, 1962), the interview situation is based on the performatory act of articulating meaningful narratives of everyday work.

A semi-structured interview guide addressing key issues (for example, the organization of the day-to-day work, the economic situation of the Church, the use of managerial control systems, and the minister’s view on the secularization of society) was used in all interviews. Interviews were conducted by a senior researcher and took place in the ministers’ offices. All interviews were conducted in Swedish, the native language of all interviewees and senior researcher, and were tape-recorded. The interviews lasted for about one hour. Follow-up questions were frequently asked in cases where interesting issues and themes were addressed. In many cases, the researcher experienced what Frankenberg (1993: 41) speaks of as “tip-of-the-iceberg moments” in research work, wherein there was “[an] enormous amount that was not being expressed” in the interviews. In many cases, the ministers merely indicated that some concerns were hard to address in the Church. In other cases, the ministers were more outspoken, and in general they gave the impression of being sincerely interested in expressing their beliefs.

Data analysis. The interviews were transcribed verbatim by a senior researcher. Interview excerpts were translated into English. All interview excerpts were coded into one of eight categories being defined on basis of both the interview guide content and the actual content of the interviews. The categories were in turn both based on theoretical constructs and analytical terms such as “professional identities” or “managerial control,” or were more loosely defined, as in the case of “everyday work” or “secularization of society.” All coded interview excerpts from the
individual interviews were transferred to a single document in which the interview excerpts were listed under joint categories. The different categories, each containing a series of interview excerpts, were organized into a narrative structure that would enable an emplotment of the empirical material. The analysis of the empirical material is thus consistent with the data analysis methods prescribed in the literature cited above.

The Culture Agency officers

Research design and choice of research object. The present study seeks to explore how culture work and culture competence are valued and priced in a political and economic context, that of the regional economy. A qualitative methodology such as a case study methodology is justified on basis of the intricate balancing of economic, social, and culture politics considerations managed by the officers of the Regional Culture Office. In addition, case study methodologies have been used by previous research that studies the valuation of resources (see for example, Fourcade, 2011; Velthuis, 2003; Zelizer, 1985).

Data collection. The data collection included three sources of empirical material. First, Internet home pages reporting regional policies and political objectives and the role of the Culture Agency were used. In the Swedish political system, all political decisions are public material, and consequently political decisions regarding culture politics are posted on the region’s home page. This Internet-based information provides valuable information for the research work. Second, the study included the use of internal documents provided by the Culture Agency. These documents included policy documents and documents prescribing the negotiated goals and objectives for the coming period of time, the so-called “assignment.” The assignment is based on the needs, demands, and aspirations of the focal culture institution or actor and the culture policies enacted by the regional parliament of the Västra Götaland Region. The assignment is thus a form of “hybrid object” wherein cultural, political, and economic objectives are included and balanced. In addition to the goals and objectives, the assignment includes more specified goals accompanied by so-called “indicators” enabling an evaluation if the culture institutions or actors that have been able to fulfill their goals during the period. Third and finally, the study is based on interviews with officers in the Culture Agency. At an early stage of the program, the researcher was invited to present the research project and its objectives during the weekly start-up meeting on Monday morning. The Culture
Agency includes 18 co-workers, of whom 13 have specific domains of expertise and responsibilities. In the study, 8 officers and the managing director were interviewed. All interviews were conducted in the Culture Agency’s head office in Gothenburg and lasted for about one hour. Interviews were based on a semi-structured interview guide, were tape-recorded and were transcribed verbatim by a senior researcher.

