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Chapter 1 : Volume 21 Issue 1 | Social Problems | Oxford Academic

Spencer, G. () *Methodological issues in the Study of Bureaucratic Elites: a case study of West Point*. In Burgess, R.G. (ed.). *reflections on the theoretical*.

Alison Richardson Accessing elite nurses for research: Ruth Harris ruharris hscs. It is important, therefore, to involve them in research concerned with understanding social contexts and processes. This is particularly pertinent in healthcare where considerable strategic development and change are features of everyday practice that may be guided, or perceived as being guided, by elites. This paper evolved from a study investigating the availability and role of nurses whose remit involved leading nursing research and development within acute NHS Trusts in two health regions in Southern England. Important issues identified were the role of the gatekeepers, engagement with elites and the use of the telephone interview method in this context. The paper examines these issues and makes a case for involving executive nurses in further research. Expectations of poor access inhibit researchers from attempting to undertake research with this group. Furthermore, social researchers often have strong views of the need to invest resources in research with more vulnerable, rather than elite, subjects Winkler However elite groups are interesting as they frequently are powerful in terms of position, knowledge and influence and can have considerable authority. This is particularly pertinent in healthcare where considerable strategic development and change are features of everyday practice that may be guided, or perceived as being guided, by elites Learmonth , In Moyser and Wagstaffe considered the study of elites to be at a critical stage of development that required attention to be paid to methodological challenges. They assert that although there may be similarities between studying elite and non-elite groups there is a need to recognise that considerable differences do exist to require debate by those engaged in such work. A major concern of the research team, therefore, was ensuring that the questionnaire was sent to the correct person as failure to do so was anticipated to have consequences for the validity of findings and response rate. A universal role within all acute NHS trusts was the Director of Nursing Services DNS , the most senior nurse in the organisation and an executive member of the hospital trust board of directors. The results of this questionnaire survey have been published in this journal previously Browne et al A particular focus was the role of personal assistants PAs who were seen as gatekeepers who impacted directly on the strengths and limitations of the telephone interview as a method. Although the participation of executive nurses in research is increasingly important there is a lack of literature relating to successful approaches and methodologies to achieve this Bolton et al. Furthermore, very little of the available literature has been published recently or within the fields of nursing or healthcare. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to provide a reflective analysis of these methodological and practical challenges that is informed by existing literature. It is not intended to share empirical data regarding DNSs but rather to explore practical implications and contribute to current debates about accessing nursing elites and the use telephone interview method in particular. Similarly, Giddens considered the elite to be individuals who hold formally defined positions of authority within social organisations. Furthermore, Pareto widened the definition of elitism of elitism to include those with the highest capacity or performance in every social activity, for example, sport, religion and entertainment. However, there is remarkably little research that questions the scope, power or monopolies that nursing elites enjoy or, indeed, lack. As Learmonth states: The discourse of strategy as a building block for organisational research is not neutral or disinterested, for all it might appear, commonsensically, to be about simply what top managers do. This, however, will inevitably also require engagement with questions of access and gate keeping in relation to elites more generally. The process of conducting research with elite populations Research gate keeping The role of a gatekeeper in research has been focused upon from two perspectives. Undertaking research within organisations, in particular, has been described as arduous, since specific difficulties may arise when attempting to gain access to key informants e. Spencer , Hornsby-Smith Spencer takes this argument a step further by suggesting a number of reasons why large-scale, bureaucratic

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organisations may attempt to control or restrict the access of researchers. Difficulties in accessing people in positions of power through secretaries and administrative personnel have also been described elsewhere Hoffman The literature concerned with researching elite groups focuses primarily, however, on commercial sectors rather than public services. It is possible that accessibility issues for directors of publicly funded services may be different from those in private commercial sector although the high demands of their roles, and thus the limited availability of time, would be expected to be similar. However, in situations where such advantages may be lacking, the provision of a clear outcome of the research to the gatekeeper, adopting, where possible, a highly structured design may be one solution to help overcome access difficulties. Acute NHS Trusts display multiple features of complex and hierarchical organisations. At a fundamental level there were even difficulties being connected to the required PA via hospital switchboards. Thus gate keeping can be seen to exist in different guises when different layers, and individuals, are being accessed. Members of the research team had differing experiences and knowledge of the workings of NHS trusts and the functions of PAs. For instance, some currently worked in direct contact with executive nursing departments in NHS 10 trusts whilst others had very limited experiences of this level in organisations. Regardless of experience, PAs were found to be protective of DNSs, sometimes citing diaries booked months in advance that could not accommodate even a phone call. There is a need to recognise that the perceived relative merit of research topic may itself act as an enabler, or a barrier, when access is being sought to participants such as these. Those researchers with the least knowledge of nursing executives and their work patterns experienced the most difficulty in arranging appointments for telephone interviews and, at times, found the process extraordinarily frustrating. One of the researchers who had had little previous contact with nursing management found they had to change their communication style and realised that sounding authoritative and insistent could be more successful in arranging access. All used strategies which they considered might help give them or the study the credibility to gain access, for example, mentioning the university with which the research was associated, the organisation where they worked, that the project was being conducted in several healthcare regions in addition to providing an explanation of the topic and what it would involve. Such strategies are supported by Wray and Gates who commented that trust in the research team as well as a positive perception of the topic being studied may be seen as important motivators for research participation. Negotiation with the PA to arrange an interview with the DNS involved as many as five telephone calls by the individual researcher. This arose because PAs did not always return calls when they said they would, or if the 12 DNS was not available at the time of a pre-arranged interview because of the complexity of their diaries or an emergency that needed immediate attention. Ensuring that the interview time is convenient, as well as being prepared to be flexible, are important strategies in order to ensure access to elite populations. Engagement with elite populations We have suggested that researchers may first encounter difficulties in accessing elites as they rely on the co-operation of gatekeepers. Thomas suggests that business elites are especially skilled at insulating themselves from unwanted disturbance. Elites may also pose difficulties for the researcher if high numbers refuse to participate Winkler Difficulties for the researcher may further arise because of the existence of age, gender or class disparities. Powerful elites are usually male, older and of a higher social class than the younger, frequently female researchers Winkler Perhaps because of these difficulties, elites remain a poorly researched social group and, when they are accessed, participant selection may depend upon variables beyond control such as pre-existing personal contacts Hoffman , Winkler However, there is a lack of evidence whether this is true in a nursing context. In this instance colleagues were usually supportive and interested in what the project was attempting to achieve. It is important to add that all but one of the research team had a professional nursing qualification. Few researchers have recorded their experiences of working with elite populations. Of those who have, Pridham for example, emphasise the importance of the relationship between the interviewer and respondent. Indeed Pridham concluded, from an interview study of Italian politicians, that the most salient, unpredictable factors affecting interview outcome was personal rapport. Oakley also considered that rapport during interviews was more likely to develop if the participant and researcher shared some element of identity

