

DELIVERABLE D3.3. FRAMEWORK SUMMARISING CURRENT CHANGE LABORATORY METHOD AND OTHER MODELS OF COLLABORATION AND INNOVATION

This framework is summarised in the document below. This is a prepublication draft.

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COMBINING RESOURCES: A PARTICIPATORY INTERVENTION PROMOTING ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING, SOCIAL INNOVATION AND INTERORGANISATIONAL COLLABORATIONS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE

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Abstract

This chapter presents a participatory model for promoting organisational learning and innovation with potential application in criminal justice related organisations. We share the sensemaking process engaged in by the COLAB consortium tasked with comparing and contrasting a range of participatory interventions and developing a potentially hybrid model that combined the strengths of each. We describe this model on 11 key dimensions, that in themselves offer a useful tool through which different participatory methods might be compared. An expanded participatory model based on the Change Laboratory model and expansive learning cycle is presented, one augmented with the beneficial components of Activity Clinics, Boundary crossing workshops and codesign methods and developed within the criminal justice context.

Introduction

The interface between welfare (WS) and criminal justice services (CS) is a complex adaptive environment, a meeting of different “interests, identities, values, and assumptions....embedded within prevailing institutional logics (p103, Thornton & Ocasio, 2008). The meeting of these logics, in which either a security/control or alternatively health/care focus predominates, raises challenges for effective collaborative relationships between these services and as such a rich environment for researchers to build knowledge about interagency collaboration, innovation, organisational learning and how to promote this. There are a plethora of participatory methods available to the researcher to take this active step, developing knowledge whilst changing practice simultaneously (Vygotsky 1997). Complex theorisation underpinning the mechanisms through which these interventions are expected to function and differing terminology for concepts, that may or may not describe similar phenomena, leads to difficulties for the researcher when designing and operationalising a coherent, pragmatic approach in this context. This was the remit of

a consortium of European researchers and practitioners (CO-LAB-H2020-MSCA-RISE-2016/734536) working together to explore the potential application of participatory interventions to enhance social innovation, organisational learning and collaboration within and between welfare (WS) and criminal justice services (CS).

We present here a new participatory model with potential application in this context. In so doing, we share the sensemaking process (Weick 1995) engaged in by COLAB, whose members were tasked with comparing and contrasting a range of participatory interventions members brought to the group and with the end goal of developing a potentially hybrid model that combined the strengths of each intervention.

The Change Laboratory as the baseline intervention

The sensemaking process began with the identification of the Change Laboratory (CL) as a “baseline” participatory model, pinpointed because of its international application and success in a variety of workplace contexts including paper mills, factories, entrepreneurial contexts, elderly care, hospitals, schools and newsrooms (see e.g. Engeström *et al.* 1996; Kerosuo, *et al.*, 2010; Virkkunen & Newham, 2013; Sannino & Engeström, 2017). The CL was originally developed in the early 1990s by a team of researchers led by Professor Yrjö Engeström at the University of Helsinki, Finland with a basis in Russian developmental traditions (Vygotsky, 1978; Leont’ev, 1978; Engeström, 1987; Engeström *et al.* 1996, Engeström & Sannino, 2010, Kerosuo, *et al.*, 2010; Virkkunen & Newham, 2013). The CL, during its history, has evolved from an intervention suited to one single workplace into a variety of modifications that may include multiple systems. Understanding this historical and, often related geographical movement of knowledge, is a method for making sense of interventions, both being intertwined with the evolution of their theory and method. Sannino & Sutter (2011) describe the role of political regimes and the privileging or otherwise of the writings of Vygotsky in the Stalinist soviet union for example.

The central tenet of the CL is the creation of a 3 X 3 matrix of viewpoints for participants to reflect on their working practices (Figure 1). In the vertical plane, participants explore their working practice in the past, present and future. In the horizontal plane, they do this at three levels of abstraction. At the most concrete, they work with an item that mirrors their working practice and illustrates the problems and disturbances of

their work. Videotaped work episodes as well as stories, interviews, service user feedback and regular performance statistics, collected before hand by researchers in ethnographic studies of practice, are used as this mirror. At the other end of the abstraction spectrum, participants use theoretical models based on activity system theory to help them conceptualize their work activity and make sense theoretically of the built-in contradictions generating the troubles and disturbances depicted in the mirror.

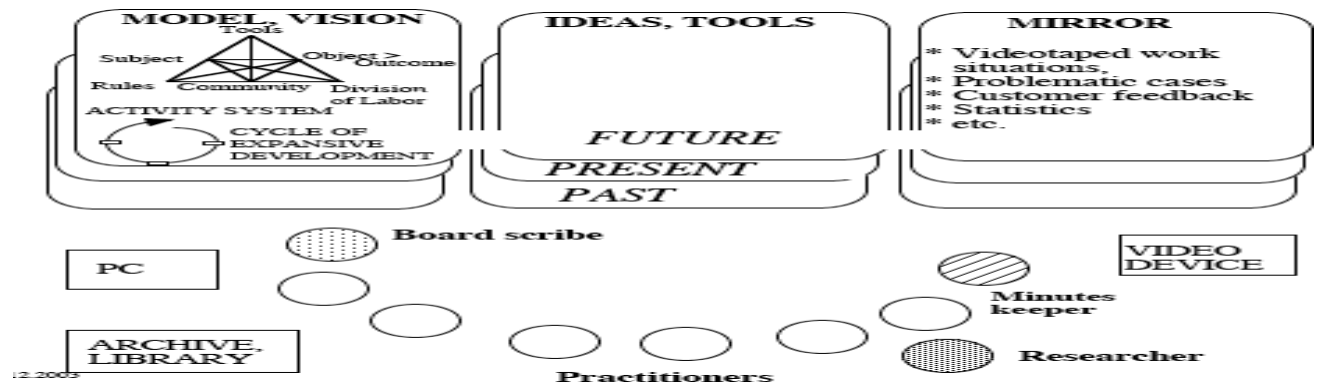


Figure 1: Prototypical layout of the Change Laboratory (Engeström et al., 1996)