**Data analysis.** The Internet homepage was used to collect basic information about the role of the Culture Agency. The internal documents specifying the assignments were examined as a form of combination of policy documents and contracts, on the one hand articulating the objectives of the culture institutions, while on the other hand making reference to general political objectives and the long-term goals of the regional parliament. The interviews were transcribed, and different passages in the transcript was given codes. These codes were drawn both from the theoretical framework and from the vocabulary used by the officers. At times, etic (the outsider's analytical categories) and emic (the insider’s practical categories. See Boje, 2001) categories were the same. Interview excerpts from different interviews with the same code were located in a new document under a shared heading. The different categories of quotes were finally organized into a sequence enabling the emplotment of the empirical material.
Introduction: On Judgment

1. An important distinction is here made between judgment and taste. Judgment is the public and formal application of professional know-how in jurisdictional domains; in contrast, taste is private preferences and favored aesthetics. The concept of taste has received scholarly attention both in the social sciences and in the humanities (by, for example, historians, see Schwartz, 1995). Sociologists tend to conceive of taste as what serves as a threshold between individual biographies, experiences, and preferences and social identities and membership in social strata and communities (Bourdieu, 1984). “What one ‘likes’ is... confusing, linked as it is to the multiple game of likes and dislikes and founded in childhood habits, which are either magnified by memory or counterbalanced by the adult will to be rid of them,” Certeau, Girard, and Mayol (1998: 183) write. DiMaggio (1987: 443) further stresses the role of taste in constructing meaningful social identities and social relations: “Taste... is a form of ritual identification and a means of constructing social relations (and of knowing what relationships need not be constructed). It helps to establish networks of trusting relations that facilitate group mobilization and the attainment of such social rewards as desirable spouses and prestigious jobs.” Studies of, for instance, musical taste (Bryson, 1996) and connoisseurship (Hennion, 2002) suggest that having broad musical preferences is regarded as more prestigious than merely listening to one or a few genres, especially genres associated with working-class strata (for example, country music or heavy metal), and consequently the articulation of taste is a means for presenting one’s self in everyday life. In philosophical discourses and more specifically in the writings on aesthetics, the concept of taste is understood as a problematique that needs to be resolved. Taste is here commonly associated with appearances, the ephemeral, and the frivolous. For instance, Friedrich Schiller wrote in his On the aesthetic education of man (1795) that, “Precisely because taste pays heed only to form and never to content, it finally gives the soul a dangerous tendency to neglect all reality entirely and to sacrifice truth and morality to an attractive façade” (Schiller, 1795/2004: 57). Especially the concept of “bad taste,” for example, kitsch (Dorfles, 1968), has been subject to scholarly discussions (see, for example, Douglas, 1996). As Eco (1989: 190) writes on the spurious concept of bad taste: “Everybody knows what it is and how to detect it and predicate it, but nobody knows how to define it.” Finally, there is a literature addressing taste as more practically being the totality of gustatory, olfactory, and tactile sense impressions of central importance in, for example, cooking, wine tasting, and other forms of food preparation and consumption (see, for example, Fine, 1996; Goody, 1982. For studies of food production and food processing in management studies, see, for example, Benjamin and Podolny,
1999; Rao, Monin, and Durand, 2003; Garcia-Parpet, 2011). In this litera-
ture, Jean Anthelme Brillat-Savarin’s *The physiology of taste, or meditations on
transcendental gastronomy* (1826) stands out as the *locus classicus* of the schol-
arly study of gastronomy (see, for example, Ferguson, 2004). In organization
studies, taste has been relatively little explored (with Gherardi, 2009, as one
notable exception). More indirectly, concepts such as kitsch has been used
to inform studies of organization and managerial practices (for example,
Linstead, 2002; Newton and Harte, 1997; Kostera, 1997).

1 **Three Perspectives on Professional Judgment**

1. Also in the case of supposedly objective performance rating systems and
accompanying performance reward systems used inside organizations, issues
of status and prestige tend to bias decisions. Woods (2012) and Castilla
(2008) both found that managers tended to “correct” objective measures of
performance to suit their own subjective beliefs, which led in Woods’ (2012)
case to an upward grading of performance measures and in Castilla’s (2008)
case to structural discrimination of women and “ethnic minorities” (for
example, non-white co-workers). Castilla concludes: “The central finding of
this study is that gender, racial, and nationality differences in salary growth
persist even after controlling for performance evaluations.... This study also
supports the finding that performance ratings have significant lower effects
on annual salary increases for African-American employees, ceteris paribus”
(Castilla, 2008: 1491). In other words, even in cases where “objective”
performance metrics are calculated, this evidence is sidelined by managers in
their performance reward decisions.
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