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or other common connection. In her study of female members of parliament in the UK MPs Puwar found that one particular participant became more open and friendly once she knew the researcher was brought up in her first constituency. The order in which questions are placed is important to interview success and quality of data collection. Thomas, however, found that those from elite populations may prefer to direct the interview, talk to their own agenda and answer some but not all questions. To address this issue he suggests having structure within the interview guide. Hirsch also observes a consensus among researchers working with elite groups of using semi-structured interview format that gives respondents some opportunity to add to an answer but not giving them complete control as in unstructured formats. Puwar found that interviews were often rushed or disrupted due to urgent matters that the respondents needed to respond to and, as a result, she had to prioritise questions quickly and decide what to omit. Those who did not participate did not decline participation; 15 rather we were unable to access them despite considerable perseverance. It is also possible that we ourselves were seen as an elite population as academics or researchers to whom some sense of obligation was felt. Our good response rate may also lie in the nature of the researched topic. We often felt that through participating in our study, DNSs were also able to glean some ideas to adopt within their own organisations. Thus, both we as researchers and the DNSs shared a mutual interest in the research topic, a factor frequently identified as important to response rate and overall success Pridham, Hirsch, Puwar. Such similarities might thus have contributed to the rapport established between the researchers and the DNSs in our study. Experiences of several of the researchers reflected the sentiments described by Pridham, when some powerful interactions were achieved between the DNSs and the researchers with several reporting interviews lasting up to an hour. Additionally, Kattan et al. Nonetheless, it has been suggested that, in many instances, telephone interviewing has become the preferred approach to surveying Lavrakas. De Vaus identified five factors to consider in the selection of an appropriate mode of interviewing. These are response rate; ability to produce representative samples; effects on interview schedule design; quality of responses and implementation problems. Although it is generally believed that response rate is higher for face-to-face interviews, it was 18 considered that, for the DNSs studied here, the response rate to telephone interviews would be higher due to simple convenience, a factor highlighted as important by Thomas. Therefore in this study the telephone interview was the preferred method because the interviews were anticipated to last approximately ten to fifteen minutes and travelling distances between interviewers and interviewees inappropriate for the length of time the interview was anticipated to take. The study was also unfunded, making the cost of telephone interviews cheaper, and more possible to fit in around existing workloads. It is often suggested that, compared to face-to-face approaches, telephone interviews are substantially shorter e. Rogers and Hunt have argued, for example, that professionals frequently spend large amounts of time conversing on the telephone and feel very comfortable doing so. Nevertheless, only limited research reported in the literature focuses on the use of telephone interview methodology to obtain information from health professionals Barriball et al, Dunn and Yates, Garbett and McCormack, Hunt. Hunt concluded that telephone interviewing, as a research methodology was well suited to eliciting 19 information from professionals. Furthermore Kirsch and Brandt found that using this method was very effective in obtaining in-depth data from fathers of school age children whose mothers were undergoing treatment for early stage breast cancer, a particularly difficult groups to access. The research team possessed a diverse knowledge of research methods, although only two had prior experience of telephone interviews. It has been argued that telephone surveying necessitates rigorous apprenticeship when compared to face-to-face interviews Newell. Our research team displayed differences in the ways in which data were collected, which were in part reflected in their prior experiences of conducting telephone interviews or research in general, existing relationships with DNS colleagues and time available to collect data. Each researcher described feeling that they were intruding upon the time of someone who was doing what we perceived as a busy and important front-line job. Instead it was necessary to rely on tone of voice and the ability to be articulate and succinct, working quickly to establish a dialogue in a short time. On the other hand, the telephone also allowed a franker, more confiding relationship

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to be quickly established between two strangers. This required sympathetic and sensitive handling by the researchers who spent time explaining how they also had personal experience of such difficulties, and that other NHS trusts were in similar situations. This resulted in sometimes lengthy conversations, of up to an hour, which one researcher described as a form of peer support. One researcher was concerned that using her own personal experience in this area of promoting nursing research in the NHS to achieve rapport may have had an influence on how the DNSs responded to open questions. As with other research methods, awareness of the balance between leading respondents and allowing them to think, may be even more important during telephone interviews when silences may be awkward. The emotional demands associated the conduct of these telephone interviews was found to be significant and a range of interview styles were required from being fairly hard-nosed about the process, which may be likened to people selling over the telephone, to having to draw on all possible interpersonal skills. Conclusion The telephone interviews with DNSs were a component of a larger project.

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## Chapter 2 : Max Weber - Wikipedia

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## Chapter 3 : Qualitative research methods: by A A A M - Issue

Spencer, G. (1974) *Methodological issues in the study of bureaucratic elites: A case study of West Point*. In: Burgess, R.G. (ed.) *Field Research: A Sourcebook and Field Manual*. In: Burgess, R.G. (ed.) *Field Research: A Sourcebook and Field Manual*.

Throughout the late 1800s, Weber continued his study of law and history. He also involved himself in politics, joining the left-leaning Evangelical Social Congress. After spending months in a sanatorium during the summer and autumn of 1890, Weber and his wife travelled to Italy at the end of the year and did not return to Heidelberg until April 1891. He would again withdraw from teaching in 1892 and not return to it till 1893. Some other of his works written in the first one and a half decades of the 20th century are published posthumously and dedicated primarily from the fields of sociology of religion, economic and legal sociology are also recognised as among his most important intellectual contributions. A monument to his visit was placed at the home of relatives whom Weber visited in Mt. This attempt was unsuccessful, in part because many liberals feared social-democratic revolutionary ideals. These provisions were later used by Adolf Hitler to subvert the rest of the constitution and institute rule by decree, allowing his regime to suppress opposition and gain dictatorial powers. All we see is dirt, muck, dung, and horse-play—nothing else. Liebknecht belongs in the madhouse and Rosa Luxemburg in the zoological gardens. Weber believed that many countries were guilty of starting World War I, not just Germany. About the nature of politicians, he concluded that, "In nine out of ten cases they are windbags puffed up with hot air about themselves. They are not in touch with reality, and they do not feel the burden they need to shoulder; they just intoxicate themselves with romantic sensations. Many colleagues and students in Munich attacked his response to the German Revolution and some right-wing students held protests in front of his home. His widow Marianne helped prepare it for its publication in 1922. The model tries to explain bureaucracy from a rational point of view via nine main characteristics or principles; these are as follows: These competencies are underpinned by rules, laws, or administrative regulations. Regulations describe firmly established chains of command and the duties and capacity to coerce others to comply. Hiring people with particular, certified qualifications supports regular and continuous execution of the assigned duties. Weber notes that these three aspects "In the private sector, these three aspects constitute the essence of a bureaucratic management of a private company. Recruitment based on merit. As Weber noted, real bureaucracy is less optimal and effective than his ideal-type model. But, when implemented in a group setting in an organization, some form of efficiency and effectiveness can be achieved, especially with regard to better output. This is especially true when the Bureaucratic model emphasizes qualification merits, specialization of job-scope labour, hierarchy of power, rules and discipline. However, competencies, efficiency and effectiveness can be unclear and contradictory, especially when dealing with oversimplified matters. In a dehumanized bureaucracy, inflexible in distributing the job-scope, with every worker having to specialize from day one without rotating tasks for fear of decreasing output, tasks are often routine and can contribute to boredom. Consequently, they do not have any sense of belonging in the long term. Furthermore, this type of organization tends to invite exploitation and underestimate the potential of the employees, as creativity of the workers is brushed aside in favour of strict adherence to rules, regulations and procedures. Methodology[ edit ] A page from the typescript of the sociology of law within Economy and Society Unlike some other classical figures Comte, Durkheim Weber did not attempt, consciously, to create any specific set of rules governing social sciences in general, or sociology in particular. All knowledge of cultural reality To be sure, that makes our efforts more arduous than in the past, since we are expected to create our ideals from within our breast in the very age of subjectivist culture. The new structures of society were marked by the differentiation of the two functionally intermeshing systems that had taken shape around the organisational cores of the capitalist enterprise and the bureaucratic state apparatus. Weber understood this process as the institutionalisation of purposive-rational economic and administrative action. Confucianism and

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Taoism , The Religion of India: His work on other religions was interrupted by his sudden death in , which prevented him from following Ancient Judaism with studies of early Christianity and Islam. Other notable factors mentioned by Weber included the rationalism of scientific pursuit, merging observation with mathematics, science of scholarship and jurisprudence, rational systematisation and bureaucratisation of government administration and economic enterprise. Weber also noted that societies having more Protestants were those with a more highly developed capitalist economy.