The vertical and horizontal planes interact to create a third and middle plane representing the ideas/innovations that surface during discussions between participants as a response to the contradictions they have uncovered. They then explore these in a cyclical and iterative manner with regard to their potential capabilities in transforming current working practices. A stepwise implementation of their new vision is planned and monitored (Engeström et al., 1996, Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013). The Change Laboratory Model (CL) is proposed as an alternative to WS/CS collaborations that uncritically bring agencies together in interagency meetings where the collaborative process is only understood tacitly. The CL codifies this tacit knowledge. It focuses on how information is shared, the manner in which knowledge can be understood across disciplinary boundaries and combined in such a way that new concepts are cocreated. The CL recognizes that innovation happens at the boundaries between disciplines and that working across boundaries is a key ingredient of competitive advantage. (Engeström et al., 1996, Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013). In current collaborative models, practice problems tend to be identified by leaders. In CLs however, problems are identified by front-line professionals, and the facilitator helps them reconceptualise these. The intervention is designed, with the use

of the mirror and theory, to identify the problem from the mouths of people that are actually performing these collaborative activities, and in their particular work place environment. Other solutions to collaborative practice challenges are often management or researcher driven, and adaptations of these by frontline professionals unintentional. The CL allows bottom up innovations to be developed. This means professionals are encouraged to develop their own solutions to the challenges they face. The CL makes this bricolage process (Fuglsang, 2010) an intentional one, allowing professionals to consciously adapt policy in a way that is relevant and effective in their local environment whilst remaining politically accountable for their practice. Current collaborative methods such as care pathways and care plans are attempts to standardise collaborative practice but each CL is unique. This model of interagency working offers a means for professionals from CJS and WS services, and potentially prisoners also, to work together to identify and resolve issues that are context specific.

However, the CL had not previously been applied to the challenging and security driven WS/CS practice context. It was anticipated that the method would need adaptation to be suitable for this new context, particularly if prisoners are to be included in these events as service users. Challenges related to security, power differentials, negative feelings between professionals and prisoners and buy in at a state and regional leadership level into this intervention, as yet untried in this environment.

Although the COLAB consortium had the CL as a focal point, it wished to draw on other interventions to explore how the CL could benefit from alternative approaches, especially those that had previously been applied to the CJS context, and hereby develop a means of innovation, organisational learning and collaboration better adapted to this novel CJS/WS context. COLAB researchers needed to make sense of how these alternatives to the CL might either complement or supplement this intervention. This chapter presents the outcome of this sensemaking and merger process, an intervention with potential to stimulate learning and innovation in the WS/CS context. The CL model forms the starting point for the comparison but where the dimensions of other interventions become relevant, this is made explicit, with the end view of presenting an expanded CL intervention model (see figure 2), that borrows

relevant features or foci from the other interventions and is positioned as it might be applied to the CS/WS context.

Supplementary Approaches

The first of the alternatives to the CL was the Boundary Crossing Laboratory method (BCW), a modification of the Boundary Crossing Laboratory and in turn of the CL itself (eg Kerosuo & Engeström 2003; Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013; Teräs 2015). The BCW responds to the needs of networking in working life, where practitioners are increasingly collaborating horizontally with actors outside their own profession or organization, and where a requirement for flexibility and innovation between partners working together, partly replaces any need for team stability. The BCW has found favour in interventionist research led by Finnish Institute of Occupational Health in interventions designed to improve practitioners' wellbeing (Ala-Laurinaho et al., 2018; Seppänen & Koli, 2010; Toiviainen & Kira, 2017). It addresses work organisations' need for shorter small-step developmental efforts instead of long-term interventions such as the CL and has been especially developed in collaboration with service networks (Seppänen & Toiviainen, 2017) in different fields such as internal welfare services (Ruotsala, 2014), rail traffic control (Seppänen et al., 2015); social services for divorced families (Seppänen & Kloetzer, 2014) and supervised probationary freedom (Seppänen, 2012).

A second alternative intervention was that of the Activity Clinic approach, a French appropriation of Russian thinking and developed in the 1990s at the Conservatoire National des Arts et Métiers (Cnam) Paris, France, by Yves Clot and his team (Clot, et al., 2000, Clot, 1999, 2014, Ombredane & Faverge, 1955, Wisner, 1974) The Activity Clinic is at the crossroads of clinical psychology and French-speaking activity systems analysis and was largely inspired by the seminal work of French ergonomics in diverse work settings to understand the activity of the workers in context and transform it (Ombredane & Faverge, 1955; Wisner, 1974). It is now applied by researcher-interventionists with professionals in diverse work settings (teachers, surgeons, artists, managers, sportsmen, construction workers, factory workers, prosecutors, mostly in francophone countries (France, Switzerland, Canada, ...) refs.

The CL, BCW and AC, have a common unit of analysis based on cultural historical activity systems theory (Sannino & Sutter, 2011), workplace activity and the human subjects engaged in this. Their perspective is underpinned by the Vygotskian cultural historical assumption that a psychological subject is not separate from the social world they inhabit. They are part of the social world and in turn the social world is part of them. Human activity is therefore basically a social/collective, mediated by cultural artefacts (Vygotsky, 1997, Leont'ev, 1978). For the CL and BCW, work activity is articulated in terms of a dynamic and multidimensional system surrounding a work activity or motivation for work. Prisoner rehabilitation may be one such overarching motive; prison security and control of the prisoner another.

The people who participate in the intervention are those engaged in the above activity and may be specific workers (e.g., prison officers or psychiatrists) representative of a wider professional body or community and who have a defined purpose (or what CL call an object) within the activity. An entity can be identified as an object of activity when it meets a human need (Leont'ev 1978). Mapping the needs of the newly admitted prisoner would be an example of such a purpose or object. The way in which this purpose or work goal (or object) is performed is mediated by artefacts (e.g. a paper or electronic assessment proforma), rules (e.g., patient confidentiality) and agreed divisions of labour (e.g., the roles and responsibilities assigned to each worker) within an activity system. Every organisation forms such an activity system, a system that exists in relation to neighbouring activity systems and their different objects of activity (Engeström, 2000) (see the model of vision depicted in Figure 1). In AC, the psychological activity of the subject in the activity system takes particular precedence. Work is still viewed as a multidimensional activity, but one that is either personal (how the individual experiences the object of activity), interpersonal (the meaning of work as experienced through interpersonal interactions), transpersonal (how the work activity has developed historically culminating in collective ways of doing, speaking, learning and acting) or impersonal (the discrete features of a specific work organisation with its specific ways, fixed rules, tasks and instruments).

Whilst there is some overlap in geography, history and seminal texts that links CL, BCW and AC interventions on the one hand, a third alternative explored by COLAB members, co-design (CD), proved a quite separate and eclectic approach. The central

tenet of this intervention is the inclusion of the 'service user' as co-creator of the design process. The CD approach takes place as an iterative process of inquiry and creation, including tangible materials and artefacts to visualise and embody prototypes of design ideas (of the service, for example). The aesthetic/tangible element springs out of the techno-material basis of design as a practice. However, the CD approach places a large emphasis on the interconnectedness of things and human action as socio-material practice, which is reflected in the theoretical grounding in theories of situated activity (Binder *et al.* 2011) including pragmatist and practice-based theories (e.g. Schön 1991). The historical and national origins of CD can be located in primarily a Scandinavian and European context (Binder *et al.* 2009). However, co-design is one branch out of many related branches in design research and practice (e.g. Participatory Design, Human Centred Design, Design Thinking, Interaction Design) with research communities also in US.

Altogether design research can be regarded as an interprofessional field, drawing on a plurality of theories, including ethnography and sociology. The plurality of design approaches means that design processes (or interventions) are to some extent flexible and open to innovation in their methods. Some debate of theoretical comparisons between interventions is detailed elsewhere (Engeström *et al.* 2014, Penuel, 2014). Here we situate our current comparison on the CD-inspired interventions employed by Aakjær (2014) because of the application of this approach to the prison context, specifically 4 Danish prison sites between 2010 and 2012. In this CD-example, the unit of analysis is the design process including tangible design elements, their social use-meaning and the subjects' experiences of this process. CD is first and foremost an approach to collaboration in design processes.

[An expanded model](#)

Sannino & Sutter (2011) describe interventions as a toolkit for promoting change in the work place. The chapter now turns to a description of one such toolkit, an expanded CL model in which the structures of the model (Figure 2) and the learning processes inherent within it (Figure 3) that, through a cross comparison of methods, built on the current CL model incorporating components from the above AC; BCW and CD approaches and cotextualising the model with the CJS context. The description is structured in terms of 11 main dimensions, developed from those employed

elsewhere by Vilela *et al* (2014) to compare participatory methods and with which early decisions about which dimensions of the alternate models can be deployed. These dimensions were:

- Establishing the need for an intervention
- Designing an innovation space
- Managing the affective or relational aspects of the Innovation space
- Making salient and critically analysing current practices in the organisation(s) through uniting multiple perspectives
- Identification of areas where organisational change is required,
- Making collective sense of knowledge presented by other relevant actors of current and past practices.
- Solution creation/organisational transformation through collaboration and learning
- Short term implementation or experimentation with solutions
- Reporting
- Sustainability and long term implementation of agreed service changes.
- Including the voice of the service user in the intervention

Establishing the need for an intervention

Interventions are only possible if there is an express practice driven need for these (Figure 3 A). Delivery may be challenging for the researcher-interventionist if cultural and historical dimensions of the organisation are not ready for an extensive change process or where a culture of collaboration is not actively encouraged (Lahitinen *et al.* 2018, Hean *et al.*, 2017). Each application of the intervention must make contextual adaptations that make the method sensitive and appropriate to the current needs of the particular prison. If this is not achieved, there is likely to be a lack of commitment to the intervention from participating organisations especially when time and financial resource constraints limit their drive to innovate and collaborate.

Interventions usually take place when the practice organisation actively seeks researcher support (solicited help) as a response to some organisational problem or need. When the researchers' own interests and the fieldworkers' expressed interests meet, an intervention process may begin. Interventions stall when these interests are

not shared and can lead to participants derailing or redirecting interventions (see Chapter 16 for further discussion on researcher professional relationships). The researcher approaching the practice organisation with the offer of unsolicited help may be less successful, as innovation or service development may not yet be at the forefront of the practice organisations priorities. This is a challenge for consortia such as COLAB whose goal was to explore the utility and transferability of certain innovative intervention models such as the CL, CD, BCW and AC into the new criminal justice related context.

Further, outputs of bottom up interventions such as CL, CD, BCW and AC, and cocreated by the participants themselves, are not predefined and are unpredictable. This may make the intervention less appealing to organisational leaders. A strategy is to specify with a broad objective but allow the specific outcomes to be generated later through the cocreation process. So, Aakjær (2014) for example, using CD interventions began with the broad focus of improving the prison environment for both prisoners and officers and the objective of decreasing episodes of threats and violence. However, the solutions to achieving this were cocreated during the CD interventions that followed. Setting these initial broader aims, requires common goal setting exercises or other, what Downing-Wilson *et al.* (2011) calls mutual appropriation strategies, that move professionals from a *their intervention* to an *our* intervention perspective, creating strong, trusting and sustainable practice -academic relationships, built on knowledge of each other's skill set and logistical parameters. Researchers should ask questions such as "do the organisation want to innovate and if so, who is driving or desiring the innovation (leaders or workers, for example) and for what reasons? Are these reasons resource or outcomes based, are these value-based, or for political reasons? In negotiating the mandate of a potential intervention, and the ethnographic research linked to it, it must be seen as meaningful to all parties. It is more likely to be introduced if there is an internal champion/sponsor within the prison and if the use of human resources in participating organisations has been carefully negotiated, especially as prisons are likely to have far higher-level priorities than doing innovation and research. Time is required to build a mutual understanding between researchers and practice organisations based on the needs of the organisation, to understand when the time is right for the organisation, to build trust and determine when and if an intervention is feasible. Prison sites are generous with

their time and resources in allowing in researchers to conduct initial ethnographic study of their practice environments. However, negotiating a mandate for the possibility of running subsequent intervention sessions, requiring busy prison officers to be freed from their responsibilities and the logistics of getting all stakeholders in one physical location at one time, is difficult to orchestrate. There may also be ethical dilemmas if staff are removed from duty to participate in the intervention, prisoners' rights being violated if they then have reduced access to services at this time or must be locked in cells.

Commitment from the both management and workers is essential to overcome these challenges in an appropriate manner. Negotiating the mandate for a prison should start with the researcher and the prison leaders discussing the core ideas of the project, the intervention method, a preliminary plan including whether there is a need for a second intervention phase after the initial data collection phase. This negotiation process will take many meetings between researchers and prison/health leaders and key frontline professionals. The time spent on getting the leaders to be involved and constructing a shared understanding of the intervention process proves highly necessary for the local ownership and sustainability of the process. The language and reputation the researchers employ is critical here, reputation often the product of years of relationship building between local researchers and their surrounding practice partners. The ethnographic phases of these interventions and the negotiations to introduce interventions are best done in the native language of the practice organisations, which can prove challenging for international research consortia.

Designing the innovation space

If the mandate for the intervention is agreed, the first meeting of participants drawn from CJS and WS workers, will be dedicated to creating an innovation space (Darsø 2012) in which their multiple voices and perspectives can be brought together, boundaries between them explored and current work practice, hitherto taken for granted, explored (see Figure 2 A,B,C). The central value underpinning the intervention (and the CL, AC, BCW and CS interventions that inform it) is the bottom up, user driven nature of the method. This means the nature of the role of the researcher and participant should be made clear for all engaged in the intervention. The researcher has, for example, the role of collecting ethnographic data before the intervention that serves to develop the primary stimuli material. Workers/participants

in the intervention however should still be tightly associated with the research process and be included in collective discussion of the research design. The researcher and the organisational management then have joint responsibility for negotiating whether to do an intervention that follows the ethnographic phase or not.