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## Chapter 4 : Suppression and social action

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Additional Information In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: The Plot that Failed: Nixon and the Administrative Presidency. Is Small So Beautiful? Is Big So Ugly? Studies in Public Policy, no. Bureaucracy and Representative Government. Handbook of Organizational Design. Office of Management and Budget annual-a. Budget of the United States Government. Budget of the United States, Special Analyses. Office of Personnel Management annual. Occupations of Federal White-Collar Workers. Office of Personnel Management. Office of the Federal Register Economic Models of Bureaucracy: Survey, Extensions , and Evidence. The Sources of Government Growth. Political Authority and Bureaucratic Power. Informational and Institutional Constraints. Midwest Tournai of Political Science The Problem of Bureaucratic Government. Tournai of Politics The Politics of Bureaucracy. The Structure and Organization of Government: Journal of Public Policy 5: Absolute Change and Relative Stability. The Explosion of Public Employment. A Preliminary Comparative Inquiry. The Civil Service under Reagan and Thatcher. The Public and Private Employment Mix. Thinking about Public Sector Growth. Measuring Public Sector Size. Up and Down with the IssueAttention Cycle. Journal of Politics The Changing Face of the Washington Bureaucracy. Bureaucratic Failure and Public Expenditure. The Development of a Late Developing State. Routledge and Kegan Paul. Changing the Pattern of Ministerial Departments, Political Innovation in America: The Politics of Policy Innovation. Pommerehne, W, and B. Bureaucratic Behavior in Democracy: The Economic Policy Board. Report to the President. University of California Press. Public Expenditures in Communist and Capitalist Nations You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

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## Chapter 5 : Project MUSE - Comparing Public Bureaucracies

*Methodological Issues in the Study of Bureaucratic Elites: A Case Study of West Point. Gary Spencer. Social Problems, Volume 21, All issues. Email alerts.*

Michael Hall Elite Interviews: Critical Practice and Tourism Abstract The elite interview method has been applied to the study of politics and policy making and to other social and organisational contexts, although it has been relatively little applied in a formal fashion in tourism research. Nevertheless it is a method that has the potential of enhancing the quality and quantity of research data given the power and influence of elite subjects. The article provides a review of some of the major issues involved in the conduct of elite interviews and highlights some of the tactics that researchers may use in the interview process as well as some of the potential ethical and publishing constraints. Even though there are a number of potential methodological challenges in using this method it provides a valuable approach in tourism research, especially studies that aim to understand decision-making processes, policy making and perceptions. It is shown that individual ingenuity and reflexivity are required in order to overcome some of the challenges reported in existing studies. The concept of elite interviews originated from the study of politics and policy making Dexter, , In tourism the conduct of elite interviews has generally been subsumed under the general notion of conducting personal interviews, including with business and policy decision- makers. However, this has meant that research is potentially often being conducted without an appreciation of the specific constraints that interviews with elites, e. Knowledge and positionality are culturally, politically and socially constructed; meaning the identity of the researcher prior to any interview encounter is constructed in relation to both self and existing social structures as well as sets of power relationships Alvesson, ; Hall, b. Therefore, as Bochaton and Lefebvre It has even been suggested that, in comparison with non-elites, elites are most often good communicators, knowledgeable, appreciate research better and have a wide locus of influence ranging from social, economic through political Robson, Elite interviews are extremely important in seeking to understand and potentially change the impacts of business and political decision-making in tourism Jenkins et al. In addition elite interviews are integral to what is referred to in the social marketing literature as upstream behavioural change, i. Because power can be understood in a number of different ways Hall, , conceptualising power structurally in this manner where power is more or less ascribed and appropriated is sometimes regarded as problematic Smith, An impression created by this line of argument is that, identifying and interviewing elites can be more daunting given the potentially powerful and influential positions elite members may hold Woods, ; Smith, ; Harvey, Jayawardena, ; Hall, , including with respect to destination branding and representation, infrastructure development, and understandings of the authenticity and legitimacy of heritage e. Mak, ; Norkunas, ; and influence the very way that tourism knowledge is created and transferred Thomas, Elite decisions directly affect the nature of tourism development. Although it may be intellectually unfashionable to suggest it, in various ways therefore elites serve to help structure tourist flows and patterns, consumption experiences, tourism development, the allocation of the costs and benefits of tourism and, the capacity to do other in tourism and tourism research Hall, This article follows calls for a continuous exploration of new ways, as well as the improvement of existing methods of collecting, analysing and positioning data in tourism studies Duval, In the case of tourism this also includes making the various dimensions of the elite interview process more overt and transparent given that there are a number of studies that constitute elite interviews but are not necessarily identified as such e. Anastasiadou, ; Ferguson, ; Guibert, ; Stevenson et al. The article reviews the methodological issues that elite interviews raise in an attempt to identify its value as a research method in tourism and cognate areas. The paper is organised as follows. Subsequently, the processes and potential challenges of elite interviews and how prior researchers have dealt with the problems and succeeded in conducting elite interviews are critically reviewed. Ethical issues are then discussed before the implications of the review and lessons for future elite interview research are noted as part of the concluding remarks. This