If agreed, getting all stakeholders into a room at one point of time and taking time out of practitioners' busy schedules requires strong buy in from the participant organisations. Making clear the number, length and membership of sessions and distribution of tasks between participants during the sessions (e.g. writing memos, collecting the data) is part of the careful negotiation required. Researchers and organisational leaders together design the group in terms of number of sessions and decide who are the representatives of different professional groups and organizational levels (leaders and frontline workers) to be included. This is a delicate process and to avoid power "plays" it is important that researchers makes recommendations on the basis of their observations from the ethnographic field research. The role of the prisoner in this process should be explored.

The design of the sessions may be varied. Rather than a series of uniform workshop sessions, researchers may alternate between working with larger groups of participants and then single or pairs of individuals (as is seen in AC interventions- See B Figure 2). They could convene groups of decision-makers (directors, managers and experts) or groups of frontline workers to analyse work activity. Some workers from these groups then volunteer to discuss video-recordings of work sequences in Self Confrontation (one worker with one researcher) and Crossed Confrontation (two workers) interviews. Combining the group format of the CL, BCW and CD with the more personal self and cross self confrontational interviews used in AC (Clot *et al.*, 2003) may be a useful tactic in the CJS/WS context when negotiating secure environments and power differentials may be more difficult to manage in larger group settings. The latter may be easier to coordinate when getting all actors from all organisations in one physical setting at any one given time proves difficult. It offers a personal (or individual experience of the work activity) that provides a subjective and valuable element to the intervention (Sannino & Sutter 2011).

Thought should be given to the size of the group, the number of sessions required, the duration and frequency of these sessions and the type of people that should be

included. There is no hard and fast rule as to what optimal conditions should be and this is likely to vary dependent on the resources available to participants from both the CJS and WS services and their commitment to the process. The format should be negotiated with the individual sites participating. In the CL it is usual for 6 to 10 sessions (2-3 hours each) held with a working group of 15 to 20 participants representing different professional groups. In the CD intervention (Aakjær 2014) these are described in terms of the length of involvement with the prison organisations (8 months to 2 years) with 4 to 11 participants taking part including prisoners and ex-prisoners and strong buy in from prison management. It should be anticipated however that there will be some instability in group membership and that the composition of the participants may vary between sessions. This can threaten the process as the continuity of learning actions gets compromised.

The developmental process may be a lengthy and energy consuming process, that may not sit well with the highly pressurised prison environment and interventions may be rejected if seen as time and energy consuming by participants. Often customary work development techniques call for rapid and ready made solutions, which are not offered in the interventions described here. The number, length and membership of sessions must be tailored to the constraints of the prison and participating organisations so they can best manage their resources in order to participate. The BCW has utility here. The BCW shares much of the CL methods but is a shorter process consisting of only 1-3 meeting sessions making them more feasible politically and logistically (see D Figure 2). Being a shorter process with no experimental phase included (see G Figure 3), BCW may be a starting opportunity to motivate practitioners for collaboration and perhaps to put in place tools or networks ready for developmental efforts at a later stage (Seppänen & Toiviainen, 2017).

Attention should be given to who attends the intervention (See A Figure 2). Boundary crossing (BCW) interventionists focus on including professionals from both the WS and CJS, rather than a single institution or professional group and ACs suggests both leaders and front line workers' perspectives be included. The latter overcomes the danger of not engaging all levels of the organisations in decision-making, a failure in which may hinder effective implementation of the innovations developed at a later stage. CD focuses on the engagement of service users such as prisoners effectively in the cocreation process.

Managing the Affective or relational aspects of the innovation space

Negotiating interagency boundaries during an intervention may cause tensions, creating silos and contradictory ways of working. Participants may face challenges that are emotionally difficult to confront and external work and peer-pressure amongst employees can add additional complications. These factors may lead to strong resistance among participants to the intervention sessions and the innovation process (Engeström, 2000; Kerosuo, 2006). It also compromises the researchers' ethical responsibility to protect the participants' wellbeing.

These dangers may be minimised by the researcher taking responsibility for creating a safe space that in turn allows for dialogue, co-creation and learning, with the aim of improving and innovating practice (Aakjær & Darsø, 2014). This space is highly contextual, has physical, mental and social dimensions, and is a "relational safety net that opens up for curiosity and inquiry in an inclusive and encompassing community" (Darsø, 2012, p. 118). A safe innovation space is especially important in the high security and potentially volatile environment of a prison. In the prison system, power differentials between different professional groups as well as between officers and prisoners threaten this safety. Formal prison rules limit the freedom of inmates within it and enforce their lower status and informal rules imposed by fellow prisoners means prisoners must keep distance between officers and inmates (the us and them).

A safe space is created through building respect, trust and positive and constructive relations with and between participants and promote understanding of the expertise of the participants from different agencies. A safe space may be easier to manage during confrontational interviews where only one or two people in the interview are involved (Figure 2, C) . Researchers needs to be skilled and sensitive e.g. when showing the video material of real work situations to the group and protect the workers from potential criticism of their peers whilst still allowing the participants to guide the direction of discussion.

Aakjær and Brandt (2012) introduce the concept of social infrastructuring (See C Figure 2), or the act of providing the structures for a safe innovation space through building explicitly levels of trust and confidence between participants (in their case between prisoners and prison officers participating). Including professionals from all relevant WS and CJS agencies in similar numbers, recruiting larger numbers of prisoners to the intervention than officers and making participation voluntary are

possible strategies to achieve this. Protecting participant anonymity and confidentiality also builds this environment but is also an ethical obligation of the researcher. Although this may be controlled externally (what is said in the group remains in the group), internal anonymity during the intervention itself is less easily secured. Service users may present feedback to the sessions as primary stimuli (and with their consent), for example, but this means workers may feel criticised, shamed and left exposed as a result. Getting prisoners, professionals and researchers to cocreate and agree ground rules for interaction during sessions in the intervention can help provide a space or a “new set of rehearsed infrastructures” (Aakjær & Brandt 2012) that expands “the space of possibilities” for interacting. The development of appropriate social infrastructures to generate innovation in a prison context can only be built slowly over time and should be an on-going process.

For others the generation of a safe space lies in the competences of the participants involved and developing these. The construction of relationships between actors in the intervention is reflected in concept of relational agency (Edwards, 2009; Grant & Parker 2009) defined as a participant’s “capacity to align one’s thoughts and actions with those of others to interpret aspects of one’s world and to act on and respond to those interpretations”. (p4 Edwards 2009); which is managed by encouraging participants to reflect on what they have in common, searching or constructing, in BCW and CL terms, for shared objects or aims of activity. It is often the client that is this shared focus, but it may also be other common needs or shared problems (Seppänen *et al.*, 2015). Similarly, in the CL method the use of reflective tools, such as the CHAT model, is believed to help participants distance themselves from the emotion of the situation and to reflect on the situation intellectually (Virkkunen & Newham, 2013; Schulz *et al.*, 2015).

However, the role of emotion should not be discounted. For CL, BCW and AC emotional reactions are also viewed as a trigger for learning rather than a relational factor that may close innovation down. Participants’ motivation to take part in sessions and their emotional involvement holds significant power in enhancing organizational learning and change as long as it can be dealt with sensitively and reflected upon collectively (Virkkunen and Newham, 2013).

Making salient and critically analysing/disturbing current practices in the organisation(s) through uniting multiple perspectives

Researchers design the above innovation space with the purpose of creating encounters that span individual, social and organisational boundaries and destabilise participants' perceptions of current practice (Aakjær, 2018) (Figure 3 B). They encounter new, unfamiliar, or *strange* perspectives from other participating organisations that may disturb their view of hitherto unexamined organisational norms and 'make the familiar strange' (Halse et al., 2010). Taken for granted perceptions of 'how things are', 'what things mean', or 'why we do it like this' are disturbed or interrupted. Taking a CL and BCW stance, the tools, division of labour and social practices in the participating organisations may be examined, and disturbed, specifically (Engeström, 1987). The researcher mediates this dialogical and collective processes that may include a re-examination of current and historical practices. They should help maintain the groups' confidence in the process and that solutions will be forthcoming. Interventions are all heavily reliant on the facilitation skill and methods of the individual researchers. That is why the researchers may consider themselves as "craftsmen of the dialogical setting" (Scheller, 2003, 2014). The participants on the other hand are expected to be active during the sessions and promote their own learning actions. It is the participants' role to select key elements of the research process to explore further and keep control over the whole intervention process and produced data.

The identification of areas where organisational change is required

Once dialogue and discussion has been stimulated, an intervention identifies specifically where organisational change and development is required. Participants explore discontinuities in the system and reach a consensus as to where a transformation of practice is required (Akkerman & Bakker 2011). In contrast to traditional research methods, the problematisation of the work activity in the four interventions is the responsibility of participants and not the researcher. The researcher may typically create the initial and tentative hypothesis of the current situation and its problems but this is tested and reformed by presenting the mirror material to the participants. The researchers role is not to impose their hypotheses upon participants. They participate in the process but do not constrain this in any specific direction. In none of the interventions is it the role of the researchers to identify

the problem as an expert in the field or consultant. Instead shared questions and interests emerge in the course of the intervention. So where traditional ethnographers might collect data through empirical observations of the workplace, and perform a qualitative thematic analysis of this material, for example, presenting this back to the target organisation, this analysis process in the participatory interventions described here is instead conducted by participants themselves, although the researcher may participate in the process. This promotes ownership and credibility of the analysis but faces the traditional researcher critique of reduced dependability and transferability. Arguably neither of these latter dimensions are relevant as each application of an intervention to a new site is context dependent. However, their contribution to wider knowledge of organisational learning, collaboration and innovation may be compromised. The solution is perhaps to do both; to run a participant led and a researcher led analysis in parallel and compare and contrast the outcomes.

The nature of the problem being identified is most carefully theorised in CL and BCW interventions, although the identification of the problem itself by participants is manifest in all the interventions examined. The BCW and CL interventions propose that disturbances and contradictions emerge within and between activity systems and drive innovation knowledge and learning (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013; Kerosuo *et al.*, 2010). In terms of where these lie, contradictions manifest themselves as primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary contradictions (see detail Engeström, 1987). Contradictions often emerge as tensions, disturbances, latent dilemmas, conflicts or 'double binds' in local work activities (Engeström & Sannino, 2011).

The problematisation process must be treated sensitively in potentially volatile sessions, where for example prisoners are present. There is also danger of focusing on what does not work rather than what does, and on the contradictions in collaborative practices when there is evidence that workplace activity is already being conducted mutually with flexibility and feelings of autonomy. Professionals from different organisations, work together in a hybrid configuration of actors, with different, potentially competing institutional logics, but have often engaged in learning processes leading to actors being able to oscillate between the institutionalised logic of their own profession and a shared logic centred on the needs of the prisoner (See chapters 5 and 7 of this volume [.check](#)). The problematisation process might be balanced with an appreciative Inquiry approach therefore, one successful in other

prison related research, e.g. the work by Liebling *et al* (2011) and a focus on the incremental innovations that might be already be arising spontaneously in the practice setting (see Figure 2 E).

Making collective sense of knowledge presented by other relevant actors of current and past practices.

The boundaries between participants from the different CJS and WS organisations are where collective sense making (Figure 3, D) and the interorganisational learning process will take place, a place for meetings of perspectives, new insights, and the development of innovations (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011). In CL terms, the intervention explores the objects of activity held by differing subjects within the activity system, how these differ, compare and may potentially be reconstructed collectively. In other words, CJS and WS workers collectively attempt to make sense of their own (and potentially shared) purposes/ goals (objects of activity) in their daily work (e.g. their intention to assess the needs of the prisoner, driven by an overarching motive of prisoner rehabilitation). They might together explore what they each do when working with prisoners, why they do it or the benefit from doing this, perhaps exploring an historical dimension of how assessment was done in the past, why it is done in the way currently and then how it might best look like in future reconstructions. Including a BCW angle, means emphasising potentially shared objects of activity of the different groups, agencies or organisations participating and from the AC slant, an historical analysis might include a careful examination of what was originally intended by leaders/developers of the assessment and how this compares with the reality of the service, the historically accumulated resources within it and its contradictions. The way assessment takes place is simultaneously something given (a real phenomenon), something participants project onto the other group participating in the intervention, and eventually something co constructed by the researchers and workers discussing together how this observed workplace activity takes place.