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state of affairs can be explained to a large extent by the differing definitional treatments Table 1 by researchers from various disciplines and different understandings of power relationships Lukes, , who tend to interview different groups of informants they label as elites. Richards argues that these tags of status are assigned and thus people can assume and relinquish those titles anytime Allen, ; Mikecz, and defining the elite must go beyond current status and visibility per se as the identity of the elite in terms of interviewees can be blurred across time and space. These elites have similar status in the world of business, academia or professional practice England, There are also a privileged few e. Two kinds of difficulties with defining the elite in this fashion becomes apparent when negotiating access to informants; first there are cases of less superior, less powerful and less privileged non-elites who may be even more difficult to access than professional or business elites because of their less visible position within the existing social, political and economic networks Woods, ; Burt, This is particularly the case for tourism given the multifaceted nature of interests in destinations and their concomitant underlying and competing power struggles Church and Coles, Under such circumstances, individuals or stakeholders who perceive themselves to have been marginalised may turn to the political process, i. Smith warns researchers of this kind of elite, pointing to the difficulty researchers may have in accessing and establishing trust with largely marginalised groups see also Bourgois, Second, it is has been observed that elites do not always exercise power to block or dominate interviews. Invariably, a definition that transcends status, position, geography, income is difficult to achieve Harvey, However, the fact that a consensus definition of elite is unavailable does not mean that elites do not exist. Indeed, the manner in which the term is used reflects broader issues of investigating power in that the use of such a concept is inextricably linked to its methodological and philosophical foundations Lukes, , including in tourism Hall, b. In other words, what you see or define is what you get. Benefits of conducting elite interviews Despite the potentially rich data that elite interviews can provide researchers, such studies are relatively scarce Welch et al. This may be a function of research problem definition or of the relative proportion of individuals concerned as well as how researchers and research agencies have come to regard the allocation of power in society. This group of interviewees are often classified as non-elites. Nevertheless, as noted above, tourism research can be enhanced if the benefits of elite interviews are well explored Thomas, Nevertheless, elite interviews can provide data that might not be available from elsewhere. For example, Robson suggests that elites tend to be knowledgeable, widely-read and have excellent communication skills which they can bring to bear on the quality and quantity of data collected. Robson reported the case of an Australian elite who demonstrated knowledge and contributed a lot of useful information to his study of the social context of intuition used in Australian business decision-making. Apparently, this elite has been reflecting over the topic long before the researcher went to the field to collect data. The processes and challenges of elite interviews and how others got around them Gaining Access Gaining access to informants is a crucial step in the research data collection process but can be an especially daunting exercise when working on elites England, ; Desmond, see Smith [] and Robson [] for contrary accounts. Making contact is critical to the whole elite interview process since it holds the key to the rest of the exercise. Desmond underscored the importance of timing of the interview to coincide with periods when the topic or issue is receiving either positive or negative publicity in the media; yet the right timing could as well happen by accident. For example, Bochaton and Lefebvre , French PhD students who were conducting research on medical tourism, experienced warm welcome and positive response from a Thai elite member whose daughter was about leaving to study in France just around the time of contact. Both formal and informal networks are important in improving access and introductions and can be leveraged to make contacts with elites. These connections of social and formal networks often act as sponsors. The more influential sponsors a researcher has the easier the access Walford, ; Herod, ; Welch et al. Elite interviewees are therefore advised to find additional informants outside those proposed by a sponsor or contact person Welch et al. Even though Herod warns researchers about how challenging the scheduling of interviews with foreign elites can be beyond getting their contact addresses, Robson creates the impression that the ease of access is a function of individual researcher ingenuity. Interestingly, Sabot found it easier to gain access to

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foreign elites than her own local elites. Robson used telephone interviews unlike the face-to-face interviews of Sabot, although clearly the telephone option might not be suitable for all purposes nor for university ethics committees. A combination of contextual factors come to play in explaining these conflicting experiences regarding access to elites -the researcher, the researched, the locations of the researcher and the researched, and language barriers are but a few. For instance, local politicians may feel less threatened by a foreign interviewer as opposed to a local one since image protection is a high priority for a politician Sabot, Another important explanation that borders on the 7 cross-cultural is the different kinds of relationship and thus co-operation that exists between academics and elites in different cultures. Robson partly attributes his easy access to Australian elites to their research-friendly nature since Australian elites conceive Australian research as a positive contribution to the good of society. However, a politician or senior public official has everything to lose by virtue of the fact that they are accountable to a wider range of stakeholders and often pursue politics and public service as life-time careers. They are therefore constantly under the public microscope. Developing rapport and establishing trust during the interview process Merely arranging an interview does not pass for a successful interview contact. Developing rapport and establishing trust are important ingredients that an interviewer needs in order to get quality information from elites beyond public relations reports or speech. Sabot found that an inability to gain trust despite access to senior public officials affected the quality of information collected. Furthermore, Mikecz and Welch et al. Consequently the degree of openness a researcher can get from interviewees becomes an important factor in determining how much personal as opposed to organisational views he or she can get from elite interviews. Several strategies to optimise rapport, trust and automatically openness have been proposed Figure 1. In some cultures or settings, academic credentials and institutional affiliations become important and must be displayed Richards, ; Laurilla, ; Welch et al. For example Mikecz employed a combination of cultural knowledge and professional academic laurels and institutional affiliation to establish rapport with Estonian elites. Researchers must therefore thoroughly acquaint themselves with the cultural and social settings in which they wish to conduct the interviews in order to appreciate when a strategy is most suitable. The location of the interview has also been proposed as one of the possible moderators of the public-private persona of the elite. Another issue authors have found salient in developing rapport and gaining trust is about how to approach the interview process proper. It is important to realise the limited time available and the slim possibilities of getting a repeat interview soon after, so any threatening questions should be left till late in the interview process Robson, ; Mikecz, This is to allow the interviewer to cover as much ground as possible within the usual time constraints while not putting the interviewee on the defensive too early in the interview process. Most of these are qualities are such that they cannot readily be learnt from the textbook but rather are embodied and also conferred from experience. Elite researchers may therefore have to consider the extent to which they pursue these rapport and trust building strategies in light of the purpose of their research and their methodological context. Power relations and positionality in elite interviews At the centre of most of the issues and challenges discussed above are the twin mediating factors of positionality and power relations between the researcher and the researched. Status-wise, the more prevalent assumption and position taken by a majority of elite researchers is that, the power balance is always tilted in favour of the researched Desmond, ; Welch et. Elites have clout and by their very nature seek to control and dominate interviews. Some authors have strong convictions on the negative impact that this power asymmetry may cause for the reliability and validity of data, and have argued clearly why interviewers should rather own that power Leech, ; Kezar, ; Lilleker, However, some researchers disagree with this approach of dealing with power and positional asymmetry and describe this conceptualisation as a misconception of power which is 9 constructed as static throughout the relationship e. These researchers argue that the insider and outsider positionality dichotomy assumption is flawed since the relationship is more complex, fluid and dynamic than is often presented. Hall b agrees with the notion that power relations always exist between an elite and a researcher who is dependent on that elite to successfully carry out their research. However he argues that both actors at any point in time exercise some minimal level of power for as long as

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the actors have to deal with conflicts through negotiation, collaboration and compliance. The mere fact that an interview has been granted suggests that the interviewer at least retains some power. This notion therefore conceptualises power as a two-way process in which actors in the relationship exercise some minimal influence over each other. Lukes, The implication of this conceptualisation is that the researcher can adjust positionality along the insider-outsider continuum depending on what is required at a given point in time in the relationship. Some interviewers for example have found that being an insider is desirable in one instance and undesirable in the other and require researchers to be more reflexive in assuming multiple positions. For example, Bochaton and Lefebvre However, power relations and positionality are socially enacted by the researcher and the researched and it is possible that they may be oblivious of the dynamics prior to their engagement. An insider- outsider dichotomy may thus tell us little about power relations before the interaction actually takes place, let alone inform strategies in advance. Rose, ; Smith, ; Costa and Kiss, This view comes across as more pragmatic since it explains better some of the experiences of researchers portraying these power relations as static. Ethical issues in elite interviews The challenges that elite interviews present has specific ethical dimensions. Elite interviews unlike non-elite interviews have ethical peculiarities which potential researchers must bear in mind. Some of the strategies employed by researchers to gain access, develop rapport, establish trust or manipulate power relations and positionality may pass for unethical conduct in some circumstances. Smith, ; Morris, , even though some authors maintain it as a necessary evil e.