Researchers may employ a range of strategies to facilitate the sensemaking process. CL and BCW theorise these strategies in terms of Vygotsky's (1978) idea of double stimulation where the participants' ability and will to develop their activity is fostered by using conceptual models as secondary stimuli to interpret manifestations of a primary stimulus. This theorises the sensemaking strategies employed operationally in CD and AC interventions also. Participants are presented with a primary stimulus

of some form, a stimulus that begins their examination of current and historical practices. This primary stimulus is described metaphorically as “a mirror” of the present problems. This mirror data has been collected by researchers prior to the sessions, by using ethnographic methods, or cocreated in sessions (e.g. Aakjær 2014). In CL, the primary stimulus is often a videotaped (“mirror”) material of problematic situations, identified by the researcher as disturbances in the participants’ work activity (e.g. Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). A video of a prison social worker discussing the outcomes of an assessment of prisoner needs at an interagency meeting could be such a stimulus. Seeking permissions to use video recordings may be problematic in some sensitive or secure environments such as prisons. The mirror material (Figure 2 H) could therefore also include audio or written clips of interviews, photographs or sketches of problematic situations (Aakjær 2018, 2014), scenarios, drama, role playing, storytelling, story boards and question cards (What if?) (ibid). These are all employed as primary stimuli to facilitate dialogue amongst participants. Bringing a needs assessment proforma to an intervention attended by CJS and WS professionals could be such a stimulus.

A secondary stimulus is a conceptual model that helps participants make sense of the observed primary stimulus (Figure 2 G). Group discussions and analysis might, for example, be triggered using the activity system framework (Engeström 1987) to describe what the participants are observing. Other models suggested by the interventionists-researcher may also be appropriate dependent on the context, disturbance and their own preference. Clot (1999) for example, applies a framework in which the task set (or what is expected from the worker -the normative activity) and the realized activity (what really gets done) are explored. This helps participants examine the demands of the work tasks and the physical, psychological characteristic of the worker performing it and other contextual constraints. In the codesign approach this distinction (Brown & Duguid 1991) is also described but in terms of the difference between canonical and non-cannonical work. In both instances, leaders and frontline workers explore what was intended by the people designing the task and what actually takes place in practice. Researchers from an AC tradition, in their personal self and cross confrontational interviews, use targeted questions such as “*why do you act this way? Did you do it differently before? Do you do it differently in other conditions? Could I imagine doing things differently?*” to stimulate reflection and dialogue and CD interventionist use reflective statements such as “*what if...?*” (Aakjær 2018). The

simplicity of these statements have an appeal for those participants for whom the activity systems triangle is perceived as less accessible. Secondary stimuli developed by the CL/BCW- participants themselves may also be applied if more meaningful to participants (see Virkkunen and Newnham, 2013; Sannino, 2015).

Solution creation / organisational transformation through collaboration and learning

As in the disturbance phase, the development of solutions hinge on members of a heterogeneous group collaborating (see Figure 3 E). Any intervention bringing actors from the CJS and WS together is essentially a collaboration between actors, a collective learning experience leading to learning outcomes at the level of the individual, the collective and the organisation. The interventionist should therefore clarify their standpoint on concepts of social innovation, collaboration and learning:

Conceptualization of social innovation and collaboration

The four methods all in some way stimulate the process of innovation in the workplace. They each offer a perspective on how to manage joint activity, cocreation or social process between actors that leads to new ideas, objects, products, infrastructure, forms of interaction, constellations of people, services models and practices within organisations (Aakjær 2018; Slappendal 1996). Viewed together, these suggest that that any intervention applied to the CJS/WS context should be viewed as a method to develop with participants new approaches to meeting social needs engaging and mobilising participants, transforming social relations and empowering workers and their leaders to act and transform their own work activities (Clot, 2008). The focus is on social innovation, distinguished from business innovation in motivation, that is less materially but socially driven with an eye on added public value (e.g. recognition, compassion, identity, autonomy and care of clients are possible outcomes)' (Alford, 2009. Mulgan *et al.*, 2007).

CL emphasises the importance of researchers as having an important role here as human agents of innovation (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013), supporting practitioner colleagues in this process. Innovations themselves are regarded as a stepwise construction of new forms of collaborative practice or what they term techno-economic networks (Engeström, 1999; Kajamaa, 2015). BCW interventions emphasise the scale of the social innovation being developed, being a shorter process than the CL upon which its method is derived. It is a first light explorative initiative employing

collaborative co-creation process that may in the long term lead to larger effects and social innovations (Ruotsala, 2014). CD emphasised the contextual aspects of social innovation that whilst including the relational aspects of context, included materials, space and aesthetics as well. AC pays attention to the multidimensionality of the innovation process (happening at the personal, interpersonal, transpersonal and impersonal levels), and the nature of collective engagement in work activity analysis and transformation (importance of sincerity for example). All interventions emphasised the meaning making and learning that takes place during the innovation process and their reenactment of (everyday) practice (Aakjær, 2014).

Meaning making happens through collaboration between actors and is key to generating innovation in all the interventions. Collaboration is viewed as an interaction between individual actors (albeit representatives of different organisations potentially), and differs conceptually, although is potentially influenced by, models of integration. The latter is defined by Kodner & Spreeuwenberg (2002) as models of funding, administration, organisation, service delivery and care designed to create connectivity, alignment and collaboration within and between differentiated sectors. Although proponents of the chosen interventions would suggest their methods might develop new models of integration, if these are viewed through an integration lens, the interventions themselves could be best described as, a 'knotwork' model of integration, convened and facilitated by researchers where loosely connected participants from practice come together temporarily to explore an organisational or interorganisational challenge (Engeström, 1999).

The view of collaboration in all interventions is related to a process of cocreation (or co-configuration in the activity-theoretical lexicon) between actors, a more creative process than mere cooperation or coordination of work activity. It is a relational process of joint activity, allowing for the cross fertilization of ideas between participating perspectives and leading to innovative ideas and outputs of public value (Alford, 2009, Moore 1995). Cocreativity arises when individuals are driven together by local needs and constraints, but then are able to establish a common identity across participating actors to create something new (Kajamaa & Lahtinen, 2016, Engeström *et al.* 2015, Virkkunen, 2006; Victor & Boynton 1998). All interventions adhere to the idea that the process of the transformation of new working processes, of cocreating potential, reconceptualising the object of activity, or reshaping the purpose and motive of their joint activity, occurs through the unification of multiple voices. From the

activity-theoretical perspective articulated in the CL and BCW, cocreativity is the “process of shared construction of an object, a mobilization of the necessary and complementary cultural resources as well as a process of mutual learning” (Miettinen 2006: 176, also Miettinen, 1996). Individuals and collectives can expand their scope for action and cocreate innovations. Through collaboration, the object of workplace activity is shaped by participants in the intervention. These are all actors who will have different and only partial perspectives of this object of the activity. In fact, the creativity of this process is predicated on the presence of these multiple actors including representatives of organisational leadership, employees and researchers, each bringing their own life histories, experiences, institutional context and perspectives. BCW emphasises that actors be of different groups (e.g. different organisations), each crossing professional and organisational boundaries, AC focuses on the distinction between workers and leadership and CD focuses on including the voices and knowledge of users/citizens.

Conceptualization of learning

At the core of the participatory model being presented is the process of learning and its conceptualisation (Figure 3). Aakjær’s application of the CD intervention (2014, 2018), recognises the individual level learning process taking place during the sessions, exploring this in terms of participants’ exposure to strange perspectives that start a learning process through destabilising individual’s perceptions of *what is*.

Hereby an opportunity for reframing a particular situation or problem is created. A form of collective learning ensues rooted in social interactions in and across communities (Brandt & Elkjær, 2011, Elkjær, 2003), a tight collaboration between groups of workers and an assimilation of external perspectives from members of multi voiced or heterogenous groups participating in the intervention. Participants explore *what could be*, which gives form to new practices, perceptions and *what will be*. Individual reflection is central to this learning process in which one’s perspective on practice expands through taking on board the perspectives of others and making new perspectives as a result.

From the AC perspective, learning is the product first of the collaboration interactions between the researcher facilitating the intervention and the participating professionals.

Professionals then appropriate the dialogical frameworks introduced by researchers to facilitate the examination of current and historical working practices. The learning then moves to a space situated between participant workers, as they learn of each other's resources and perspectives (KLoetzer, *et al.* 2015). CL and BCW refer to this space as a zone of proximal development or "the distance between the present everyday actions of the individuals and the historically new form of the societal activity that can be collectively generated as a solution" (Engeström, 1987, p. 174).

All the interventions describe this collective/collaborative learning as an iterative and experimental process that takes place over multiple cycles and with the help of the facilitating researcher. The iterative cycles represent a means for rehearsal of new roles and relations (Halse *et al.*, 2010), which forms the basis for social innovation in practice (Aakjær & Darsø, 2014). CL interventionists spell out the dimensions of these cycles in most detail, and an illustrative example of such a learning cycle in a prison environment is explored in greater detail in Chapter 6. Below the key dimensions of expansive learning cycle are presented (Figure 3) as a series of epistemic actions, that lead participants collectively to redefine and restructure the object of an activity (Vygotsky 1987; Engeström 1987, Leont'ev, 1978):

After setting an initial mandate for an intervention, the first of the actions in the learning cycle is that of questioning, criticizing or rejecting some aspects of the accepted practice and existing wisdom. An analysis follows involving a mental, discursive or practical transformation of the situation being discussed by participants in order to explore the causes or explanatory mechanisms behind this. Analysis evokes "why?" questions. Controversies, tensions and contradictions identified in the organisations working practice and then act as potential triggers for organisational level learning and work place transformation (Engeström 1987) (See Figure 3, B,C,D).

The next actions involve modelling (BCW, CL, AC) or prototyping (CD) (Figure 3, E) to construct an explicit model of a new idea, rooted in the explanations explored in the previous action, a model that offers a solution for the problematic situation. Interventionists anticipate that solutions will be generated through the cycle in which, in CD terms, participants discover *what is* (framing problems in Schön's terms 1983), imagine new solutions (*what could be – reframing problems*) and explore the viability

of new solutions (*what will be*) (Aakjær, 2018). The solution creation process is often a lengthy process (sometimes abbreviated in the BCW) involving multiple iterative cycles, negotiation and hybridization between alternative perspectives (see Virkkunen & Newham, 2013).

The model is then carefully examined (Figure 3, F), before running, operating and experimenting on it in practice in order to fully grasp its dynamics, potentials and limitations. (Figure 3, G). The implementation experience is then reflected upon in future sessions and evaluated (Figure 3 H). From the CD perspective, the involvement of prisoners (the service user) as evaluators of the new model of activity or innovation, is essential at this point. The group may then enter a second cycle of this learning process if required or, if the new model is deemed successful, work towards consolidating its outcomes into a new stable form of practice (see Engeström, 1987).

At the level of the organisation, learning is manifest in its outcomes; the development and transformation of working practices: the development of new concepts or instruments, for example, leading to qualitative transformations of the objects of an activity or the activity model as a whole (Engeström & Sannino, 2010; Engeström, 1987). The scale of transformation that takes place may vary, the CL often aiming for larger-scale transformations in activity systems, that may take several years to carry out in organizations. The learning in BCW interventions is less ambitious run over only a few weeks with the experimental phase often removed. A balance between experimentation and the time and energy resource of the organisation must be found.

The transformation process is understood through Davydov's (1990) dialectical method of ascending from the abstract to the concrete, where the assumption is that all practices have internal contradictions and can undergo transformation. Stripping away the surrounding detail from the key issue at hand (abstraction) to make sense of practice and experiment with the alternative (a development or in fact exact opposite) of the practice in situ happens through the interactions between participants who renegotiate and reorganize their collaborative relations and practices. and which might transform perceptions of the purpose of, for example, a particular work routine.

Outcomes of this learning, whether at the individual, collective or organisational levels in these interventions, are unpredictable. Effective learning and service development is not always guaranteed and, it should be accepted, that at times, some interventions only produce micro-cycles of expansive learning (Engeström, 1999) and do not necessarily lead to a cocreation process, profound, expansive learning or workplace transformation (Engeström *et al.*, 2014).

Reporting

Interventions have a political dimension, meaning reporting back to the participant organisations on the outcomes of the sessions, and especially to the leadership, is vital (see figure 3 H). AC detail useful strategies here. They describe an important phase of the intervention being where researchers and workers jointly select video clips of their activity and interviews featuring debates about important aspects and conflicts of their work. These videos are arranged in a final form, a film-based multi-voiced report, which is then presented and discussed with a group of directors, managers and experts. In doing so, the researchers articulate the controversies on the work activity so that they can be reflected upon in order to transform the work organization. These may be presented as part of the work transformation process to engage leadership or policy makers in the transformational process or at the beginning of an upscaling process (Figure 3 I).

Sustainability and long term implementation of agreed service changes

The sustainability of the interventions can be viewed in three ways: First this may be seen in terms of the sustainability of the network of participants created by the intervention: the dialogical, analytical, reflective and transformative social dynamics experienced during these interventions by participants may mean they are better able to go forward together with the concrete changes they have developed in the work organisation at all levels. Secondly, there may be some sustainability of the method of the intervention to build a sustainable culture of organisational learning, collaboration and innovation. There is an argument for sustaining the model of intervention itself as a means of encouraging this commitment to a sustained culture of innovation and collaboration. In other words, researchers could explore training organisations to run future interventions themselves and for there to be a hand over of the facilitation role to the organisations themselves when researchers withdraw. This could help sustain

or adapt the outcomes of these interventions in the long term. This requires willingness on the behalf of researchers to relinquish their ownership of the method. The theoretical complexities of the methods may work against this.

Lastly, sustainability relates to the outcomes of the intervention. Organisational change can be a lengthy process, and efforts are required to anchor and diffuse innovations that arise from the interventions at all system levels. The significance and sustainability of new service prototypes (e.g. new routines, in CD speak) or new systems of activity (in CL and BCW speak) is largely determined by the subsequent commitment to nurturing these by the management and employees involved and their ability to do so in a constantly changing work environment (Engeström et al., 2007; Kajamaa, 2011). BCW talk of the importance of including HR departments in interventions to help sustain the outcomes of the interventions after the end of the intervention and for AC engaging all organisational levels in decision making is key. Through the iterative and experimental design of the interventions, participants are able to explore and reconsider existing practices and simultaneously rehearse the viability and potential of new ways of being, doing, and knowing in practice. This ability to trial and test the developing innovations may contribute to the sustainability of these. Overall, the long-term success of interventions is seen to be dependent on the buy in and commitment of the organization itself and the manner in which the organisational leadership and researcher can support and grow this commitment. However, beyond this, achieving sustainability is not well theorised in any of the interventions.

[Including the voice of the service user in the intervention](#)

The inclusion of frontline worker and service user voice in interventions is acknowledged as another means of assuring sustainability: policies imposed upon services and workers “top-down” to effect organisational change often do not correspond to the specific client or work situation they encounter. In response, front line workers develop coping mechanisms whereby they adapt or ignore the policy structures imposed upon them (Fuglsang, 2010). Service users, including prisoners, engage in a similar process, adapting or ignoring the interventions introduced to help them, if these do not fit with what extrinsically or intrinsically motivates them. The interventions, especially CD; by all focussing on giving workers and service users voice, improve the likelihood that organisational learning, change and innovations

developed through the interventions have a better chance of being implemented and sustained by workers and service users. Introducing the user perspective potentially reveals the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation more clearly (Junginger 2008) acting as a lever for participants to reflect, learn and develop activities and practices. (Meroni & Sangiorgi, 2011).

However, interventions often lack service user engagement for a variety of reasons: in CL terms, the object of the joined activity (e.g. the prisoner) may be viewed as passive recipients of the service, and hence do not actively become involved in service development. This may be because they are not actively invited to the intervention by researchers. In AC, for example, clients do not usually directly participate in the process of analysis and co-creation and hence their perspective cannot be explicitly elaborated. Engeström *et al.* (2014) suggest that this lack of service user involvement may originate from CL being so well applied to schools and similar education establishments, where students are not traditionally invited in as vehicles of organisational change, although the potential is there. Similarly, in the CJS environment prisoners may be excluded politically either because they are not traditionally seen as service users (like students) but also because they are not seen as deserving of citizenship and a role in the development of a service designed to control and punish them (See chapter 12 for an elaboration of this topic). Resources may limit participation also with not enough officers being available to retain the level of security that is needed to allow the attendance of the prisoner (or in fact the researcher into the prison in the first place). Prisoners may also exclude themselves or be unable to participate directly. They may perceive services as something simply given to them in a ready-made form rather than produced together between a service provider and client. The client may also feel disempowered in the company of professionals, especially in prisoner settings, and a concern for being seen as cooperating with the prison authorities by other inmates. Other vulnerabilities prevalent in prisons (e.g. a mentally illness, learning disability) may further make them unable to participate in the cocreation process required. Thought needs to be given on how to give voice to this type of client (Kajamaa & Hilli, 2014; Kajamaa and Lahtinen, 2016). Prisoners might be involved only at certain phases of the intervention, for example, to manage resource limitations as well as the strain put upon them in the

intervention process. They might also act evaluators of any new model of activity or innovation developed.

An exploration, of *experience prototyping* (F figure 2) may offer operational insight here. Experience prototyping is a method employed by CD, experience and service design approaches to find ways in which intervention participants can capture what it personally feels like to experience everyday life in prison, either as a prisoner or employee/officer (Halse *et al.* 2010, Bate & Robert, 2007, Buchenau and Fulton, 2000). By getting as close to the lived experience of the service user as possible, it is predicted that participants are better able to explore both where the needs for development lie and then the possible solutions to these service challenges. An experience prototype is a complex sensory exploration of a service or routine (Bate and Robert, 2007), that can be used for a better comprehension of how a goal can best be achieved (Meroni & Sangiorgi, 2011). It could involve physically acting out a scene or ways of performing a routine, as a means to explore and develop through embodiment an existing service routine. In the prison system, for example, the enactment of a new prisoner tour of prison service through storytelling or producing a prototype newsletter as a model of communicating between prisoner and officer where tangible ways in which the prototypes could be experienced by participants (Aakjær 2014, 2018). If prisoners cannot be included at all, their experience may be at least partially be represented in videos of the activities around them (Engeström, 2004, Hasu & and Engeström, 2000). These edited videos of work practices (including work with the prisoner) are shown by the researcher to participants and should strongly represent the prisoner`s voice: how the prisoner has perceived the service provided to him or her. The challenge rises as to whether making video material is permitted by secure environments and the confidentiality of information being shared by them in these.



Figure 3 Expansive learning cycle capturing collaborative learning within the CL model (adapted from Engeström 1987,1999, 2004)

Concluding comments

Traditionally universities are observers of practice. We argue they have an ethical responsibility to act as more than observer but also be facilitators of organisational change. Participatory research methods such as CL; BCW, CD take this step forward are as much an ethical step for researchers as much as a knowledge building one. The chapter has presented an examination of models of innovation, organisational learning and collaboration with potential utility in an interagency and criminal justice context. We have examined 11 main dimensions of these, the content drawn from the comparison of CL, AC; BCW and CD participatory approaches and have developed a tentative model of the structures (Figures 2) and processes (Figure 3) to be applied in this context to tackle some of the tensions in the CJS context identified by other chapters in this book. It is further argued that researchers have an ethical obligation to ensure the effective implementation and sustainability of the new systems of activity or prototypes developed through this model but acknowledge that currently this

dimension is less well developed and discussed by current interventionists and needs further development. The model is not without its challenges and careful evaluation of the model *in situ* is required, with scope to improve the theorisation of the experimental phase, evaluation, upscaling or sustainability phase (in the short and longer term) and the role of the researcher in these processes.

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