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### Chapter 6 : Challenging bureaucratic elites, by Schweik Action Wollongong

*and practical issues of telephone interviewing Spencer, G., Methodological Issues in the Study of Methodological Issues in the Study of Bureaucratic Elites: A Case Study of West.*

Weber received an excellent secondary education in languages, history, and the classics. Weber took his bar examination in and completed his academic training in , but his health never permitted him to hold a permanent academic position. After serving as a Privatdozent in law at the University of Berlin and as a government consultant, and having completed extensive research projects this in the years immediately preceding and following his marriage in , he became professor of economics, first at the University of Freiburg in and then at Heidelberg in . In , however, Weber suffered a nervous breakdown , and after he had made repeated attempts to resume teaching, the university granted him leave without pay. In he began to publish his own scholarly work. From this time on he lived as a private scholar, mostly in the city of Heidelberg, returning only briefly to more formal academic work, in Vienna and Munich in the years immediately preceding his death. He was a political realist and a nationalist who nevertheless criticized his country with detachment and treated national shibboleths with derision. He was an analyst of power politics who examined constitutional problems in the spirit of political engineering, yet he was deeply concerned with ethical problems and with the cultural significance of the power struggle. And there are further contradictions: These tensions prevented Weber from finding outlets for his drive to act decisively and led him instead to pour his great energies into his scholarly work. But even in his scholarly work tensions prevailed. Substantively, his work bristles with an awareness of the unresolved paradoxes of the human condition, which Weber sought to understand on the basis of his extraordinary historical knowledge and to conceptualize at a level between historical description and a theory of sociological universals. This sketchy list could be extended to include many other social theorists since the seventeenth century. Weber took issue with several major intellectual traditions. Simmel retained elements of the Hegelian tradition and therefore, according to Weber, frequently and illegitimately shifted the ground of his analysis from the meaning intended by the individual to the transpersonal meaning revealed in and through the reciprocal effects Wechselwirkungen of individuals upon each other. However, Weber avoided both these dangers. Weber opposed this approach on empirical and methodological grounds. In this fashion Weber moved away from a radically individualistic position but was able to maintain his nominalist view of individual action as the basic datum of sociological inquiry. Finally, Weber sought to refute the historicist school by emphasizing that studies of culture and history cannot avoid the use of typological concepts, and that the most important task is, therefore, to attempt to make these concepts explicit. In protest against the rationalism of the Enlightenment, and building on the romantic appreciation of the uniqueness of the individual personality and of the national culture, historicism asserted the uniqueness of constellations of historical events. Weber, however, refused to accept the historicist claim that disciplines dealing with historical constellations are generically different from the natural sciences, even though the latter deal with recurrent events and discover general laws or regularities of high probability. Instead of producing speculative arguments about the nature of the reality studied by the different disciplines, he examined the procedures used in their scholarly inquiries. Although scientists may bring values and concepts to their subject matter, they must take care that they do not inadvertently confuse their own values and ideas with those of the actors they are studying. This was the mistake the utilitarians had made when they identified goodness with utility. And against the antiscientific particularism of the historicist school, Weber was able to legitimize the scientific approach both by recognizing and delimiting the subjective dimension of the cultural significance of historical studies and by emphasizing the indispensability of concepts in historical analysis see Max Weber on the Methodology of the Social Sciences. It is his adoption of a nominalist position in social science that is of key importance in his critiques of Marxism, of theories of evolution, and of the historical school. Weber saw in this individualism evidence for the independent influence of ideas, a prominent theme throughout his work.

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He also made this specific inquiry the occasion for a more general analysis of Imperial Germany. According to Weber, the Junker had been effective landlords, local administrators, and military men when they established the power of the Prussian state, but during the nineteenth century they had become rural capitalists who bolstered their declining economic position by political blackmail. Moreover, the quasi-commercialization of the Junker was paralleled by a quasiaristocratization of the middle-class industrialists who bought land in the east for the sake of titles and of bureaucratic or military careers for their sons. He later used this approach in his comparative studies of religious ideas and economic conduct. *Sociology of religion* The Protestant ethic. Two observations provided the initial impetus for the essay: There appeared to exist a paradoxically positive relationship between ascetic religious belief and economic enterprise, in spite of the fact that the great Protestant reformers had anathematized the pursuit of riches as dangerous to the soul and that the pursuit of riches had so often been accompanied by a life of adventure and display, as well as by religious indifference. Weber began to resolve the challenging paradox by noting that both Puritan religion and capitalist enterprise are characterized to an unusual degree by a systematization of life; this suggested a source of affinities between the two. His inquiry showed the interrelation of three processes: Weber first analyzed the implications of the doctrine of predestination; this analysis is a good example of his more general studies of religious doctrines. He deduced that an unfathomable divine decision concerning the fate of men in the hereafter would produce great anxiety among a people intensely concerned with the salvation of their souls, and he assumed that this anxiety was at its height in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Such religious anxiety could not be allayed by Reformation leaders like Calvin and Zwingli, who creatively reoriented the human situation and did not influence men directly. Only the pastoral interpretations of the theological doctrines could allay this anxiety. Calvin taught that everyone must face the ultimate uncertainty of his fate; nevertheless, ministers encouraged their congregations to engage in a zealous and self-denying round of daily activities, mindful that God had put the resources of his created world at the disposal of men who on the day of judgment would be responsible to him for the single-minded, work-oriented use of all their powers in his service. Pastoral admonition is, of course, an uncertain index of conduct; moreover, the accumulation of wealth by ascetic Protestants appears paradoxical partly because, historically, wealth has been associated with attenuated belief rather than piety. He showed that Puritan wealth was an unintended consequence of the anxieties aroused by the doctrine of predestination. Because members of the Calvinist congregation accepted the interpretations of that doctrine offered by the Puritan divines, they led frugal, active lives that resulted in the accumulation of wealth. Weber acknowledged that further research on this relationship was needed, especially documentary research on diaries and autobiographies of entrepreneurs of the seventeenth century that might contain direct evidence concerning the relationship between religious belief and economic activities. Weber did not pursue the study of Puritanism further, in part because his friend, the theologian Ernst Troeltsch, had undertaken a related and more elaborate study, published subsequently, in , as *The Social Teaching of the Christian Churches* [see the biography of Troeltsch]. Instead, he made the important decision to work on a large-scale comparative sociology of world religions that would examine the social foundations of religious beliefs and practices as well as the inner-worldly repercussions of religious doctrine. In part, the aim of his works on Confucianism and Taoism, Hinduism and Buddhism, and Judaism was not essentially different from that of *The Protestant Ethic* – it was to characterize and explain the distinguishing traits of different kinds of religious belief and to trace the unintended, but nonetheless important, consequences of different theological doctrines for the orientation that men bring to their economic activities. Weber wished to demonstrate, for example, that in Confucianism and Hinduism particular doctrines had had an inhibiting effect on economic rationality, even under circumstances that were generally conducive to capitalist development. By comparing different religious systems he hoped to achieve a better understanding of what it was about Western religion that had made it a major influence in the development of western European capitalism; thus he would strengthen, albeit indirectly, the persuasiveness of his original thesis concerning Protestantism. He noted three forms of relationship between social organization and religious ideas that warranted investigation.

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First, social groups with particular economic interests often show themselves to be more receptive to some religious ideas than to others. For example, peasants typically incline toward some form of nature worship, aristocrats toward religious ideas compatible with their sense of status and dignity. Second, religious ideas lead to the formation of certain groups, such as monastic orders, guilds of magicians, or a clergy, and these groups may develop quite extensive economic activities. Third, the distinction between the elite and the masses is as pertinent to the religious sphere as to others: The gap between the elite and the masses poses a problem with which each of the great world religions has had to cope. To understand the process by which the messages of promise and the ideals of conduct proclaimed by religious leaders have become institutionalized, it is necessary to recognize not only that religious innovators and functionaries inevitably become involved in practical affairs, but also that the masses, in the midst of their pressing daily concerns, seek the satisfaction or reassurance of ritual and belief. In his book on China, Weber analyzed the interaction between religious ideas and social organization in the context of the wider social structure. He gave special attention to the longrun balance of power between the Chinese emperor, the central and provincial bureaucracy, and the kinship organization of the local community. Also, by encouraging competition for office, the famous examination system minimized the threat to the emperor while it maximized the interest of local kin groups in urging young men to succeed, since appointment to office promised prestige, income, and influence not only for the incumbent but for his relatives as well. Confucianism strengthened the status consciousness of the official, but at the same time, since Confucianism taught that filial piety and ancestor worship were duties required of everyone, it also strengthened the cohesion of kin groups and facilitated local resistance to official measures. Confucianism, then, according to Weber, was a belief system that supported both the bureaucratic order and the kinship structure, thus helping to sustain tension between these two structures. In this instance Weber laid emphasis on the fit between a belief system and a social structure. The Brahmans were a somewhat diverse group of royal chaplains, family priests, theologians, and jurists, who served as spiritual advisors and administrators, teachers, consultants, and authorities on questions of ritual propriety. This income was enjoyed for life, or even for generations. The status interests of the Brahmans were related not only to economic rewards for the performance of their roles but also to keeping priestly roles concentrated in their hands. Although Confucian writing excoriated magical practices, the Brahmans, as a priestly caste, could not relegate the concern with magic powers to popular conjurers who might compete with priests. In India the magical powers of the ascetic were revered, and the problem for the Brahmans was to reconcile magic with their status interests as an educated, religious elite. Its influence stems from its wealth of concepts, formulated on the basis of a wide range of comparative historical materials. Rather than formulate a theoretical system of his own, he tried to provide a more secure foundation for sociology and history by specifying the meaning of ideas and concepts that were widely used at the time. Once again, instead of adopting either a holistic or a particularistic or subjectivist approach, Weber hoped to occupy an intermediate position, moving from historical evidence to the formulation of concepts, and from concepts back to historical evidence. In his formulation of types of prophecy on the basis of the Biblical text, or of the distinction between Oriental and Occidental cities, or of types of capitalist enterprise, or of feudalism, or again of the relation between priestly and ruling elites, he demonstrated what he meant by this approach. The first part of *Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft* is a compendium of concepts; the second is a descriptive and comparative treatment of the social conditions and consequences of economic behavior. Economic behavior is the ostensible focus of attention, but the thematic core is the establishment of categories for the analysis of action, as is suggested by the initial definitions. Weber pointed out that although much action in society is characterized by almost unconscious conformity, there is nevertheless a rudimentary consciousness of meaning even in such conventional behavior. Weber drew attention to the difference between this minimally meaningful conventional action and innovative action, although he insisted that it is essential to consider such individual inspiration in its social setting. It was characteristic of him to combine sharp distinctions with an awareness that in society analytically distinct features are often concretely joined. In the text of his book even the words of the title appear in modified

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forms suggesting processes. The three levels have to do, respectively, with the components of material interest, feelings of affinity, and authority in social relationships. First of all, Weber was concerned with processes of group formation based on material interest. Second, Weber analyzed processes of group formation based on feelings of affinity. These groups are all formed on the basis of shared beliefs in what is honorable and proper. They come to have common styles of life, and these are buttressed, in turn, by segregating restrictions on hospitality and intermarriage. Such restrictions are often also the bases of economic monopolies and of military organization, that is, of organizations based on material interest. At a third level Weber identified social relationships based on the exercise of authority. Reinterpreting the distinction between society and the state, Weber differentiated between those groups based on common interest or affinity and those based on hierarchic organization and a shared belief in a legitimate order of authority. Types of authority Weber believed that the exercise of authority is a universal phenomenon and that there are three types of domination that characterize authority relationships: These types indicate the relationships between a supreme ruler e. Similarly, too much arbitrariness can undermine the authority of the sacred tradition that justifies the dominion of the traditional ruler. And for the rule of law to endure, it is essential that there be a balance of the conflicting imperatives of formal and substantive legal rationality. Religion and economic behavior. Broadly speaking, three approaches characterize this extensive literature: In his world-historical, comparative studies, Weber made use of bench-mark concepts, called ideal types, which deliberately simplify and exaggerate the evidence; examples are his formulation of the theological doctrines of Luther and Calvin, his typology of domination or of urban communities, and so on. At the world-historical level, which was of primary interest to Weber, this method produces useful major distinctions, such as those between patrimonialism and feudalism, between Occidental and Oriental cities, between Confucian and Puritan religious beliefs, between ethical and exemplary prophecy, and many others. Accordingly, he saw his task as first the formulation of ideal types on the basis of comparative historical evidence, and then the analysis of the subject under investigation in terms of its deviation from, or approximation to, these concepts [see typologies]. Yet this second step poses difficulties which he did not resolve; they have been discussed by Schweitzer and by Lazarsfeld and Oberschall Weber never dealt satisfactorily with the question of how the ideal-typical implications of such a doctrine as predestination, which are compelling for the true believer, are internalized by ordinary believers, with all their vacillations and compromises. In his comparative sociology of religion he did emphasize that theological doctrines always accommodate themselves to the exigencies of daily life, but his attention was focused on the overall tendencies distinguishing one civilization from another rather than on the extent to which the accommodations of theology and popular practice might tend to diminish these distinctions. Studies have been conducted relating the macroscopic level at which it is useful to stress differences and the microscopic level more closely, and examining functional equivalents of the Protestant ethic in other civilizations.

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## Chapter 7 : Max Weber | calendrierdelascience.com

*Methodological strategies for a rural study of tavern gambling and gaming, presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, Las Vegas, NV. Mehan, H. (). Structuring.*

Here I will first describe this context for understanding suppression in general terms. Then I will discuss the ambiguous relation between intellectual dissidents and social action groups. It is common historically for the mass of people in complex societies to be dominated economically, politically and ideologically by particular elite groups. More recently power has been shifting to political and bureaucratic state elites, most notably under state socialism but also in capitalist societies. These shifts in the locus of power have resulted from economic, political and social development, and the ensuing struggles between interest groups. The other essential component in this process has been the struggles of the mass of the people, the non-elites. These struggles have waxed and waned, but have been marked by progress in some areas, such as the ending of slavery, development of mass literacy, spreading of the franchise, redistribution of some economic benefits to workers, and ending of colonialism. These struggles have become increasingly self-aware and organised. But new struggles are required as new forms of exploitation and oppression arise or expand, such as neo-colonialism, technology designed to control workers, and weapons of mass destruction. What is the role in this historical process of intellectuals and institutions for cultivating intellectual skills? For centuries one primary function has been the ideological legitimization of current social arrangements. This legitimization has at various times included religious certification of the god-givenness of the social order, the alleged social and biological necessity of capitalist competition social Darwinism, and the alleged necessity to have experts to manage all aspects of society technocracy. This sort of legitimization has been important because ruling groups have usually been in the minority and have depended for their power and privilege on the support or acquiescence of the bulk of the population. Besides legitimization, in the past century or so schools and universities have played an increasing role in training more people in intellectual skills useful for the maintenance and expansion of industrial society. Intellectual skills are indeed used widely for justifying power structures and for ensuring the normal functioning of industrial society, but they also contain the seeds of liberation, for supporting struggles for democratisation. It is this potential for ideological unmasking of the present order that makes universities periodically become hotbeds of dissent, and leads to attempts by elite groups to throttle these movements. The institutions of learning are protected in two ways: This tradition - which represents the intellectual self-justification of higher learning and which often masks the reality of intellectual service to vested interests - can also be used to defend the existence of dissent. Within academia and other intellectual institutions, suppression is one mechanism to ensure that the main beneficiaries of paid intellectual activities are the dominant groups in society, in particular corporate, bureaucratic and professional elites. The main forces forging this orientation are the hierarchy, division of labour, privilege and status of paid intellectuals. Suppression is important precisely because dissidence is so infrequent. When the consensus of expert intellectual opinion is virtually unanimous, a single dissenting voice can make a big difference in helping to legitimise contrary views. The driving force behind challenges to dominant institutions in society comes not from intellectual dissidents themselves but rather arises from the potential for mass action at the grassroots such as by the labour movement. But dissidents can expose the nature and abuses of the ruling elites, puncture the standard legitimations and thus help to weaken support for the elites and to catalyse mass action. Dissidents in many cases are essentially subversives within the more privileged levels of the power structure. They break the bureaucratic and professional monopolies on knowledge and thus provide avenues for challenge from below. But by providing information about these hazards to public audiences - for example via the media - community group protest and possibly government action concerning the chemicals might be mobilised or focused, thus threatening profits. Similarly, by providing information about work hazards directly to workers and unions, John Coulter broke the ranks of professional control over such knowledge and

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provided leverage for workers and unions to take action. Before Ann Baker and Clyde Manwell wrote their letter to the Adelaide Advertiser about fruit fly spraying, several other individuals had written similar letters. Clyde Manwell was singled out for attack because he was the first person to write from a prestigious position: There is an interactive process between intellectual dissidents and mass movements, and this process is sometimes a complicated one. In many cases, the rise of mass movements encourages or allows dissent within intellectual institutions. For example, the rise of the environmental movement has encouraged and enabled many scientists and academics to undertake research and make public stands on environmental issues. On the other hand, a few courageous intellectuals are often found promoting an issue before it becomes the basis for a mass movement. Rachel Carson and some other scientists played this role in relation to environmental issues in the 1950s and early 1960s. In the case of nuclear power, various individual scientists - such as, in the United States, Henry Kendall, John Gofman and Arthur Tamplin - took critical stands in the early 1950s, before popular concern about this technology had reached major proportions. These scientists played an important role in legitimising anti-nuclear concerns, and laying the intellectual basis for mass action years later. And once the mass anti-nuclear movement developed, other scientists and intellectuals took stands, such as the three General Electric nuclear engineers who resigned in 1979. Those intellectuals who take stands contrary to elite interests before mass concern develops are often suppressed, as were Carson, Gofman and Tamplin. In the United States, not a single holistic study program in the area of energy and environment was established at a university before 1970, by which time widespread public interest and the definition of the main problems had already been developed. Intellectual institutions are but rarely in the forefront in developing new areas of study relevant to social problems. They are much more likely to move into areas after popular concern has well and truly developed. In this they are similar to other basically conservative institutions, such as the law, major political parties and the churches. From this perspective, the role of dissidents within intellectual institutions, and the role of small social action groups, is much greater than first appearances might suggest. Although their immediate impact may seem small, they can provide the stimulus for development of mass concern and mass action on social issues, and thus do more to induce institutional change than the more immediate method of working through "proper channels". I will now look at the problem of social change from the point of view of those in social action groups. What should be their orientation with respect to intellectual institutions, and towards dissidents? Social activists often are experienced in political campaigning and are much better equipped to organise defences of dissidents than are professional intellectuals. Support for dissidents by outside social activists sometimes happens, but not as often as might be expected. The reason is the distance maintained by most senior professional intellectuals - including many dissidents - from social action groups. Personally, I think this distance should be bridged through efforts on both sides. Social activists can help in this by supporting dissidents. Another problem in supporting dissidents is different perceptions of the motivations and value of the dissident activity. Some dissidents may be seen by outsiders to be taking a stand only in order to gain personally. A university program under threat may contain some committed, hard-working, socially conscious and outspoken scholars and others who are more interested in a job or in expanding their power. Or the program leaders may oppose internal staff democracy or oppose more participation by students. Social activists can legitimately feel ambivalent about supporting such programs and the individuals in them. Should an imperfect but generally desirable program be supported unconditionally, or should criticisms of the program by social activists be made privately or publicly? Compounding these problems are differences of opinion and splits within social movements about the role of professional intellectual activity in social activism. For example, many people in the Australian peace movement have spent much time and effort promoting the establishment of a peace research institute. Others would not oppose such an institute, but do not see it as a high priority. Still others see efforts for setting up an institute as a diversion from more important tasks of building up mass involvement in the peace movement and developing grassroots strategies. These and other perspectives will influence the willingness and approach of anti-war activists in supporting professional intellectuals who speak out on issues of war and peace. Divergences in

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perspective can be quite major, and are important in, for example, the feminist, political economy and environmental movements. This power can be used to suppress individuals from a different clique or with unorthodox opinions. Suppression within social movements can take forms such as: Withdrawing union membership, blacklisting, beating and even killing of rank-and-file trade union activists [5] ; expulsion of dissenting members from political parties; sacking of politically minded environmental workers from environment centres; social ostracism, character assassination and sacking of feminists with "incorrect views" from community service organisations dominated by particular types of feminists; blocking of dissenting views from ostensibly pluralistic social movement journals. Suppression within social movements typically involves many of the methods found in suppression elsewhere, including personal attacks such as threatening phone calls, spreading of slanderous stories, ostracism, criticising work, failing to provide information about meetings and social functions, and public confrontation. Especially revealing of power inequalities is the use by social movements of formal mechanisms against dissidents such as defamation suits and legal challenges concerning elections or administrative action. For the dissidents, suppression is especially difficult to handle psychologically when the social movement espouses values such as emotional honesty and participatory democracy, since expectations of fair treatment are much greater than in mainstream institutions. Sometimes suppression within social movements is justified by conventional criteria: At other times the exercise of power by a particular faction or clique is justified by alleging that the dissident is insufficiently committed to the movement. Most movements base their activities on a set of more or less unquestioned assumptions, and challenging these assumptions may not be well received. Like suppression in general, suppression within social movements is an area in which documentation is scarce, and so my comments here are based largely on personal observations and discussions. Social activists sometimes argue that public discussion of internal dissent and its suppression is undesirable because it will be seized upon by critics to attack the social movement. This argument is often used to make activists feel guilty about protesting against abuses within their own groups. But silence and nonaction, besides being ethically unacceptable, are often even more harmful to the movement than speaking out. Tolerance or support for internal suppression can cause entrenchment of factions or cliques, alienation of supporters, neglect or loss of new ideas and constituencies, and corruption of principled behaviour. In making compromises to attain power or influence, the movement may come to resemble the institutions it aims to transform or displace. If social activists are to be consistent and effective in opposing suppression of intellectual dissent, then they need to make sure their own house is in order. In my opinion, tolerance of a diversity of opinions is essential in developing a program and practice for beneficial social change. Social activists could well take to heart the principles of academic freedom which are so seldom used by academics. This is a difficult task. A frequent result of the development of mass concern on an issue is the establishment of government departments or academic programs which treat the issues but without the critical force behind the original concern. Government departments of industrial relations may serve to integrate workers and unions into the capitalist system. Environmental studies departments may study environmental problems and develop policy within the context of existing practices and assumptions of industrialisation and the existing distribution of political and economic power. To have some chance that programs on social issues will maintain some critical concern, social activists need to be involved directly in designing the form and content of the programs. One important model is the science shop, well developed at several Dutch universities. The workers at the science shop try to connect the requesting groups with scientists willing to work on the problem. Another example is the Centre for Alternative Industrial and Technological Systems, a research unit set up at North East London Polytechnic to study problems relevant to the alternative corporate plan developed by Lucas Aerospace workers. The basic problem is the power structure of the university, especially the power of academic elites and administrations. This would do more to allow genuine academic freedom than marginal fiddling with tenure, procedures, or staff and student representation on committees. If all high salaries were reduced - for example to the average wage - then staff members could be greatly increased and everyone given tenure or extended contracts. This would free numerous people from

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publication rat-races, bureaucratic infighting and bootlicking, and permit a great deal of innovative teaching and research. The typical strategy by radicals in academia has been to try to get more radicals into positions within the present academic structures, whether this is via promotion of talented radicals to high positions or by increasing staff and student representation on decision-making bodies. The more fundamental strategy of flattening the hierarchy has seldom been adopted. The challenge - as yet largely unmet - is to develop persuasive campaigns with this more fundamental change as a goal. If the structures of unequal power and privilege can be transformed, then the use of suppression will be reduced. For example, in the labour movement the normal goals are improved wages and conditions within the existing structures of state-regulated capitalism.

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### Chapter 8 : Elite interviews: Critical practice and tourism | C. Michael Hall - calendrierdelascience.com

*Abstract. Studying the military and other security organizations is challenging for both methodological and ethical reasons. Studying these domains "at home," literally in the researcher's own country, complicates things even further.*

**Qualitative Methods** What is qualitative research? Qualitative research aims to enhance our understanding of social processes, phenomena and activities. It focuses on meaning and understanding rather than quantification. The qualitative research tradition is a field which cross-cuts the social science disciplines. It includes an array of methods ranging from interviewing to observation, discourse and historical analysis and research is often multi-method. Denzin and Lincoln say the multiple methodologies of qualitative research may be viewed as a bricolage and the researcher as bricoleur - meaning the researcher is a jack-of-all-trades who will try anything and produces a bricolage, which is an emergent, close-knit, pieced together set of practices which provide a solution to the particular problem which changes and takes new forms as techniques are added to the puzzle. Essentially, the bricoleur, qualitative researcher uses whatever tools and strategies are at hand to explore the question in the context as fully as possible. A framework for assessing research evidence

**The Cabinet Office: London** How might it help us further understand processes and activity at the EP? Historically, work was largely descriptive and there were four foci: Hix, Raunio and Scully , say this has resulted in four key contemporary EP research areas where a diverse range of methodological approaches are taken: EP development and functioning, political behaviour and elections, internal politics and organisation, and inter-institutional bargaining. We believe that further use of qualitative methods at the EP will help enhance understanding of how this institution works and of processes and interactions occurring there to add to the current body of literature. Current work, particularly on areas such as mechanisms of change and socialisation, remains inconclusive and further work on some areas and concepts requires exploration and description before further statistical analyses can be done. Qualitative researchers listed on this site are beginning to look into these gaps with an array of methods, questions and projects.

**London Qualitative Methods** The following qualitative research methods may help scholars to understand processes, phenomena and activities occurring within the European Parliament. This is often achieved through semi structured interviews with open-ended questions which allow interviewees to ruminate and express themselves within their own framework and introduce new perspectives. This could help gain perspectives, views and experiences of EP processes and politics. In particular, group interaction is used as research data and there is a specific purpose. The aim is to obtain perceptions and reactions and allow participants to bounce ideas off each other. This could help build a fuller picture of complex EP policy processes and interactions by bringing together those involved at different stages.

**Hampshire Observation** Observation of EP committees and plenary sessions could assist with analysis of behaviour, interaction, speech and informality in the EP and the EU policy process. Observation means spending time at the institution, watching legislators engage in the institutional procedures and searching for patterns and meaning.

**Participant Observation** This is a method which has traditionally been used in anthropology and sociology but can be used in political institutions to study groups, interaction and cultures and the meaning the context has for actors. It helps researchers appreciate motivations and rationalisations of political actors within their environment and context. It means spending long periods of direct and sustained contact with a fieldsite and its members and where the researcher becomes involved in the social situation in order to understand behaviour, unlike short periods of detached observation. This can include plenary and committee records as well as legislation itself, media resources, reports and personal diaries.

**Discourse Analysis** There has been a recent growth of interest in this method which allows analysis of speeches, narratives and discourses within political speeches, literature and the media, and how institutional arrangements are loaded with assumptions. It starts from the assumption that all objects and actions are meaningful.

**Case studies** Case studies are one of the most used methods in qualitative research. It is a useful approach for studying the EU which is a complex, multifaceted institution,

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so case study research allows deeper research on instances which can be generalised with qualification. Despite some limitations when generalising results based on a limited number of cases, case studies can be used to advance at a theoretical level, advancing theoretical frameworks that can be applied to a larger number of cases. The method has sometimes been used in a purely positivistic framework by authors such as Lijphart, who have used them to measure precise dependent and independent variables isolated from their surroundings. In this sense, case studies are ideally situated to look at the succession of events leading to a certain outcome instead of focusing research only on the outcome. Therefore, the case study method is particularly relevant when looking at processes and mechanisms, especially when it is combined with process tracing or other forms of triangulation. Theory and Method Houndmills: MacMillan Press, Peter A. James Mahoney and Dietrich Rueschemeyer, Comparative historical analysis in the social sciences Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, Yin, R. London Process tracing Process tracing is a method that allows identifying a chain of events. In this sense, process tracing is, basically, a system that offers a way to researchers for organising the data collected in a systematic way. By pointing at the nodal points and raising interactions between actors and their context, it helps identifying not only mechanisms but also common discourses or narratives that can be later analysed with other methods such as discourse analysis. Process tracing is often found in research projects using case studies or narratives. Other Qualitative Work This is a list of qualitative work and reflections on the use of qualitative methods from across the social sciences, which those interested in using this approach at the EP may be interested in engaging with. Political Science and Politics, 35 4 Abram, S. Anthropologists at Work Berg: Political Science and Politics, 35 4 Bogdan, R. New York Byrne, B. A Pluralist Guide Palgrave Macmillan: New York Checkel, J. New York Deal, T. Organisation and Influence Free University of Brussels: A Companion to the research process Open University Press: New Jersey Faucher-King, F. New York Gellner, D. New Jersey Hall, P. Open University Press Kirk, J. Sage Publications Lijphart, A. Ethnography in Western Europe Berg: Chapel Hill Maxwell, J. An Interpretive Approach 2nd edition Sage Publications: Theory and Method MacMillan Press: Principles and Practice Sage: