VOL. 15_ISSUE 3_2019

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ACTION RESEARCH

Barbara Budrich Publishers

ISSN 1861-1303

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ACTION RESEARCH
Volume 15, 2019
ISSN: 1861-1303 | ISSN Online: 1861-9916

To submit relevant articles, please contact
Dr. Danilo R. Streck
Rua Pastor Rodolfo Saenger, 144, Bairro Jardim América, 93035-110 São Leopoldo-RS, Brazil
dstreck@unisinos.br

Publisher
Verlag Barbara Budrich GmbH, Stauffenbergstr. 7, D-51379 Leverkusen, Germany
ph +49 (0)2171.79491.50 – fx +49 (0)2171.79491.69 – info@budrich.de
www.budrich.eu – www.budrich-journals.com

Subscription
IJAR is published three times per annum. Subscription rates are per annum and include VAT.
All prices and rates as well as all issues (archives), downloads (PDF) and links to our online shop can be found here:
https://ijar.budrich-journals.com

Jacket illustration by Bettina Lehfeldt, Kleinmachnow, Germany – www.lehfeldtgraphic.de
Printed in Europe on acid-free paper by paper & tinta, Warsaw

Contents

Editorial

We, the editors of the *International Journal of Action Research*, are pleased to offer our readers an issue that confirms the wide scope of social demands to which researchers are called to respond, or feel compelled to address, due to their commitment for promoting changes in organisations, schools and other social contexts. Also the geographical origins of the articles need to be highlighted , and may help us to get a better understanding of the ways action research practices are recreated in different parts of the world, respectively, and how the conceptual references differ, providing fertile ground for common learnings.

The first text, "Does organisational action research have a future?", written by the Danish researchers Marianne Kristiansen and Jørgen Bloch-Poulsen, is not a conventional article. It originates from questions posed to the authors by two editors of the *International Journal of Action Research,* who invited these professionals to reflect critically on their trajectory as researchers, more specifically, their research experience with organisational action research. Four challenges were identified, to be faced by action research: how to move from co-influence to co-determination; the need to document action research processes; a self-critical appraisal of how action researchers deal with power; and paying attention to socio-economic conditions. In short, the future of organisational action research, as the authors point out, can or should not be taken for granted.

Norman Chivasa, in "A participatory approach to peacebuilding evaluation in Seke district, Zimbabwe" reports and analyses the evaluation of a self-initiated peace committee by ordinary people in the Seke district, Zimbabwe. According to the author, action research can be a useful methodology with the potential to create space for common people to participate in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of peace initiatives in their villages. Although not denying the role of authorities in monitoring and evaluation of peacebuilding, the study highlights the possibility of bringing bottom up practices into the mainstream, thus increasing the impact on peacebuilding practices.

In the article, "From silos to inter-professional collaboration: A mixed methods case study utilising participating action research to foster multidisciplinary teams in a day care surgery department", Gunhild Bjaalid, Rune Todnem By, Bernard Burnes, Aslaug Mikkelsen and Olaug Øygaarden present a single case study that reports on the establishment of a multidisciplinary day care surgery at a Norwegian University Hospital utilising participat-

ing action research design principles drawn from socio-technical theory. Based on data collected through mixed methods, the authors argue that the hospital achieved the vision of creating an efficient multidisciplinary work environment, reducing the culture of tribalism between professions, and creating a work environment with a high degree of knowledge transfer. Action research, they point out, can be used to reduce organisational silos and improve multidisciplinary cooperation.

Based on a project in South Brazil, "The Learning Web in the Systematisation of Experiences: An Analysis of Research Processes with Artisan Women", Aline Lemos da Cunha Della Libera and Edla Eggert discuss aspects of a dialogue with artisan women during the production of their handicrafts. The methodology builds on participant research studies conducted in Brazil since the 1960's, to which feminist studies are added. The article integrates two groups of female artisans who produced pieces, and simultaneously talked about their craft production processes and their daily experiences. The conclusions, based on alternative ways of systematising the recorded findings, challenge researchers to develop creative methodologies in research practice with poorly educated adult women.

The fifth article, "Second Language Teachers' Reasons for Doing/Not Doing Action Research in Their Classrooms", by Vahid Rahmani Doqaruni, Behzad Ghonsooly, Reza Pishghadam, explores the extent to which Iranian teachers do research, and their reasons for doing so in the English as a foreign language context, with a special emphasis on action research. While many teachers consider action research useful in solving their immediate teaching problems and improving their teaching practices, the analysis of the teachers' reasons showed that there are barriers in the way of conducting action research: practical (lack of time), logistic (not having enough knowledge and support), and attitudinal (teachers believe that their job is only to teach).

We thank the authors who contributed to this issue for the *International Journal of Action Research*, and wish our readers an enriching learning experience.

Danilo R. Streck
Editor-in-Chief

Does organisational action research have a future?

Marianne Kristiansen & Jørgen Bloch-Poulsen

Abstract
This is not an ordinary article. It was written in response to some questions that the current and the former IJAR editors-in-chief asked us to reflect on. We did so gratefully, because this was a good opportunity to look back on 25 years of doing AR in organisations.

The article describes four challenges of future organisational action research. Firstly, in the future an increasing number of skilled employees will make it necessary to move from co-influence of how to implement goals, to a greater degree of co-determination. Secondly, the article argues there is a need for an increased focus on documenting AR processes. Thirdly, the article calls for more self-critical reflections on the concrete ways action researchers exercise power. Fourthly, questioning the possibilities of doing AR in organisations will become important in the future, due to socio-economic conditions such as lack of time.

The article is based on a four-year research project that we carried out on various American and European approaches to action research in organisations in the 20th century. It includes, too, a description of our different personal ways into AR and some of the AR concepts we developed along the way.

Keywords: organisational action research, participation, power, documentation of action research processes.

¿La investigación-acción organizacional tiene futuro?

Resumen
En realidad, este no es un artículo normal. Fue escrito en respuesta a algunas preguntas que el actual y el ex-editor de IJAR nos pidieron que reflexionemos. Lo hicimos con gratitud, porque esta fue una buena oportunidad para mirar hacia atrás en los 25 años de hacer IA en las organizaciones.

El artículo describe cuatro desafíos de la futura investigación-acción organizacional. En primer lugar, en el futuro, un número cada vez mayor de empleados calificados hará que sea necesario moverse de la co-influencia de cómo implementar las metas a un mayor grado de co-determinación. En segundo lugar, el artículo argumenta que existe la necesidad de un mayor énfasis en la documentación de los procesos de IA. En tercer lugar, el artículo hace un llamado a más reflexiones autocríticas sobre las formas concretas en que los investigadores- acción ejercen el poder. En cuarto lugar, cuestionar las posibilidades de realizar IA en las organizaciones se volverá importante en el

futuro debido a las condiciones socio-económicas como la falta de tiempo. El artículo se basa en un proyecto de investigación de cuatro años que llevamos a cabo sobre varios enfoques americanos y europeos para la investigación- acción en organizaciones en el siglo XX. También incluye una descripción de nuestras diferentes formas personales de IA y algunos de los conceptos de IA que desarrollamos a lo largo del camino.

Palabras clave: Investigación-acción organizacional, participación, poder, documentación de procesos de investigación-acción.

Introduction

When reporting that we, as we reached the age of 70+, had chosen to stop as action researchers, Danilo Streck and Werner Fricke, the current and the former IJAR editors-in-chief, asked us to answer the questions below, which we were welcome to relate to freely:

1. You have a long and productive trajectory with Action Research (AR). Where, how and when did you come across AR? How did you learn about AR and how to do AR? Were there researchers or experiences that had a special impact on you and your research practice?

2. In your writings, theory and practice are intertwined in a critical and creative way. Could you reflect on this process? What are some key concepts that an action researcher should pay attention to? Based on your practice, what concepts did you develop?

3. What perspectives do you see for AR to play a role in social changes, such as the strengthening or defence of democracy, in the articulation of new visions for humanity, for the people´s organisation in digital work processes?

4. Organisations and companies were in many cases privileged sites for AR, involving the various stakeholders. With the changes in the work context (crowdwork, platform economy, etc.) what could be possible implications for action research?

5. In international social science discussion (Burawoy et al. in USA; Dörre, Aulenbacher etc in Germany) there is a growing discussion about public sociology. Would AR have to play a role in this context?

6. You have recently published the book "Inddragelse i forandringsprocesser. Aktionsforskning i organisationer [Participation in change processes. Action research in organisations]". Could you tell us a little of the background for writing the book and its content?

7. Looking back at your experience as researchers, what learnings for yourself would you highlight? What would you recommend or advise for old and new researchers engaging in action research?

We are very pleased to have been given this opportunity, because we have worked as action researchers for at least 25 years. We do not know enough about action research in general. The following is therefore solely about action research in organisations, from which we have experience. Thus, we do not have sufficient knowledge to comment on the 5th question, nor

do we know enough about 'crowdwork' and 'platform economy' (the 4th question). We would also like to mention that we are limited by our professional backgrounds: Marianne in interpersonal and organisational communication and psychotherapy, Jørgen in the history of ideas/philosophy and psychotherapy.

Primarily, this article is based on a four-year research project that we carried out on various approaches to action research in organisations in the 20th century, such as change-oriented social science in USA in the 1940s, socio-technical systems thinking in England in the 1950s, experiments with Industrial Democracy in Norway in the 1960s, democratic dialogue conferences in Norway and Sweden in the 1980s, and pragmatic action research in Spain in the latter part of the 1980s. So far, our research is only published in Danish in 2018. Our monograph is titled: Inddragelse i forandringsprocesser? Aktionsforskning i organisationer [Participation in change processes? Action research in organisations].

The monograph is based on readings of many sources within each approach written by some of the founding fathers, analyses of examples of projects within each approach, as well as studies at the Tavistock archives in London. Unfortunately, we are not able to document our studies, due to the limited scope of this article, and because the documentation is available in Danish, only. This leaves us with a methodological problem, because later in the article, we criticise the approaches for lacking documentation of the action research processes. We do the same in this article. We have tried to handle this problem by meta-communicating about it, as we do now in this paragraph, and by giving a few examples. We know that this "solution" does not pay the tribute to the various approaches that they deserve.

The article is structured as a response to the questions asked by Danilo Streck and Werner Fricke.

The first paragraph starts with question 7 where we present four overall points of view.

The second paragraph is followed by answering question 2. Here we present two narratives of our different personal ways into action research. Moreover, we present some of the major concepts that we developed along the way such as, e.g., self-referentiality, dialogue and dissensus, emergence and not-knowing, always-already contextualised.

The third paragraph answers questions 3 and 4. It deals with power and participation.

The fourth paragraph answers question 6. It deals, too, with power and participation and describes different concepts of power in the previous approaches to organisational action research in the 20th century. It describes organisational action research as applied research, facilitation, and co-generative research.

The final and fifth paragraph returns to question 7, and describes some challenges in future action research projects.

Four future challenges of organisational action research (question 7)

We will start by presenting four overall points of view, which we will elaborate on below:

The first argument is that, historically, organisational action research has allowed employees to contribute with suggestions on how to achieve the goals that management have decided in advance – possibly in collaboration with action researchers (Kristiansen &

Bloch-Poulsen 2018). Often democracy has been practiced as deliberative democracy in the soft sense of the concept (Mansbridge et al 2010) meaning co-influence on implementation. We do not consider this to be sufficient in future action research projects. An increasing number of employees are highly skilled, and will demand a greater degree of co-determination. Based on our experiences, they will not accept participating only by making suggestions, they will expect to participate in decision making, too. On the other hand, today, many socio-economic changes make it increasingly difficult to practice democracy as co-determination in organisational action research projects, e.g., the crisis of trade unions and the growing dominance of new types of individualised hierarchies in organisations.

The second argument is that we would like an increased focus on documentation of the actual action research processes. In our monograph, we show that the various approaches tend to write about action research processes in general. We have often missed documentation of the actual organisational action research processes in the form of, e.g., transcripts or descriptions of processes, conversations, and interviews. As readers of these approaches, it has been difficult to see what took place when AR researchers co-operated with their partners. Sometimes, we could not distinguish between the researchers' own interpretations of their work, and what the partners and the researchers said and did, respectively. What has been particularly surprising to us is that often, such methodological problems were not reflected on by the researchers themselves. Some tended to present their conclusions as truths, rather than as possible interpretations of different perceptions of organisational processes. Moreover, some authors did not reflect on which voices were included and excluded, during action research processes and in the final analyses. In this way, we think it might become too easy for colleagues within academia to reject action research as consultancy.

The third argument is that we would like more critical self-reflections on the ways action researchers exercise power and understand their own roles. Several action researchers within the various approaches write about power in general terms such as, e.g., Gustavsen (2001), Greenwood & Levin (1998), Schafft & Greenwood (2003). But only a few of them describe and analyze in concrete terms how power is unfolded in the actual action research processes, and how action researchers exercise power themselves. Thorsrud & Emery (1970) is an early exception. Later organisational action research shows a different picture as, e.g., in Arieli, Friedman, Agbaria (2009). Moreover, often we have seen how the action researcher is portrayed uncritically as a helper, or as an expert, who apparently has the Enlightenment patent of truth and interpretative monopoly. In the future, we would like to read problematisations of this tendency (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2018).

The fourth argument is that over the past 25 years, we have seen how time has become increasingly scarce in organisations. We consider ourselves to have been privileged as action researchers. Generally, in our projects in the 20th century, we have had time to reflect with our partners, but we experienced the lack of time in our projects in this century. Today, there seems to be an inverse proportionality between the time spent on talking about the need for development and innovation, and the actual time spent on doing this. In practice, it seems that operations and daily production have outcompeted development. From our perspective, a central question has become whether you can do organisational action research at all today – without it becoming an example of quick consultancy on a more or less scientific basis.

We know this might sound negative. It is our intention to say to younger action researchers that there is good reason to question the self-understanding of organisational action research as a promotor of democracy as well as the conditions and possibilities of doing it today.

Our paths towards organisational action research (question 1)

Marianne: About silent girls

In retrospect, I realise that I practiced elements of action research many years before having read or heard about it. Thus, this section deals with my own coming home to action research, through research and communication processes that went from practice to theoretical knowledge and development of action research concepts.

From a Ph.D. project on foreign language teaching to a project on silent girls in a Danish high school

From 1977 to 1980, I carried out a Ph.D. project on foreign language teaching at Roskilde University in Denmark. I started reading literature on the subject and found most of it boring.

I decided then to initiate a practical, educational project at a Danish high school close to Copenhagen, where many students came from non-bookish environments. I wanted to study if and how students could learn English by using the language in many different teaching situations organised by me. I was qualified as a high school language teacher, because I had a master's degree in English and had passed a pedagogical exam.

I began teaching English in a first-grade high school class. I wrote field notes from classes, and compared them with the ones written by my observer. In the autumn holidays, I spent a week at the Royal Danish Library in Copenhagen reading notes.

I found a pattern. A group of girls participated actively in pair- and group work and in writing individual exercises. However, they became silent in joint activities in class as, e.g., discussions, role plays, presentations of group work. I decided to change the project into a study of if, how, and when this group of silent girls could unfold their voices in the public class space. Thus, I renamed the project: "the silent girls".

This change was made without including the girls in my decision-making process. They neither had voice nor choice in the research process.

Communicating about the project in a book and at different high schools

For the next three years, from 1978 to 1981, I wrote a book together with the high school class (Kristiansen & 3. G, 1981). It was based on taped individual and group interviews with all 23 students in the class. It was sold as classroom material, and several high schools invited us to lecture at their schools.

"Now, I am no longer silent"

On an autumn day in 1981, 12 young people from the class, who had now graduated from high school, and I, were in the auditorium of a high school in Jutland. There were about 500 students and teachers in the room. Alternately, the 12 students told which roles they had played externally in class, and how they had experienced them internally. The roles included narratives of, e.g., a bookable girl, a silent girl, a swarmed boy, a technical interested boy etc. Gradually, the high school audience moved closer. They began laughing, clapping their hands, and asking questions. Sometimes, there was complete silence in the room.

Afterwards, a former silent girl approached me saying: "Now, I am no longer silent". "No, you are not", I replied smiling through tears.

In that moment, I decided to become a researcher. If research could contribute to helping groups of people such as "silent girls" unfolding their potentials and becoming happier, then I would become a researcher. Then my research was not only going to be about me and my career, though it helped me too; but also about becoming part of a larger community, and contributing to something bigger than myself. I did not understand my choice of vocation as an action researcher, only as a researcher.

Some action research elements and two major shortcomings

When seen in the rear-view mirror, I realise that the project of silent girls had elements of action research:

- The silent girls and I, too, unfolded some of our potentials in the project. We wrote a book and told about the project in newspapers and at different high schools. Moreover, some of the girls changed their choice of education. Instead of becoming a nurse, e.g., like their mothers, one of them chose a creative education using, e.g., her skills as an illustrator. I got a job as an adjunct professor at Aalborg University.
- The process was developed emergently from a more traditional qualitative, foreign language study into a project of silent girls.
- The process was documented by using observations, field notes, taped individual and group interviews with all students, and taped feedback on these interviews.
- Participation was practiced as communicating the process in books and lectures, where everybody contributed in different degrees.

The project had a least two major shortcomings:

- It did not include participation in the research process. I alone chose the issue of the project and wrote scientific articles about it. I did not include the girls nor the class in my scientific interpretations of data.
- I was left then with many ethical problems, due to the distance between my interpretations and the students' experiences. I decided then that this was going to be different in the future. However, I did not know then how, and in what ways.

A project on mentors and dialogue at Bang & Olufsen in Struer, Denmark

15 years later, in the mid-1990s, Jørgen and I initiated an organisational action research project on mentors and dialogues at the audio-television company, Bang & Olufsen in Struer, Denmark. This time, too, my way into the project went from practice to a study of mentor conversations. Earlier, I had worked as a consultant at B&O, and as a supervisor of adult teachers in the Northern part of Denmark. The issue of the project emanated from these practical experiences, too: How do mentors or supervisors meet partners in conversations when power is present in asymmetrical, organisational contexts?

At this stage, I began reading action research literature, in particular about participation in action research processes (Reason 1994a, 1994b; Heron & Reason 1986), because I realised that I had practiced elements of action research without knowing since the project of silent girls.

Coming home

About 2001, I listened to a keynote given by Peter Reason at Aalborg University, Denmark. While sitting in the auditorium, I got a sense of finally coming 'home'. From now on, I would not only be a researcher, but an action researcher. A couple of years later, we got in touch with Werner Fricke, who had read our book of the B&O mentoring project (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2005). I still remember when Werner's mail ticked into my mailbox, I did not know him then. Imagine there was a human being out there who could see and understand what we had been trying so hard to do. I was almost crying for joy and gratitude. To be seen and met by Werner as an action researcher initiated a lengthy action research process, which has not stopped.

Jørgen: About cardiovascular disease

In 1969-1970, as a young student, I wrote a philosophical dissertation on neo-Marxism in European thinking. It showed, among other things, how the dissidents in Eastern Europe used the young Marx's works in their criticism of Stalinism. In particular, they based their criticism on "The Economic-Philosophical Manuscripts" from 1844, first published in 1932. In my reading of the young Marx's works, I came across his 11th Feuerbach thesis. It says that philosophers have interpreted the world differently, but it is about changing it. This thesis came to act as my bad conscience for several years, when as a young university teacher, I studied the history of the working class in Denmark. My work did not transcend interpretations.

In the late 1970s, I went into psychoanalysis. It made me look more inwardly, for example on my identification with my father who died at the age of 59 from a coronary occlusion. I was afraid to repeat this, so in 1983, I wrote a psychoanalytic book about possible psychological causes of cardiovascular diseases. A doctor contacted me and proposed a collaboration between us. In conjunction with a dietitian, we made a project with approximately 100 people which lasted for several years. We called it health training. From a holistic perspective, the purpose was to prevent lifestyle diseases, and to reduce or remove possible symptoms. I learned, for example, that people with high blood pressure normalised their blood pressure during health training. My work was no longer only about interpretation, but also about change. In retrospect, I see this work as a kind of action research, though I did

not know this then. Here I developed an idea that the more you as a human being can be in control of your own (work) life, the less the risk of cardiovascular disease. Thus, autonomy, self-determination or co-determination became key concepts.

I therefore continued to establish a consulting firm, where I, in co-operation with foremen or first level managers at various companies, created a series of organisational processes. The purpose was to increase productivity by 10 to 15% in a year by reducing the level of stress and thus hopefully, reducing the likelihood of cardiovascular disease. These consultant projects succeeded to some extent at, e.g., Danish, international companies such as Rockwool, Ecco, B&O, and Lego.

Along the way, it struck me that first level managers would almost always give a piece of advice when a colleague or employee presented a problem. We started to discuss whether, in relation to more knowledgeable colleagues or employees, it would be more efficient to ask questions, too, so that the people concerned could solve their problems themselves, or so that first level managers and their colleagues might create a new idea, collaboratively.

Developing concepts through organisational action research projects (question 2)

About self-referentiality, dialogue, not-knowing, always-already-contextualised

The project with first level managers at B&O made the two of us (Marianne and Jørgen) start an action research project in the business development department of B&O in 1995. We combined action with research and participation in the various processes (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2005). The company's immediate purpose was to reduce personnel turnover in the software department. Our purpose was to study what created new insights and changes in conversations.

We started with a future workshop with the approximately 100 employees in the development department (Jungk & Müllert 1981). They were mainly engineers. They pointed out that staff turnover was due to the lack of managerial concern for their long-term personal and professional development. They only had project managers or subject managers within audio, video, mechanics, software, and hardware. Together, we called this absent management function a mentor. The task became to develop the mentoring function, collaboratively. For a year, we carried through a process with all the managers and some of their employees, where the focus was on helping younger colleagues and employees through conversations, i.e. on mentoring, so to speak. One of the directors characterised this process as "Employee development through product development. Product development through employee development."

The conversations were based on employee assessment interviews between managers and employees. All conversations were recorded on video. Immediately afterwards, managers and employees saw sequences from these conversations and gave feedback to each other, just as we gave feedback to them. These conversations were also used for training the managers as mentors, and in the production of two training videos. In the fall of 1995, we lived in the city, and spent many hours with managers and employees.

Along the way, we developed several concepts based on the conversational practice we had observed. We noticed, for example, that managers almost always acted as advisors when someone presented a problem. They did not check if their colleagues or employees wanted a piece of advice, but acted as the first level managers had done in the earlier projects. This was often a good way of communicating when their partners needed advice, but hardly otherwise.

Self-referentiality

In the training processes for future mentors, we noticed, too, that many managers were inclined to convince others of their own points of view. Open, inquiring questions were rare.

The tendency to speak from one's own perspective, to take for granted, e.g., that a person with a problem needs a piece of advice, we chose to call self-referentiality (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2004, 2005). Self-referentiality is basically about translating the other's perspective into one's own. Self-referentiality encompasses both contents and relations. Contents may be about expressing opinions and views, e.g., in the form of advice, when a piece of advice is not asked for. Relations may be about meeting the other with one's own preferred way of approaching life, e.g., about downplaying another person's concerns with one's own optimistic way of relating. The concept of self-referentiality includes the researchers, too. We acted, e.g., self-referentially when presenting our own interpretations as if they were truths, instead of listening to employees and managers. In our understanding of self-referentiality, we were inspired by Gadamer (1960), Torbert (2001), and Marshall & Mead (2005).

In particular, self-referentiality fell short in situations where employees and managers could not continue by doing more of the same. Here it became necessary to involve others, in order to create new perspectives or solutions collaboratively. We chose to define involvement or participation in a shared knowledge producing process as a dialogue. The B&O managers suggested understanding dialogues as midwifery or midwife conversations (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2005).

Communicative analyses of videotaped sequences showed how it was possible to describe dialogue or midwifery as a special quality in these conversations. New knowledge or insight were produced, when managers, employees or we, as researchers met our partners with empathy, mirroring, congruence, acceptance, and meta-communication. This often happened in combination with humuor. These concepts were developed in collaboration with managers and employees to varying degrees. We introduced the concept of self-referentiality, while the managers contributed with the concept of midwifery. At B&O, managers and employees were used to working with developing new products and processes. This meant, they often criticised our first draft of new concepts, and presented alternative suggestions. In different organisations, participation in the research process has been more difficult.

Dialogue and dissensus

For 25 years we have worked to strengthen dialogues in many different organisations and to develop a dialogic action research approach.

Today, we understand dialogue within a dissensus perspective (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2013). Dialogue does not mean constructing joint understanding. It means a shared inquiry into whether it is possible to create a joint understanding, by inquiring into different points of view and approaches. Often, dialogue is conceptualised as a noun, i.e., as a specific type of conversation differing from other types. Bohm (1996), e.g., has a distinction between dialogue and discussion. We do not understand dialogue as a noun, rather as a cross between a verb and an adjective. It is a processual concept encompassing the below mentioned conditions and characteristics. Thus, one might use 'dialoguing' or 'dialogic' about parts of a conversation:

- when a joint inquiry might qualify a perspective or a decision
- when, if possible, a framework has been decided indicating:
  - what the conversation can deal with and not deal with
  - whether the object of the conversation is goals and/or means
  - whether this kind of participation means co-influence (i.e., being able to present suggestions) or co-determination (i.e., being able to participate in decision making)
- when no other decisions about the conversational subject have been made in advance
- when the parties present views, including disagreements, for common inquiry without attempting to convince
- when the parties ask questions and check interpretations in order to understand their partners' views
- when the parties communicate in ways trying to maintain relationships.

In retrospect, the concepts of self-referentiality and dialogue were developed within an organisational context. We do not understand this as an example of applied research. It was not possible to use familiar dialogue concepts, because often they were developed in different contexts such as a philosophical or a therapeutic context, or ideally. Bohm's concept of dialogue was, e.g., conceptualised cosmologically (1996), Habermas' ideally (1996, 1971), Buber's concepts were existential and religious (1957).

As mentioned above, all conversations were recorded on videotape. There were conversations between managers, and between managers and employees in various training contexts, and between them and us in these contexts. In the evening we analyzed them. The following day, we presented and discussed our ideas with the managers and employees. In particular, we discussed which dialogic competencies might create new shared perspectives or solutions in the conversations. As mentioned, our ideas were occasionally problematised. As such, there were dialogues at many different levels and contexts such as, e.g., organisational, training, and research contexts. Through these conversations, we realized that action research cannot be described as collaboration between theoreticians and practitioners. We began to understand it as interdisciplinary teamwork between various professionals from universities/ educational institutions, and private or public organisations (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2017).

During our project at B&O, we participated in various dialogue workshops and conferences in the USA. Here we met and were inspired by some American dialogue communication researchers such as Cissna & Anderson (1994), Hawes (1999), Isaacs (1999), and Stewart (1999).

Emergence and not-knowing

We knew from previous projects that complicated processes could not be planned beyond the first phase. We later realized that Lewin (1947) had emphasised this earlier. But it became particularly clear in the B&O project that processes are emergent, and that we as action researchers must live with our not-knowing (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2008). Greenwood & Levin (1998) discuss, too, emergence and not-knowing. Not-knowing, therefore, became an important concept. Fortunately, the engineers at B&O were accustomed to working with emergent processes when developing new televisions or loudspeakers. They could never predict exactly how such processes ended.

Always-already-contextualized

Along the way through our projects, we have had many discussions about how to understand the organisational conversations we were studying: how much derived from the individual person's communicative competencies, how much could be understood within the power relations between the participants, how much could be understood in relation to the various contexts. For several years, Marianne was tired of listening to Jørgen's tendency to overlook organisational contexts, because he thought he saw the same individual competencies and relationships across different organisations. It was not until later, when we lost a year's project work on the floor because we had not taken the context sufficiently into account, that Jørgen understood the meaning of the concept of always-already-contextualised (Kristiansen 2013; Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2014). As action researchers, we never enter virgin land. Every organisation and every project have their own history, their own power relationships, which are constantly evolving and in which you yourself are embedded, influenced, and influencing in complicated ways.

Dialogic or applied?

For several reasons, it has been a challenge to develop concepts through the action research processes. The concepts of Not-knowing and Always-already-contextualised imply a dialogue between theory and practice, i.e. developing concepts and theories through practice and practice through theory. To speak with Gadamer (1960), our prejudices, or our theoretical understanding of organisations and change prior to the action research processes, could not be taken for granted and excluded from the dialogues. Applied research would be insufficient, because this approach could reduce our partners to scientific objects. We experienced our co-operation with partners as tough and rewarding concept-developing work. At Bang & Olufsen, the managers and some employees contributed to this process: not as practitioners, but as professionals with backgrounds differing from ours. In different organisations, it turned out to become more difficult often due to fiscal crisis, cuts, lack of time, etc.

Participation and power (questions 3 and 4)

We have written about the challenges, dilemmas, and paradoxes we encountered as action researchers (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2006, 2014, 2016). We have talked in favour of the

greatest possible degree of employee co-determination, but what happened when management did not want employees participating in the project management group, because the company was in a crisis (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2018)? How did we balance economic demands of efficiency with demands for improved work life quality? What would we do if management wanted to start a project now while many employees felt that the timing was unrealistic? What could we do when facing the managers', the employees' and our own powerlessness and grief when a government intervention removed the outcomes of a year's action research project (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2013)?

The worst were almost the paradoxes. They emerged when the efforts towards participation ended in their opposites, i.e. when some of our projects led to certain groups being excluded despite our participatory intentions. For example, in some projects we have excluded elderly, first level managers who had difficulties practicing dialogues; also, younger employees who were at their first employee appraisal interviews. We chose the contradictory concept: participatory hierarchy, to describe this paradox (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2016). Today, we are still in doubt whether this was an expression of our own inadequacy or whether this cannot be avoided?

Gradually, we realised that our challenges with participation and power can be grouped around these five key themes in action research projects:

- Who decides that an action research process should be initiated?
- Who decides what its purpose or goal is?
- Who decides how to design it?
- Who decides how to interpret and evaluate it?
- Who decides who should communicate what about the process and its eventual results to whom in what way?

In our own action research processes, it has always been management who decided that a process should be initiated. As far as possible, organisational goals have been determined by management and employees (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2018). The theoretical goals have been decided by us as action researchers primarily. It has also largely been us who developed the design. As far as possible, the ongoing analyses and evaluations have been made through dialogues between all parties. As action researchers, we wrote articles, books etc. about the project – often in collaboration with employees and managers (Dalgaard, Johannsen, Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2014).

Along the way, we developed an understanding of power in organisational action research projects. There are at least three different concepts (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2017):

One understands power as a possession to be exercised by different agents. This perspective sees power as dominance and control, that is, as 'power over' (Clegg & Haugaard 2009).

The second concept broadens the scope to include power as societal, political, and economic structures and understands power as economic, political, and societal exploitation. This understanding is often seen in projects inspired by critical theory such as the German Frankfurt School (Horkheimer 1937).

The third concept understands power as relations and discourses present in all aspects no matter whether they deal with the micro-or macro level. This view is inspired by Michel Foucault's (2000) power analytics which deals with the effects of power. No matter how power

works, within this perspective, there are no power-free or safe spaces in organisational action research; participation will always be linked with power relations negotiating who and what to include or exclude.

We came to understand power as a combination of these three ways, i.e., as a combination of possession, structure and discourse.

Positions of power in previous organisational action research projects (question 6)

The challenges we have had in our own change processes with the above mentioned 5 key themes led us to examine how some of our action research predecessors had handled them. How did they, e.g., practice participation in relationships between action researchers, managers and employees? As mentioned in the introduction, in 2018, we wrote a book about this.

In the book, we describe and analyze Lewin's change-oriented social science in the United States in the 1940s, exemplified by the Harwood project; the start of socio-technical systems thinking in England, exemplified by the Tavistock Institute studies in the coal mines in the 1950s; the Norwegian Industrial Democracy Project, exemplified by some of the Work Research Institute (Oslo) studies in the 1960s, e.g., at the Christiania Spigerverket and the Eidanger Salpeter factories; democratic dialogues in Norway and Sweden in the 1980s carried through in the Work Research Institute's Network Programme for Business Development (1981-91) and in the Karlstad Program (1986-92), located at the University College in Karlstad, Sweden, affiliated with the LOM program (Ledelse, Organisation, Medbestemmelse, i.e. Management, Organisation, Co-determination), exemplified by the project at Avestad Sandvik Tube AB in Storförs, Sweden; as well as pragmatic action research, exemplified by a project in the Spanish co-operatives in Mondragon in the latter half of the 1980s.

Generally, in these projects, employees do not participate in decision making, dealing with whether an action research project should be initiated, what its purpose should be, how it should be designed, what its evaluation criteria are, or how to communicate about it.

However, the projects write about participation, co-determination, co-generative research, and dialogue. It became our interpretation that primarily, these concepts should be understood as the employees' opportunity to present proposals for implementation, i.e. as ideas about how-to-methods. Decisions are usually made by management, possibly in collaboration with the action researchers.

The book also contains a self-critical chapter on our own challenges with these key themes exemplified by a project at Danfoss Solar Inverters in Denmark in 2008-10.

Our studies of these organisational action research projects from the 20th century ran into a methodological problem. Only to a very limited extent, the projects have documented how participation has been practiced in organisational action research processes. In vain, we have looked for documentation. We have asked for help from research librarians at Aalborg University, CPH, because the problem of documentation could be due to our own shortcomings. We have also looked for documentation in the Tavistock archives in London. Despite these efforts, we conclude that documentation of action research processes in organisations seems largely absent.

We have chosen a random example from the project in Mondragon in Spain, where the research team describes one of their methods, the roundtables, a kind of focus group:

In all six roundtables, participation was excellent. All participants selected and who received a personal explanation of the motives behind them, attended. The atmosphere, except for a few moments at one of the roundtables, was characterised by cordiality, progressive opening up of dialogue, and the free expression of personal opinions. At the end of each, the participants expressed satisfaction for the opportunity to state their opinions and discuss these issues (Greenwood et al, p. 125).

The quotation uses several interpretations such as "excellent", "cordiality", "progressive opening up of dialogue" and "free expression." It is not possible for us to find documentation of these interpretations; what, e.g., do the participants say themselves? As readers, we are left to believe the interpretations of the research team.

In our book (2018), we have tried to solve the problem of lacking documentation by distinguishing between what the individual approaches write themselves, and what we conclude based on the self-understanding of the individual approaches. Moreover, we have included examples from action research projects within the individual approaches, to get as close to their practice as possible.

We conclude that participation seems to have been practiced in one of these ways in the 20th century organisational action research projects:

– Organisational action research as applied research

This approach has different versions. To Lewin and his partners, this meant moving their labs into the field, i.e. into organisations, and applying pre-existing theories on the relationship between participation and productivity in the experiments with their new partners. At the Tavistock Institute, this meant that in some mines, the researchers followed some experiments with self-governing groups initiated by the local management and the miners; afterwards the researchers applied these results in different mines. In the Norwegian Industrial Democracy Project, this meant implementing the theories of the English coal mines in various Norwegian industries. In these projects, generally, the researchers acted as professional experts, advising employees and managers on how to organise their work.

– Organisational action research as facilitation

In the democratic dialogue projects, the action researchers are described as facilitators of processes between management and employees. Democracy is not seen as structure, i.e. as self-governing groups, but as a process that follows special guidelines for democratic dialogues. This meant that a special process design is applied.

– Organisational action research as co-generative research

In pragmatic action research, action research is understood as co-generative research, where managers, employees, and researchers co-produce a number of practical and theoretical results based on their different knowledge and interests. However, our study of the Mondragon project points out that "co-" means that only the research team, which primarily consists of the action researcher and the managers of different personnel departments, seems to be able to determine if employee statements are valid or not (Greenwood et al, 1992 p. 120).

Across the projects, we miss self-critical reflections on the ways action researchers position themselves in terms of power. We will give two examples:

In the action research processes in the English coal mines it is taken for granted that self-governing groups are superior to other forms of organisation. In the so called Bramwell mine, some of the miners and local managers preferred the former Tayloristic mode of production. The researchers, Trist, Higgin, Murray & Pollock (1990) understood this reaction as resistance, based on Bion's psychoanalytic theory:

This paper describes and analyzes an episode in an action research project undertaken by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in the British coalmining industry that continued, with interruptions, for eight years during the 1950s. It shows how what Bion (1961) called the "hatred of learning through experience" all but defeated an innovative collaborative endeavour by occasioning conflicts in which management and labour regressed to traditional adversarial positions (p. 476).

We miss self-critical reflections: How can you as actions researchers use psychoanalytic interpretations like "hatred of learning through experience" or "regressed", without positioning yourself as uppers (Chambers 1997)? We think the use of psychoanalytic interpretations works as a power mechanism, positioning the researchers and the miners in an asymmetrical relationship.

In the democratic dialogue projects, it is taken for granted that processes must be facilitated according to the guidelines that the researchers have decided. We think these guidelines are based on a Habermasian, consensus understanding of dialogue. They are claimed to be developed though experience (Gustavsen 2001), but we have not been able to find documentation of this. As far as we can see, the design is applied by the researchers. It does not seem to be made the subject of a dialogue between researchers and partners.

In general, such power issues seem to have been excluded from dialogue within the history of organisational action research. An exception is, e.g., Thorsrud & Emery (1970). In the Norwegian Industrial Democracy Project, they asked self-critical questions about the ways the researchers positioned themselves as outside theoretical experts, grounding their knowledge on foreign results and not on local experience: "... where they became defenders of theoretical views that had support in foreign research results, primarily" [our translation from Norwegian] (Thorsrud & Emery 1970, p. 73).

Some focal points in upcoming organisational action research projects? (question 7)

Based on our study of these organisational action research approaches from the 20th century (Kristiansen & Bloch-Poulsen 2018) and on our own projects, we think the following focal points are important to consider in future organisational action research:

- Is it possible to increase or develop employee participation from co-influence to co-determination on one or several of the five key change themes?
- Is it possible to make theories, methods, and ways of facilitation subjects of an ongoing dialogue with managers and employees in order to make the power positionings of action researchers more transparent?
- Is it possible to improve documentation of organisational action research processes, so that colleagues can check arguments and interpretations in accordance with basic scientific standards?

– Is there time enough to carry through an organisational action research project that is not only instrumental, i.e. a short-term intervening consultancy project on a limited scientific basis?

References

Arieli D., Friedman V. J. & Agbaria K. (2009). "The paradox of participation in action research". *Action Research*, *7*(3), 262-290. doi: 10.1177/1476750309336718

Bohm D. (1996). *On Dialogue*. London: Routledge.

Buber M. (1957). "Elements of the interhuman". In M. Buber (1965). *The knowledge of man* (pp. 72-88). New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Chambers R. (1997). *Whose reality counts? Putting the first last.* London: Intermediate Technology.

Cissna K. N. & Anderson R. (1994). "Communication and the Ground of Dialogue." In R. Anderson, K. N. Cissna & R. C. Arnett (Eds.). *The Reach of Dialogue: Confirmation, Voice and Community* (pp. 9-30). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Clegg, S. & Haugaard, M. (Eds.) (2010). *The SAGE Handbook of Power.* London: Sage.

Dalgaard L. G., Johannsen L. V., Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2014). "Differences as a potential vehicle of organisational development? – co-researching-on-action." In M. Kristiansen & J. Bloch-Poulsen (Eds.). *Participation and power in participatory research and action research*, (pp.199-228). Aalborg: Aalborg University Press.

Foucault M. (2000). "Power". In James D. Faubion (Ed.). *Michel Foucault: Power. Essential works of Foucault* (1954-1983), vol. 3. London: Penguin books.

Gadamer H. G. (1960). *Wahrheit und Methode*. Tübingen: Mohr.

Greenwood D. J. & Levin M. (1998). *Introduction to Action Research*. London: Sage.

Greenwood D. J., Santos J. L. G. with Alonso J. G., Markaide I. G., Arruza, A.G., Nuin I. L & Amesti K.S. (1992). *Industrial democracy as process: Participatory Action Research in the Fagor Cooperative Group of Mondragón.* Assen-Maastricht: Van Gorcum.

Gustavsen B. (2001). "Theory and Practice: the Mediating Discourse." In P. Reason & H. Bradbury (Eds.). *Handbook of Action Research Participative Inquiry & Practice*, (pp. 17-26). London: Sage.

Habermas J. (1996). *Die Einbeziehung des Anderen. Studien zur politischen Theorie*. Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp Verlag.

Habermas J. (1971). "Vorbereitende Bemerkungen zu einer Theorie der kommunikativen Kompetenz". In J. Habermas & N. Luhmann (Eds.). *Theorie der Gesellschaft oder Sozialtechnologie – was leistet die Systemforschung?* (pp. 101-141). Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp Verlag.

Hawes L. C. (1999). "The dialogics of conversation: Power, control, vulnerability." *Communication Theory, 9,* 229-264. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2885.1999.tb00170.x

Heron J. & Reason P. (1986). "Research with people". *Person-centered Review, 4*(1), 456-76.

Horkheimer M. & Marcuse H. (1937). „Philosophie und kritische Theorie." *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung, 6*(3), 625-647. Retrieved from http://ia800501.us.archive.org/21/items/ZeitschriftFrSozialforschung6.Jg/ZeitschriftFrSozialforschung61937.pdf

Isaacs W. (1999). *Dialogue and the Art of Thinking Together*. New York: Currency, Doubleday.

Jungk R. & Müllert N. (1981). *Zukunftswerkstätten: Wege zur Wiederbelebung der Demokratie*. Hamburg: Hoffmann und Campe.

Kristiansen M. (2013). "Dynamics between Organizational Change Processes and Facilitating Dissensus in Context Inquiring Dialogues". *International Journal of Action Research*, *9*(1), 95-123. doi: 10.1688/1861-9916\ IJAR\ 2009\ 01\ Kirkeby

Kristiansen M. & 3. G. (1981). *Helt ærlig – om unge i gymnasiet*. København: Informations forlag.

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2018). *Inddragelse i forandringsprocesser? Aktionsforskning i organisationer*. [Participation in change processes. Action research in organisations.] Aalborg: Aalborg Universitetsforlag. The book can be downloaded for free here: http://aauforlag.dk/Shop/andre/antologier-and-monographier/involvement-i-changeprocesser-aktionsfor.aspx

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2017). "Organisational Action Research» In C. R. Scott, L. K. Lewis, J. Barker, J. Keyton, & P. Turner (Eds.). *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2016). "Participatory hierarchies – a challenge in organisational action research." *International Journal of Action Research, 12*(2), 144-171. doi: 10.1688/IJAR-2016-02-Kristiansen

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2014). "Power and contexts – some societal conditions for participatory projects – Clashes between economic-management and pedagogic-social Discourses." *International Journal of Action Research*, *10*(3) 339-375. doi: 10.1688/IJAR-2014-03-Kristiansen

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2013). "Participatory knowledge production and power – co-determination through dissensus in dialogic organizational action research." In L. Phillips, M. Kristiansen, M. Vehviläinen & E. Gunnarsson, E. (Eds.). *Knowledge and Power in Collaborative Research: A Reflexive Approach,* (pp. 193-212). London: Routledge.

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2008). "Working with "not knowing" amid power dynamics among managers: From faultfinding and exclusion towards co-learning and inclusion." In H. Bradbury & P. Reason (Eds.). *The Sage Handbook of Action Research: Participative inquiry and practice,* (pp. 463-472). London, Sage.

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2006). "Involvement as a Dilemma. Between Dialogue and Discussion in Team Based Organisations." *International Journal of Action Research*, *2*(2), 163-197. Retrieved from https://nbn-resolving.org/ urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-356431

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2005). Midwifery and dialogue in organizations. Emergent, mutual involvement in action research. München: Rainer Hampp Verlag.

Kristiansen M. & Bloch-Poulsen J. (2004). "Self-referentiality as a power mechanism. Towards dialogic action research." *Action Research*, *2*(4), 371-388. doi: 10.1177/1476750304047981

Lewin K. (1947). "Frontiers in group dynamics, II. Channels of group life: Social planning and action research". *Human Relations*, *1*, 143-153. doi: 10.1177/001872674700100201

Mansbridge J., with Bohman J., Chambers S., Estlund D., Føllesdal A., Fung A., Lafont C., Manin B. & Mart, J. L. (2010). "The Place of Self-Interest and the Role of Power in Deliberative Democracy." *The Journal of Political Philosophy*, *18*(1), 64-100. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9760.2009.00344.x

Marshall J. & Mead G. (2005). "Self-reflective inquiry and first person action research," *Action Research*, 3(3), 235-244. doi: 10.1177/1476750305055999

Reason P. (Ed.) (1994a). *Participation in human inquiry*. London: Sage.

Reason P. (1994b). "Co-operative inquiry, participatory action research and action inquiry: three approaches to participative inquiry." In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.). *Handbook of Qualitative Research,* (pp. 324-39). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schafft K. A. & Greenwood D. J. (2003). "Promises and Dilemmas of Participation: Action Research, Search Conference Methodology, and Community Development." *Journal of the Community Development Society*, 34(1), 18-35. doi: 10.1080/15575330309490101

Stewart J. (1999). *Bridges not walls. A book about interpersonal communication*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Thorsrud E. & Emery F. (1970). *Mot en ny bedriftsorganisasjon. Experimenter i industrielt demokrati*. Oslo: Johan Grundt Tanum Forlag.

Torbert W. R. (2001). "The Practice of Action Inquiry." In H. Bradbury & P. Reason (Eds.). *The Handbook of Action Research*. London: Sage.

Trist E., Higgin G., Murray H. & Pollock A. (1990). "The Assumption of Ordinariness as Denial Mechanism – Innovation and conflict in a Coal Mine." In E. Trist & H. Murray (Eds.) (1990). *The Social Engagement of Social Science: The socio-psychological perspective, vol. 1*, (pp. 476-493). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

About the authors

Jørgen Bloch-Poulsen, Ph.D., has worked at different Danish universities since the beginning of the 1970s, as an organisational development consultant since the mid-1980s, and as an organisational action researcher since the mid-1990s; he has focused on improving co-determination through dialogue in public and private organisations, e.g., at Bang & Olufsen, Lego, Ecco and Danfoss.

Marianne Kristiansen, Ph.D., has worked as an associate professor at Aalborg University within interpersonal and organisational organisation, and as an action researcher focusing on participation, power, and dialogue since the mid-1990s in public and private organisations. She has worked as a psychotherapist, supervisor, and consultant trying to combine academic and practical work.

Authors' address
Marianne Kristiansen, ph.d. & Jørgen Bloch-Poulsen, ph.d.
Frederik VI's Allé 2, 3. th.
DK-2000 Frederiksberg

Marianne: +45 20275655; mariannek@dialog-mj.dk
Jørgen: +45 40177352; joergenbp@dialog-mj.dk

www.dialog-mj.dk

A participatory approach to peacebuilding evaluation in Seke district, Zimbabwe

Norman Chivasa

Abstract
Mainstream monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of peacebuilding tends to be mainly practitioner-oriented, while under-reporting initiatives by ordinary people who develop an interest to learn from their own practice. This study aims to fill this gap, by reporting the evaluation of a self-initiated peace committee by ordinary people in the Seke district, Zimbabwe. The study revealed that local communities currently possess the propensity to work as a collective with shared experiences and perceptions, and the linkages between these attributes and participatory peacebuilding initiatives are natural. Furthermore, it emerged that action research can be a useful methodology, with the potential to create space for ordinary people to participate in the design, implementation, M & E of peace initiatives in their villages. Although this study examined the role of self-initiative monitoring and evaluation destined to become an alternative to technocratic M & E, it acknowledges the value of top-down M & E of peacebuilding and does not seek to replace them, rather, to bring bottom-up M & E practices into the mainstream M &E of peacebuilding using local initiatives as a vehicle to create a greater impact on peacebuilding interventions.

Key words: action research, evaluation, participatory peacebuilding, Zimbabwe

Un enfoque participativo para la evaluación de la construcción de la paz en el distrito de Seke, Zimbabue

Resumen
El monitoreo y la evaluación *mainstream* (M&E) de la construcción de la paz tienden a estar principalmente orientados a los profesionales, mientras que no se reportan las iniciativas de las personas comunes que presentan un interés por aprender de sus propias prácticas. Este estudio tiene como objetivo llenar este vacío al informar la evaluación de un comité de paz auto-iniciado por personas comunes en el distrito de Seke, Zimbabue. El estudio reveló que las comunidades locales poseen actualmente la propensión a trabajar como un colectivo con experiencias y percepciones compartidas, y los vínculos entre estos atributos y las iniciativas participativas de construcción de la paz son naturales. Además, surgió que la investigación- acción puede ser una metodología útil con el potencial de crear un espacio para que la gente común participe en el diseño, implementación, monitoreo y evaluación de iniciativas de paz en sus aldeas. Aunque este estudio examinó el papel del monitoreo y la evaluación por iniciativa propia destinados a convertirse en una alternativa al

monitoreo y evaluación tecnocráticos, reconoce el valor de M&E de arriba hacia abajo para la construcción de la paz y no busca reemplazarlos, más bien, busca llevar las prácticas de M&E de abajo hacia arriba dentro del M&E *mainstream* de la construcción de la paz utilizando iniciativas locales como vehículo para crear un mayor impacto sobre intervenciones de construcción de la paz.

Palabras clave: investigación-acción, evaluación, construcción de la paz participativa, Zinbabue.

Introduction

Research that emphasises the participatory nature of action research (AR) is increasingly gathering momentum within mainstream peacebuilding discourses. This follows a surge of interest to employ AR as a strategy to address peace and development challenges in post-conflict societies in the 1990s by international donor communities, peace researchers and practitioners. A case in point was the War-torn Societies project (WSP) which tested the potential of AR in rebuilding the socio-economic, political and cultural challenges in four different countries namely; Eritrea, Mozambique, Guatemala and Northeast Somalia between 1994 and 1998. In these conflict-ravaged societies, the participatory nature of AR was employed to ensure local ownership between different actors involved in rebuilding socio-economic and political institutions (Fagen 1995; Farah et al. 1998; Johannsen 2001; Stiefel 2001). As Johannsen (2001, p. 2) asserts, AR was implemented "in order to render academic research more applicable to the needs of those being studied, and encourage them to actively participate in the research design, methodology and projected outcome." As a scientific method, AR has the potential to assist research participants to better understand problems affecting them and generate solutions to those problems. By implication, scientific methods are seen as a reliable guide towards informed and effective action (Lisa 1984). Consequently, academics and practitioners consider AR as a strategy that brings together different actors involved in addressing peace and development challenges (Johannsen 2001). It is also considered a useful strategy to address immediate and practical problems with a view to contribute to theory and knowledge and to improve practice (Lisa 1984).

The study is framed within discourses on monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of peacebuilding initiatives and participatory M&E practices (impact assessment) (Koltzow 2013). M&E of peacebuilding initiatives continues to suffer from a myriad of challenges resulting from contentions over evidence on the impact of peace interventions. To be specific, the greatest challenge is that peace is a non-linear process, and it defies replicable and verifiable measurements because of its fluidity (Church 2008; Koltzow 2013; Menkhaus 2004). However, while M & E discourses are focusing on elitist/technocratic (standardised) evaluation models of measuring peace (Paffenholz 2011; (OECD) Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2012; Andersen & Kennedy-Chouane 2014), the current study focused on bottom-up evaluation by ordinary people who developed an interest in evaluating their own peace initiatives. In M & E of peacebuilding, what has not received academic attention is the involvement of ordinary people who developed an interest to use scientific methods to evaluate their own initiatives. The aim of this study was to address the identified gap, by reporting on evaluation activities conducted by ordinary people through the AR framework to determine the outcome of a peace committee in ward 8 of Seke district, Zimbabwe.

In addition to the above, the article referred to 2014 collaboration and partnerships between 14 ordinary people and a researcher in ward 8 of Seke district, that led to the creation of a ward peace committee (WPC) by using the four step participatory process of AR namely, problem identification, planning, taking action and evaluation (Coghlan & Brannick 2014). The article reports the subsequent self-evaluation process by WPC with a goal to contribute to M&E on peacebuilding discourses, which do not make provision for evaluation of initiatives by ordinary people who developed an interest to learn from their own practice through the use of scientific methods. The self-evaluation activities by members of the WPC illuminated the writing of this article.

Background and study locale

Seke is one of nine districts in Mashonaland East province, Zimbabwe. It comprises 21 wards consisting of 8 communal and 13 commercial areas. Crop production is the primary means of livelihood in Seke district. As at 2015, the average poverty prevalence in all 21 wards stood at 56% (United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF 2015).

Ward 8 is a communal area, which largely relies on subsistence crops and livestock farming. Crops include maize, groundnuts, sweet potatoes, small grains (such as millet), cow peas and beans, while livestock includes traditional chickens, goats and cattle. Proximity to Harare and Chitungwiza agricultural markets has propelled market gardening involving crops such as tomatoes, onions and other vegetables grown as cash crops providing livelihoods for households. To supplement their livelihoods, some sections of rural people in ward 8 have adopted village savings and loan associations (VSLA) scheme (Chivasa 2015).

A previous study by Chivasa (2015) outlined some of the conflict issues bedeviling residents in ward 8 as the impetus behind the creation of the WPC. The conflict issues singled out in Chivasa's report include among others, hunger and food insecurity at households level, unavailability of finances to pay school fees, rape cases involving girl children, domestic violence, stock theft, robber, fist fighting at beer parties and disputes over land boundaries. Accordingly, peacebuilding is understood in ward 8 of Seke district as a process involving the building of relationships, trust between individuals and groups, prevention of small scale violence (such as fist fighting, intimate partner violence), prevention of conflict and its resolution and coming up with modalities to improve livelihoods of individuals and groups at household level (Chivasa 2015). It is against this background that a peace committee was envisaged as a peacebuilding mechanism, that provided the inhabitants with a platform to take responsibility for their own peace and development aspirations.

Literature Review

In peacebuilding discourses, a new surge of participatory and community-driven peacebuilding endeavors known as participatory peacebuilding has emerged (Nascimento, Keeler & Jacobs 2004). The emergence of participatory peacebuilding initiatives is linked to local ownership discourses in development theory, which emerged against the background of domination by

developed countries over the developing world (Shinoda 2008). Local ownership discourses took prominence in the early 1990s among development aid agencies (Saxby 2003). In development theory and practice, local ownership has always been understood as involving four different dynamics. Firstly, ordinary people taking responsibility for their own development aspirations. Second, recipient ordinary people owning and implementing development initiatives. Third, ordinary people participating in decision making processes and fourth, ordinary people having the right to self-determination (Lavergne 2003; Saxby 2003). Viewed from a peacebuilding perspective, the non-participation of ordinary people was perceived to be one of the recipes for failed peacebuilding.

In the above context, during 2001, the concept of local ownership was integrated into peacebuilding theory by the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) of February 2001 (para. 10-12). The UNSC perceived local ownership to be one of the preconditions for sustainable peace (cited in Bojicic-Dzelilovic & Martin 2016; Demir 2017). This integration of local ownership culminated in local ownership in peacebuilding. Since then, the concept of local ownership in peacebuilding has been subjected to scholarly evaluation and assessments.

Richmond (2009) understood local ownership in peacebuilding as 'everyday forms of peace' arguing that peace is not found in institutions but in everyday interactions, informal relationships of individuals and groups. This is so because peace is a local construct that represents the needs, preferences and aspirations of people within a local context (Richmond 2014). MacGinty (2013) contends that local forms of peace represent the on-ground conditions and practices by which people sustain and promote peace. Peace is part of everyday life of people, and for that reason it is constructed in the vernacular (Funk & Said 2010).

Ojendaal, Leornadso & Lundquist (2017) view local ownership in peacebuilding as the local turn. In the local turn discourses on peacebuilding, emphasis has been placed on creating space for local people to participate and arrive at independent decisions to meet their peace aspirations. The local turn clarifies the post-liberal peacebuilding, which emphasises participation of ordinary people in peacebuilding processes. Consequently, discourses on bottom-up peacebuilding and post-liberal peacebuilding argue in favour of the prominent role of participatory peacebuilding.

Participatory peacebuilding is helpfully explained by Nascimento, Keeler & Jacobs (2004, p. 6):

First of all, local population is involved. Consequently, the peacebuilding process will become their process, in which they are closely involved. They will determine to a great extent how the process will look. It is not someone else's plan imposed on them. Participation also means that it [peacebuilding process] is drawn from local conflict handling potential [home grown]. This approach generally enjoys a high level of legitimacy and credibility. No methods, concepts or models for resolving conflict or building peace are imposed from outside. Rather they are based on the local understanding of conflict and resolving and fit their ways of being and doing. All this will create a feeling among people in the conflict setting that they own the peacebuilding process.

As the above excerpt suggests, participatory peacebuilding involves local agency, which embraces both peacebuilding from below and within. Participatory peacebuilding is the focus of this study.

Methodological note

This study reports evaluation activities conducted by ordinary people through the AR framework. AR is a family of participatory methodologies that integrate theory and action, with a goal to facilitate collaboration between researchers and local people to address social problems bedeviling them (Coghlan & Brannick 2014; Bradbury 2015). It involves a professional researcher forming a partnership/collaboration with local people, and together takes the responsibility to co-define the problem, co-design the initiative, and co-implement and co-generate the solution to the problem (Greenwood, Whyte & Harkavy 1993; Stiefel 2001; Bradbury 2015).

Originally, AR was limited to the field of education, in particular relevant to school settings with the goal to improve teaching and learning skills for both teachers and pupils (Lesha 2014). AR has been applied in different disciplines such as agriculture, health, social work, and various sectors of rural development. In the recent past, AR has also been implemented in peace interventions (Elder 2016). The thrust of AR is the implementation of plans/projects, and to carefully study the impact of interventions, assessing existing practices and determine what positive changes may need to be made. Consequently, findings from an AR research event are used to modify existing practices/operations, and for improving planning for new initiatives.

This study reports the implementation of AR by individuals who designed, implemented and evaluated their peace intervention initiative, in order to improve the quality of life of their communities and families in Seke district.

Action research in ward 8 of Seke district

AR is not a linear process as is the case with traditional research, rather it is cyclical. These cycles are by nature knowledge producing, and thus bring about a new practice. In ward 8 of Seke district, these cycles involved five subsequent stages namely; problem identification; action planning; taking action; evaluation and re-planning (Coghlan & Brannick 2014).

The first and second stages involved problem identification and action planning. To test the peace committee intervention, I made use of prior contacts with other stakeholders and the minister of religion who played the role of the interim chairperson, while I facilitated the process. The conflict issues outlined above were the impetus behind the plan and action to form the WPC. Some of these conflict issues emerged during the planning stages, while others were identified after the WPC was already established. As a result, the first stage leading to the formation of the peace structure involved identification of the criteria and composition for the would-be peace committee members. For that reason, we resolved that the peace committee was to have 15 members inclusive of both male and female adults. The idea of settling for 15 members was borrowed from the focus group model in which six people are considered a small group while 15 are considered a larger group. After two months of planning, a call for the information day was made, and would-be peace committee members attended the meeting.

This third stage involved putting resolutions from planning meetings, discussions and reflections into action. For example, on the day of the information meeting, the interim chairperson consulted with would-be peace committee members that turned up, and we agreed to form the WPC, using the self-selection process in which individuals volunteered to occupy certain positions while at the same time the entire group approved their appointments. I was appointed secretary of the peace committee. The minister of religion was endorsed to take up the position of chairperson by all group members. Following the formation of the WPC, a meeting was convened in which the chairperson deliberated on how we were going to form a partnership in the context of my research to which all group members agreed. From that point on, they became my advisory team, which came to be known as: participatory action group (PAG). To conform to the basic tenets of AR, the PAG played a leading role in planning meetings and discussions in search of solutions to peace and development challenges, while I took a facilitation role. The PAG comprised of seven males and eight females.

Subsequently, formal and informal meetings and discussions were convened, presided over by the chairperson. Given that I was the as secretary of the group I was studying, a trustful relationship was established and sustained during the period under review. A trustful relationship was facilitated, because the position of the secretary gave me the opportunity to discuss both formally and informally with fellow WPC members, regarding what worked and what did not work during meetings and in other fora. As a matter of fact, this relationship has outlived the nine months period we worked together in the peace committee.

In the fourth and last stages, evaluation and re-planning were done collaboratively. Over a period of nine months after its formation, the WPC (comprising of security, religion, traditional leadership, politics, business, subsistence farming, and health sectors) engaged in a self-evaluation process. Of the 15 WPC members only 11 participated in the evaluation. Ages ranged between early 40s and early 70s with four female and seven male adults. Prior to evaluation, we designed the evaluation guide with input from all participants. In the evaluation we examined '*methods used for setting up the WPC'*, '*challenges experienced', knowledge gained'* and *lessons learnt'*.

The evaluation process was facilitated by the chairperson of the peace committee, while all participants were seated in a circular format. The chairperson read each question, and everyone participated in analysing the accompanying responses, and as secretary of the committee, I was involved in recording the proceedings manually and complemented by a voice recorder to capture all that transpired. In the process, all members shared their experiences, and listened to one another in an atmosphere of openness and mutual understanding.

Group discussion was the primary data collection instrument, which captured shared experiences and perceptions of procedures employed in forming the peace committee, challenges faced and lessons learnt. To gain perspectives from different participants, where appropriate the direct words of participants were used for the purposes of this article. Also, to protect confidentiality of participants, I identified them according to their sectors in the report.

Key findings and discussion

All participants were in agreement that a peace committee involves a group of people that come together with a common goal, which is to promote social harmony, peaceful co-existence and the improvement of livelihoods.

Methods employed for setting up the ward peace committee

All participants acknowledged that the created peace committee was a pilot project. They acknowledged that the process leading to its creation was participatory in that members were consulted, and they participated in approving individuals who were appointed to positions on the day of its creation. In literature there are no specific procedures for creating informal peace committees, as communities have to use what works for them (Odendaal 2010; van Tongeren 2012).

Challenges faced in forming the ward peace committee

One of the challenges was that of the 29 villages in ward 8, only nine villages[1] were represented in the WPC. All participants acknowledged that realistically the WPC could not have accommodated all the 29 villages to form a 15-member peace committee. To ensure participation of all villages in the ward about peace issues and not just equal representation, a resolution was made to sensitise all the 29 villagers in future to consider creating village peace committees (VPCs), as a move towards increasing the participation of all villages in peace issues at village level.

Another challenge was the non-regular attendance at meetings by certain members of the committee. This was because, after the creation of the peace committee, members agreed to meet on a monthly basis to discuss matters pertaining to the sustenance of peace in the ward. The biggest challenge was that attendance was sometimes below half, and sometimes it was half the full membership. For example, of the 15 would-be peace committee members invited on the first day of creation of the peace committee, only 10 participants attended.

During the second month, only six members attended the meeting. Subsequently, in the third month, it was reported that only nine members attended the meeting. In addition, during the fourth month seven members attended. During the fifth month, only 11 members turned up. Similarly, in the sixth month, on six individuals were present at the meeting. During the seventh month, only seven members turned up. During the eight month seven members attended the meeting.

Against the above fluctuation in membership attendance, participants resolved that those who were determined to attend monthly meeting, should not be deterred by defaulting members, as this was a common characteristic occasionally found among human beings to take a wait-and-see attitude whenever the initiative is in its infant stages.

1 Villages represented in the peace committee were Murisa, Chikambi, Chitehwe, Vera, Kuwora, Masona, Madhovi, Matambo and Marimbi villages.

In addition, another challenge raised was the non-representation of youth in the WPC. However, participants acknowledged that the non-representation of youth in the peace committee was not deliberate, but a coincidence in that only elderly men and women were the ones who availed themselves for the information meeting. For that reason, participants resolved that, to ensure youth representation, they were going to encourage the creation of other WPCs in which case they were going to advocate for one or two youths (male or female) in each committee to represent the interests of youths in peacebuilding.

Of all the identified challenges, non-regular attendance by some members appeared to pose a threat to the sustainability of the peacebuilding work. To discourage non-attendance, the WPC applauded those who were determined not to be deterred by defaulters. This encouragement demonstrated collective efficacy among members of the peace committee, which could facilitate the sustainability of peacebuilding work, particularly if the committee continues to be united by a common purpose and an interest to promote peace in their villages.

Knowledge gained

All participants were in agreement that there were two key elements that increased their knowledge about peacebuilding. The first was that most participants used to associate peacebuilding with conflict resolution, with no connection to improved livelihoods. They noted that through their membership and interaction in the WPC activities, they had been able to combine conflict resolution with income-generating activities, which some members of the peace committee previously thought had no mutual connection. As one participant remarked, "now I understand peacebuilding as a joint-process whose core objective is to build relationships and improve livelihoods by addressing peace challenges" (Subsistence farmer, female, mid 40s).

The second element of knowledge gained was that an individual or a group can start a project with what they already have in their homes, instead of looking for a donor or borrowing money to fund a project. One participant was quoted as saying:

It was out of this knowledge that I became interested in resuscitating my project, which I had long forgotten, because I held to the view that a project becomes a project only when I have received money from a donor (Traditional healer, Female, early 70s).

This participant seemed to hold the view that low-cost income-generating projects such as market gardening or traditional chicken rearing are building blocks for peace at village level. Thus, all participants acknowledged that they were now better informed about peacebuilding work.

Lessons learnt

Specific lessons learnt were, first, creating a WPC was a worthwhile activity for the ward, because participating members demonstrated their capacity to take responsibility for their

own peace as a collective. Second, we also leant that creating a peace committee involving both men and women (but with more women than men) was consistent with contemporary efforts to empower women to become involved in peace issues. Finally, it was learnt that the WPC took a long time to address fluctuations in non-membership attendance, which were seen to threaten and derail the work of the peace committee.

Reflections on the creation of the ward peace committee

I am an ardent Christian, who was involved actively in a ministry for the past 12 years until 2011. My journey to PhD studies started in the year 2012. Subsequently, in 2014, I began plans to collaborate with local people in creating a ward-level peace committee. In my role as a AR adherent, I was caught between two conflicting processes for creating the peace committees: appointment and the voting systems. As the planning stage to create the peace committee was to begin, I took the role of an under-secretary while the minister of religion that I first collaborated with was leading the process.

From that time on, I became aware of issues I had not thought of before as a researcher. Most importantly, I noticed the unavailability of processes for creating peace committees, which was confirmed in literature through Odendaal (2010) and van Tongeren (2012). Regarding the processes for creating peace committees, I strongly believed that the voting system was appropriate, because individuals who were involved in setting up a committee would nominate their preferred candidates, and the ones who garners more votes take up the positions in a committee.

My initial encounter was with the minister of religion that I was collaborating with in creating a ward-level peace committee in ward 8. We resolved that the peace committee was to have 15 members inclusive of both male and female adults. After two months of planning, he made a call for the information day and only 10 would-be peace committee members were present.

On the day of the information meeting, I found myself thinking how the process of creating the peace committee was going to be conducted, because the minister of religion had indicated during the planning sessions that he was going to appoint individuals to positions. We had agreed that he was going to take the chairperson's position. I did not have a problem with him taking the chairperson's position, as self-appointment to the position was in accordance with the self-selection process in which individuals can volunteer to take certain positions in the committee (Sangqu 2014). I strongly supported him to take up this position given the time and efforts he had invested in planning, designing, reflection and implementation of the plan of action.

Our bone of contention was in the processes for creating the peace committee. As I interrogated him further during our planning stages, on why he was insisting on appointing members to certain positions, I discovered that he had experience in running a co-operative society. He was the founding member of a co-operative society and was running it for almost a decade and half. As an executive director of the co-operative society, the society gave him executive powers to appoint and expel some members. For that reason, he was prepared to use the same approach to appoint would-be peace committee members. I

strongly believed that a peace committee was different from a co-operative society, because the former is a business model, whose primary values are self-help, equality and democracy. Although these values are not too remote from peace, I considered them not a primary focus of the peace committees (whose values include among others, mediating conflict, inclusivity, negotiation, problem-solving, promoting co-existence, building social networks, relationships and mutual understanding to mention but a few). On this basis, I tried to persuade him to employ the voting system, to ensure people were free to select individuals that they knew possessed specific skills such as negotiation, mediation and peace consciousness.

I was more familiar with the voting system, because I had used it when creating structures in church for the past 12 years. I was also aware that church committees were different from a peace committee, the same way I understood that a co-operative committee was different from a peace committee. On the day of the information sharing meeting, though I thought of myself as well-versed in the voting system, and as a researcher who had read widely about peace committees, I felt in-adequate when the interim chairperson made appointments. Prior to appointments, as I was discussing with him, I found myself thinking of how little it was for him to see the limitations of appointing people to positions, rather than to allow them to vote for their preferred individuals. My concern was on how participation was going to be stifled, if he went ahead with the appointment process.

From that point on, I became aware of the influences of people's background on their daily interactions. Comparing my experience to that of the chairperson, I realised that my understanding of the voting system was not commonly perceived as a means to participation as I used to understand it for the past 12 years through church activities. As more differences in our approach to processes for creating peace committees became apparent, I must be honest that I lost a bit of hope, especially when the interim chairperson stressed that he had the right to appoint certain individuals that he was hoping to work with as members in the peace committee. At some stage, he even stressed the point that appointing people to positions gives him the right to expel those who misbehave. I strongly remember voicing out my concern that committee members should be accountable to the entire committee, not to the chairperson. Even after voicing out my opinion, I was even more surprised that the interim chairperson seemed not to take my idea seriously, that committee members should be accountable to the entire committee not to the chairperson.

Interestingly though, proceedings that took place during the creation of the peace committee narrowed down my concerns, because the would-be members of the peace committee were free to chip in to approve and disapprove some appointed members. In fact, the chairperson consulted with all of us while making appointments. Because of the flexibility and open-endedness of the process, I was appointed deputy chairperson of the peace committee at first, but I declined that offer, and opted for the secretary's position, and all the members who were present approved my self-appointment. I opted for the secretary's position, because I was hoping to continue documenting events and processes I had begun prior to the creation of the peace committee. The position of the secretary was helpful for me, because I had access to data, and I could easily do member checking during meetings to validate data.

However, although I (as secretary) held a position of power on the committee (in charge of taking minutes), local dynamics on the ground and the participatory engagement

of the entire process at the end led to a process where committee members did not just participate, but influenced the whole process. As the section: *implications of my position as secretary of the committee* in this report will illustrate in detail, my research participants influenced the research process, including the writing process of the manuscript in the context of my post-graduate studies. That being the case, a point has to be made that participation often results from very different, not always open nor always fully compatible individual interests. Thus, the experience of collaborating with local people as an insider was a learning curve for me. From this hands-on, one of the lessons learnt was that when one is dealing with local community members, there is need to learn how a community works. The reality in the context of ward 8 of Seke district is that life in the community is more habitual than cosmetic and therefore adjustment, patience, focus, commitment and courage should be embraced to achieve any desirable goal.

My experiences in the activities of the ward peace committee

During our monthly meetings and the self-evaluation, my belief towards the committee as the centre of power (having a final decision-making power) not the chairperson, remained unresolved, and this constantly came into mind. As we repeatedly held meetings for nine consecutive months, personally revisiting the minutes of our monthly meetings, and observing dynamics that were taking place during meetings, my attention got shifted from perceiving the chairperson as an individual who was working against participation and consensus, to a co-operative individual. Putting myself in his shoes, I realised that it was not his experiences alone that seemed to obstruct him from accepting my perspective as quickly as I expected, but that changing beliefs and perspectives was not an overnight thing as I was hoping.

At the last stage, I became aware of my own biases (feelings or experiences interfering in the research process) and how I brought them into my research. I realised that I was also not willing to accommodate, and even to seek clarity on the chairpersons' perspective on what he meant by appointment. My thinking again began to shift when I read literature on how peace committees are created at community level. I got to understand that these structures are created based on culture specific norms and processes (Sangqu 2014). In other words, communities are left to use what works for them, as there are no standardised rules and processes. This is partly so because communities have varied social norms and values (Odendaal 2010). This discovery knocked some sense into my head as I began to realise how biased I was to operate on a one-track mind set on processes for creating peace committees. Indeed, after reflecting on my being biased, I tried to put myself in the chairperson's shoes and realised that he was basing his arguments on culture, to appoint people for positions as the chairperson. In Shona culture, a chairperson assumes the role of a father or mother thus, this position gives him/her an elevated position in the committee. A classic example is a village head that chairs both the village assembly and village development committee, and automatically assumes the role of a father/mother of all members of the village. Within that assumed role he /she is expected to possess culture specific attributes such as being above reproach, faithful, impartial, the ability to address disputes,

fairness, and respectful of subordinates, well-advised but also firm and decisive. During my discussion with the interim chairperson, I missed out on these aspects, especially on decisiveness, and mistakenly took it to signify dominance of other members in the committee.

Later on I realised that participation is a social construct. In other words, societies create it, implying that participation does not just happen naturally. In Shona society, participation is played out in institutions such as the chief council or village assemblies. Mudenge (1998) in agreement with Gombe (2006) pointed out that Shona society is governed by a council of elders popularly known as *Machinda Amambo* (chief's councilors), while villages are governed by village assemblies. They note that the responsibilities of these institutions involved, among other things: facilitation of disputes, and sustenance of law and order in society. The availability of a council of chiefs and village assemblies signify a participatory approach on matters of common interest in Shona society and villages. At village level, although the village head is hereditary, he/she is expected to embrace the participatory approach where people have opportunities to participate and discuss matters together, and come up with common agreement ,whenever there is an issue that calls for collective efforts or not. From this point on, I began to understand that the WPC operating in Shona communities is another formation which replicates the chief's council or village assembly in one way or the other. Thus, I began to accept that the chairperson's role to take a decisive action to appoint people to positions was not an isolated approach, because in Shona culture the process of appointment involves the participation of members of the community, who approve and disapprove certain individuals to positions. This participatory dynamic was played out on the information day by the would-be members of the peace committee.

Overall, what influenced my views and beliefs more to shift when we worked as a team was that, although some members seemed to have dominated the group by voicing their opinions more than others, eventually the chairperson was able to contain the discussion by summarising and clarifying the agreed resolution. Among all these dynamics, as the secretary I occasionally conducted member checking, and all the members were very co-operative.

The implications of my position as secretary and researcher

My entry into the social space was to set up a WPC in Ward 8, which occurred within the context of prior contacts with some of the peace committee members that I collaborated with. In the context of a research study, prior contacts can pose some potential risks to the shared social space. The risks border around over-familiarisations or manipulation of the process by the researcher, which can potentially distort the results (Burns et al. 2012). Being cautious of these possibilities, I had to be honest with my co-researchers as to why I preferred to work with people I already knew, rather than with those I had no prior contacts with. One of the major reasons was that I wanted to understand how community structures function from an insider's point of view. The merits of gaining access to individuals I had prior contacts and interactions with outweighed the interactions with indi-

viduals with whom I had no prior contacts. Thus, this report was written from an insider's point of view.

Regarding the creation of the WPC, participants in ward 8 had no intention of taking on board the AR framework, because the creation of the peace committee had no academic component from the outset. I was not the only one who came up with the idea of creating a WPC, the idea came from a group of participants which included myself, after having undergone a three-day conflict resolution sensitisation workshop, which was administered by one civic organisation called Ecumenical Church Leader's Forum. After the workshop members were urged to decide what to do next to ensure their community sustains peace. The 30 participants, including myself, resolved that creating a peace committee[2] was a worthwhile investment. The objective of my study was to test whether and under what conditions informal peace committees can be effective peacebuilding mechanisms (Chivasa 2017). AR was my proposed methodology.

There was no standing committee to spearhead the creation of the peace committee. Two months after we had made a resolution to create a peace committee, I approached the minister of religion who was co-ordinating the workshop, and later became the interim chairperson of the WPC. I explained the purpose of my research to him, and asked for possible collaboration and he agreed. During the planning sessions I appointed myself to the position of an under-secretary for planning purposes. Two factors contributed to the adoption of the AR methodology prior to the creation of the peace committee by the chairperson and myself.

Firstly, it was my brain child, in line with my proposed research methodology and my involvement in the planning process, that led to the adoption of AR in setting up the peace committee. Prior to the creation of the peace committee, I took time to coach the chairperson, and to highlight to him the advantages of using the AR method that it was going to benefit would-be participating committee members, given its propensity to create spaces for collaborative planning, reflection, decision making and problem-solving. Furthermore, I highlighted that AR was going to help us assess the proposed procedures for creating the WPC; it was to provide us with insights to understand how community structures function, and help us improve future planning for other peace committees. Since the interim chairperson was conversant with both reading and writing English language, I did not experience any hassle after explaining and illustrated to him by way of pictures, using some pictures of the AR to get him on-board. I borrowed the idea of sharing the AR pictures to co-researchers from van Niekerk & van Niekerk (2009) who also shared pictures with co-researcher that they worked with using AR methodology in their study.

Secondly, the adoption of AR, resulted in the use of structured interview guide in the evaluation process. Owing to the participatory nature of the process, my co-researchers were actively involved in coming up with thematic areas in designing the evaluation guide. Because the process took place ordinarily within the context of our normal day to day activities, my co-researchers did not consider me as an outsider, and I was at liberty to voice out my opinions, but also exercised caution not to dominate the show, and end up reporting events that I would have created myself, and such a practice was going to pollute

2 The creation of a peace committee coincided with my study in Seke district which had already secured ethical approval from the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa.

my research results. Thus, this evaluation took place within the scope of the normal life of people in their community in what Denskus (2012, p. 153) termed "part and parcel of the way things are done". This was so because the evaluation process was self-initiated by members of the WPC, without the involvement of any external agent from start to finish. I intended to evaluate this peace committee three months after its creation, but I had to make adjustments to fit into the schedule of the entire committee, which did not have a fixed date for evaluation until after nine months from the date of creation of the WPC. Simply put, the involvement of the WPC in the design, creation and evaluation of the peace intervention influenced the writing of this report, in that the date of evaluation was a result of their resolution as a committee, and the four questions that they proposed were the basis upon which this report was built. The report therefore is based on the deliberations of members of the peace committee.

Limitations of the study

The major limitations of this study were that the evaluation process was conducted by members of the peace committees, to enable them to learn from their own activities as insiders. While the use of small samples is compatible with a qualitative research approach, the results represent the views of 15 members of the WPC, and not those of the community of Seke district as a whole and ordinary people from the nine villages represented in the peace committee.

Concluding remarks

This study has reported the self-evaluation process by ward peace committee (WPC) and its outcomes. It is essential to highlight that the evaluation accounted for four action plans. The first action plan addressed the non-representation of villages in the ward and youth groups. It was resolved that once mutual acceptance is secured, every village in Ward 8 shall have a village peace committee (VPC) comprising the chairperson, secretary, treasurer and four (4) committee members. It was stressed that two positions shall be filled by youths.

In accordance with the culture of local people in Seke district, it was resolved that the village head shall automatically be the chairperson of the VPC, without having to be elected to the position, since s/he chairs all committees at village level. In terms of the procedure of creating peace committees, it was recommended that the WPC shall send two (2) delegates to a village earmarked for setting up a VPC, to secure mutual acceptance from the village heads concerned. Once mutual acceptance is secured, the village head will be expected to convene a village meeting at which event the WPC delegates will be expected to explain the concept of VPC and operation of the committee in the villages. It was stressed that the two delegates will be expected to assist in the voting process for the VPC, to publicly announce the names of those elected, and to parade them in front of the villagers for all to see.

The second action plan addressed non-attendance of members on meetings. It was resolved that if a member decides to step down from the WPC/ VPC, he/she shall write a let-

ter stating reasons for doing so. The WPC/VPC should deliberate over the letter and respond accordingly within one month of the date of the resignation letter. The member concerned shall not be allowed to participate in the work of the WPC/ VPC.

The third action involved the composition of peace committees in other wards. It was resolved that the peace committee should comprise all stakeholders in the ward such as neighbourhood police officers, religion, civil service, village heads and civic organisations working in the village/ward. This recommendation was proposed following a realisation that the current Ward 8 pilot peace committee has not been able to encompass all the stakeholders in the ward. Thus, it was suggested that the involvement of various sectors in the peace committee should be viewed as a strength, in that when these stakeholders meet they can identify relevant stakeholders, after which they can collaborate and co-ordinate their activities for the good of the community. It was recommended that, although a WPC should include all the various stakeholders, the committee should have a steering committee of seven people.

Finally, to address the problem of absenteeism. It was resolved that any member who absents him/herself without just cause will pay a US$.50 cents penalty. However, it was noted that only illness or death in the family or similar other serious issues shall be considered just cause for absenteeism.

As evidence suggests, one of the primary aims of using AR in the evaluation process was to facilitate close interaction between all stakeholders. Simultaneously, this article has shown how perceptions of individuals and groups can cloud one's judgement, resulting in conflict as was the case between the chairperson of the peace committee and I. Owing to this interaction it can be stated that gaining entrance into a community requires mutual acceptance, unless one makes use of existing networks.

This study has shown that individuals in communities, no matter how they appear illiterate or unscientific, cannot be pushed around simply because they have norms and values that guide their action and practice. Through this study I was able to make sense of my experience, feelings and attitudes, and discovered how these can possibly interfere in the research process, as well as in daily interactions with fellow humans. The most significant issue which I feel needs attention in this study, is the potential of AR to create space for ordinary people to have opportunities to participate in the design and implementation of peace initiatives, having the right to make choices and to shape peace initiatives in the direction that is suitable for them. The increasing shift in peacebuilding, from top-down approaches to participatory and community-driven peacebuilding initiatives indicates a new surge of interest in participatory peacebuilding.

Overall, results of the evaluation indicate the power of AR to facilitate peacebuilding M&E from the bottom-up, in which case people experiencing problems become innovative by creating partnerships to share experiences, knowledge and work together to learn from their experiences. However, bottom-up M&E is not meant to replace standard M& E processes, but to bring the former into mainstream M&E. Given that participation lies at the heart of AR, this study argues that multi-stakeholder participation can serve as the prime means to bring standard M&E and bottom-up M&E to come together to help promote collective problem-solving, self-monitoring, reflection and integration of multi-stakeholder interventions. This is so because AR allows groups working as a collective to learn from

their experiences, and participate equally in coming up with solutions to problems affecting their wellbeing. As such, the implications of AR for standard M&E is that as a multi-stakeholder intervention, AR can facilitate collective participation, as individuals and groups become adoptive and innovative, by forming partnerships and joint ventures to address peace and development challenges. Thus, without the involvement and participation of all relevant stakeholders in peace issues the question that arises is whether we are building peace at all?

Over and above the evaluation process reported in this study, the results of the peace committee initiative for the community itself showed that ordinary people in Seke district demonstrated local agency through the creation of peace committees in their villages. This local agency resulted in ordinary people working as a collective in designing and establishing a WPC. The formation of the three subsequent VPCs in their own villages, following the evaluation process, marked a slight shift from donor/elite driven peace initiatives which often come with already laid down objectives and templates. This form of local agency sets a pace worth emulating, considering that no peace committees were running in ward 8 of Seke district prior to 2014, except a few other peace committees in some areas across Zimbabwe.

The establishment of peace committees could be the beginning of home grown solutions to the country-wide peace and development challenges, out of which other communities can replicate making such interventions very significant. By and large, local agency by ordinary people in Seke district offers hope to the current national peace policy in Zimbabwe: the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission (NPRC) that it is possible for local people to deal with local peace challenges provided the affected community is willing to take responsibility for its own peace and development.

Acknowledgements

The support of the DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Human Development at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg in the Republic of South Africa towards this research is hereby *acknowledged*. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at are those of the author and are not to be attributed to the CoE in Human Development

Bibliography

Andersen O. L., & Kennedy-Chouane M. (2014). 'Introduction', in O. W. Andersen, B. Bull & M. Kennedy-Chouane (Eds.), *Evaluation methodologies for aid in conflict*, pp.1-14, Routledge, London.

Bojicic-Dzelilovic V., & Martin M. (2016). "Local ownership challenges in peacebuilding and conflict prevention." 30 November. Retrieved from: http://www.woscap.eu/document/131298403/131299900/D4.7Best+Practices+Report+Local+Ownership final PU.pdf/f06c0c31-1c48-4e34-b1f1-c1ed55fde9f9.

Bradbury H. (ed.), (2015). *Handbook of action research*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications.

Burns D., Harvey B., & Aragon A. O. (2012). "Introduction: action research for development and social change." *Institute of Development Studies Bulletin,* 43(30),1-7. doi: 10.1111/j.1759-5436.2012.00318.x

Coghlan D., & Brannick T. (2014). (4th ed.), *Doing action research in your own organization.* London: Sage Publications.

Chivasa N. (2015). 'Peacebuilding among Shona communities in transition in Zimbabwe: A participatory action research', Unpublished PhD Thesis submitted to the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa.

Church C. (2008). "Reflections on peacebuilding evaluation: from infancy to teenager." *New Routes* 13, 3-6. Retrieved from: http://dmeforpeace.org/sites/default/files/NewRoutes83_0.pdf

Demir E. (2017). "The right to internal self-determination in peacebuilding processes: A reinterpretation of the concept of local ownership from a legal perspective." *The Age of Human Rights Journal,* 8, 18-48. doi: 10.17561/tahrj.n8.2

Denskus T. (2012). "Challenging the international peacebuilding evaluation discourse with qualitative methodologies." *Evaluation and Program Planning* 3591, 148-153. doi: 10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2010.11.006

Elder C. (2016). "Participatory action research a tool for transforming conflict: A case study from south central Somalia". Trycksaksbolaget: Life & Peace Institute.

Fagen P. W. (1995). "After the conflict: A review of selected sources on rebuilding ward-torn societies. Ward-torn societies project", Occasional paper 1, United Nations Research Institute for social development and Programme for strategic and international Security Studies. Retrieved from http://www.unrisd.org/unrisd/website/document.nsf/(httpPublications)/FDC7E47081B148 7B80256B6400406B00?OpenDocument

Farah A. Y., et al. (1998). "War-torn societies project: Northeast Somalia regional reports". UNRISD. Retrieved from https://www.ircwash.org/sites/default/files/814-SO98-14772.pdf

Funk N. C., & Said A. A. (2010). "Localizing peace: An agenda for sustainable peacebuilding. *Peace and Conflict Studies,* 17(1), 101-143. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/pcs/ vol17/iss1/4/

Gombe J. M. (2006). Tsika dzavaShona. Harare: College Press

Greenwood D. J., Whyte W. F., & Harkavy I. (1993). "Participatory action research as a process and as a goal". *Human relations,* 46(2), 175-192. doi: 10.1177/001872679304600203

Johannsen A. M. (2001). 'Participatory action research in post-conflict situations: The Example of the Ward-torn Societies project.' Berlin; Berghof Centre. Retrieved from https://www.berghof-foundation.org/fileadmin/redaktion/Publications/Handbook/Articles/ johannsen_hb.pdf

Koltzow S. (2013). "Monitoring and evaluation of peacebuilding: The role of new media." Geneva Peacebuilding Platform. Retrieved from https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/06032014_Peacebuilding-and-ME-Geneva%20Peacebuilding%20Platform.pdf

Lavergne R. (2003). "Local ownership and changing relationship in development co-operation." A paper presented at the CCIC-CIDA Dialogue, March 20.

Lesha J. (2014). "Action research in education". *European Scientific Journal*. 10(13), 379-386. doi: 10.19044/esj.2014.v10n13p%25p

MacGinty R. (2013). "Indicators: A proposal for everyday peace indicators." *Evaluation and Programme Planning,* 36, 56-63. doi: 10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2012.07.001

Menkhaus K. (2004). I"mpact Assessment in Post-Conflict Peacebuilding – Challenges and Future Drections." Interpeace. Retrieved from http://pdf2.hegoa.efaber.net/entry/content/ 643/3_Impact_Assessment_in.pdf

Mudenge S. I. G. (1998). *A political history of munhumutapa, c.1400-1902*. London: James Currey.

Nascimento D., Keeler S., & Jacobs M. (2004). "Building peace through participation: A case study of Northern Ireland" in G. Alexander, K. Deirdre, M. Edwards (Eds.), *Conflict Resolution and European legacies of war*. Limerick: Centre for European studies: University of Limerick, 12-28.

Odendaal A. (2010). 'An architecture for building peace at local level: A comparative study of local peace committees', A discussion paper, The Bureau for Crisis Prevention of the United Nations Development Programme. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/en/land-natural-resources-conflict/pdfs/UNDP_Local%20Peace%20Committees_2011.pdf

Ojendaal J., Leornadso H., & Lundquist M. (2017)." Local peacebuilding-challenges and opportunities." Stockholm. EBA Report 5. Retrieved from https://eba.se/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/Local-turn-of-peacebuilding-webbversion.pdf

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2012). 'Evaluating Peacebuilding Activities in Settings of Conflict and Fragility: Improving Learning for Results' DAC Guidelines and References Series, OECD Publishing. doi: 10.1787/9789264106802-en

Paffenholz T. (2011). 'Peacebuilding Evaluation: Assessing the Relevance and Effectiveness of Peacebuilding Initiatives: Lessons Learned from Testing New Approaches and Methodologies', Paper prepared for the Annual Convention of the International Studies Association Montreal, 16 – 19 March. Retrieved from http://www.dmeforpeace.org/sites/default/files/Paffenholz%20ISA% 2012.3.2011%20Evaluation.pdf

Richmond O. P. (2009). "A post liberal peace: Eirenism and the everyday." *Review of Internatioal Studies,* 35, 557-580. doi: 10.1017/S0260210509008651

Richmond O. P. (2014). "A crucial link: Local peace committees and national peacebuilding." *International Peacekeeping*, 21(1), 113-115. doi: 10.1080/10246029.2014.956472

Saxby J. (2003). "Local ownership and development co-operation-the role of Northern Civil Society." An issues paper, March 5.

Shinoda, H. (2008). "The difficulty and importance of local ownership and capacity development in peacebuilding". *Hiroshima Peace Science,* 30, 95-115. Retrieved from https://home.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/heiwa/JNL/30/5Shinoda.pdf

Sangqu S. (2014). 'A crucial link: Local peace committees and national peacebuilding', *African Security Review,* 23(4), 422-424. doi: 10.1080/13533312.2014.895600

Stiefel M. (2001). Participatory action research as a tool for peacebuilding: the WSP experience, in L. Reychler & T. Paffenholz, (eds.), *Peace-building: A field guide.* London: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 265-276.

UNICEF (United Nations Children's' Fund). (2015). "Zimbabwe Poverty Atlas: Small Area Poverty Estimation. Statistics for Poverty Eradication." Harare: UNICEF, World Bank and ZimbabweNational Statistics Agency.

Van Niekerk L., & Van Niekerk D. (2009). "Participatory action research: addressing social vulnerability of rural women through income generating activities." *JAMBA: Journal of Disaster Risk Studies,* 2 (2),127-144. doi: 10.4102/jamba.v2i2.20

Van Tongeren P. (2012). 'Creating infrastructures for peace: experiences at three continents', *Pensamiento Propio*: 45-55: 91-128. Retrieved from http://www.cries.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/36.pdf

About the author

Norman Chivasa (Zimbabwe) is a postdoctoral research fellow at the Durban University of Technology, Peacebuilding programme, South Africa. He was a senior lecturer at the University of Zimbabwe in the war, peace & strategic studies section, History Department and adjunct lecturer in the department of peace, Zimbabwe Open University. His research focuses on community peacebuilding and informal infrastructures for peace. He has long been involved in community peacebuilding efforts in Seke district, Zimbabwe, where he has been working closely with villagers in creating local peace committees. His consulting specialty involves designing, implementing and evaluating local infrastructures for peace at village level. Email: normanchivasa@gmail.com

Author's address
International Centre of Nonviolence
ML Sultan Campus
Durban University of Technology
P O Box 1334
Durban, 4000
South Africa

From silos to inter-professional collaboration:

A mixed methods case study utilising participating action research to foster multidisciplinary teams in a day care surgery department

Gunhild Bjaalid, Rune Todnem By, Bernard Burnes, Aslaug Mikkelsen and Olaug Øygaarden

Abstract
This single case study reports on the establishment of a multidisciplinary day care surgery at a Norwegian University Hospital utilising participating action research design principles drawn from socio-technical theory. Data was collected through mixed methods including stakeholder analysis, document studies, observations of meetings, semi-structured interviews and participating group methods. The senior management at the hospital had decided to implement a department that diverged from organising around professional disciplines, and this decision evoked strong resistance among several professional groups in the first phases of this project. This case follows the implications of the decision to establish a multidisciplinary day care surgery through re-organising location, staff and management structures. The findings suggest that the hospital achieved the vision of creating an efficient multidisciplinary work environment, reducing the culture of tribalism between professions, and creating a work environment with a high degree of knowledge transfer. This case describes how action research can be used to reduce organisational silos and to improve multidisciplinary co-operation.

Key words: Action research, Day care surgery, Hospital organisation, Organisational change, Socio-technical design, Inter-professional teams, Patient-based organisation

De los silos a la colaboración interprofesional: un estudio de caso de métodos mixtos que utiliza investigación-acción participativa para fomentar equipos multidisciplinarios en un departamento de cirugía de un centro de día

Resumen
Este estudio de caso único relata el establecimiento de un centro de día multidisciplinario de cirugías en un Hospital Universitario de Noruega utilizando los principios de diseño de la investigación-acción participativa extraídos de la teoría socio-técnica. Los datos se recopilaron a través de métodos mixtos, incluidos los análisis de los actores interesados, estudios de documentos, observaciones de reuniones, entrevistas semi-estructuradas y métodos de grupos participantes. La alta gerencia del hospital había decidido implementar un departamento que divergía de organizarse en torno a disciplinas profesionales, y esta decisión provocó una fuerte resistencia entre varios grupos profesionales en las primeras fases de este proyecto. Este caso sigue las implicaciones de la decisión de establecer un centro de día multidisciplinario de cirugías a través de la reorganización de la ubicación, el personal y las estructuras de gestión. Los resultados sugieren que el hospital logró la visión de crear un ambiente de

trabajo multidisciplinario eficiente, reduciendo la cultura del tribalismo entre profesiones y creando un ambiente de trabajo con un alto grado de transferencia de conocimiento. Este caso describe cómo se puede utilizar la investigación-acción para reducir los silos organizacionales y mejorar la cooperación multidisciplinaria.

Palabras clave: Investigación-acción, Centro de día de cirugías, Organización hospitalaria, Cambio organizacional, Diseño socio-técnico, Equipos interprofesionales, Organización basada en el paciente.

Introduction

Health-care inflation due to rising costs is worrying Europe's politicians. Standardisation of treatment and the development of patient pathways, reduction of hospitalisation and increasing day care or polyclinic treatments, are all examples of organisational changes with a goal to increase efficiency and reduce costs (Lapsley 2008).

Within this context, a Norwegian University Hospital (NUH) sat out to improve its elective day care surgery department (DCS) provision through establishing a new and multidisciplinary patient-centred department with a focus on how different healthcare professions interact in a greater degree than is traditionally the case, and to provide patients with the best possible treatment (Saha, Beach & Cooper 2008). The hospital management had patient related goals such as more flexible patient care, organize services around patient groups, increase numbers of satisfied patients and operations, and on top of that, increase employee satisfaction through the development of a multidisciplinary department.

This article reports on the establishment of the DCS through its first 18 months of operation. The purpose was to explore if participatory action research design principles inspired by the socio-technical system approach, could facilitate organisational change and help overcome resistance and conflicts in establishing the new multidisciplinary patient-centered DCS department.

The following research questions were explored:

1) How can the use of participating action research design principles drawn from the Socio-Technical System Approach be utilised to prevent and overcome conflicts when establishing a patient-centered multidisciplinary day care surgery department?
2) How can the use of participating action research design principles drawn from the Socio-Technical System Approach be utilised to obtain a good work environment with an efficient task planning that can facilitate ambitious operational goals?

Organisation Development and Socio-Technical Systems Theory

One of the earliest forms of Organisation Development (OD) is the socio-technical systems approach developed by the Tavistock Institute in the UK (Burnes 2014). This approach assumes that to successfully change or improve a system first-hand information about the organisation it sits within is required and this can only be achieved through empirical obser-

vations and detailed concrete descriptions of work tasks and work role relationships (du Guy & Vikkelsøy 2012). Therefore, action research is very much in line with the socio-technical focus on addressing significant problems working *with* organszational members, rather than simply studying them.

Emery (1969, 1978) defined technical systems to include a wide range of technology and materials such as unit operations and centrality of operations, the spatial layout and the physical work setting along with productivity and quality of the work as a whole. The social systems include tasks, task interdependency, occupational roles and grouping of roles into teams, how work tasks were co-ordinated and controlled, the effectiveness of production, the delegation of responsibilities, and the degree of reliance on the expertise of workers in making complex judgments and decisions. Furthermore, Emery (1978) defined three socio-technical system design principles:

First, the best design for a productive system is the one in which each part of the system embodies the goals of the overall system. Second, the system should be self-managing to the point that the work groups have the autonomy to cope with their problems by arranging their own use of resources. This second design principle has proven to be the most important principle in distinguishing the socio-technical system's paradigm from other approaches to work design (Pasmore 1995). Third, the best design will be the one that recruits and develops its constituent parts so that they have the intrinsic properties suited to the demands of the position they occupy. At a basic level, this third principle would indicate the need to design jobs with a degree of multi-skilling, but at a more sophisticated level, it implies that account must be taken of the human potentialities for reasoning, creativity and leadership that might be expected in any group of human beings (Emery 1978).

A central tenet of the socio-technical approach is that behaviour is shaped by the work group to which an individual belongs. Therefore, rather than seeking to change the behaviour of each individual worker, one should seek to change the behaviour of the work group, which is what one might expect from a system perspective (Burnes 2014). The socio-technical approach also found that job satisfaction and productivity increased when jobs were designed to comprise 'variety, task completeness and above all autonomy' (Wall et al. 1984, p. 15).

Without a clear sense of what the organisation's core tasks are before implementing changes, the change process is at best for nothing and at worst quite destructive according to the socio-technical approach. To neglect the specificity of circumstances in order to generalise abstract change principles to make a 'one size fit all' recipe for change processes in all types of organisations, may prevent the organisation to pursue its specific purposes (du Guy & Vikkelsøy 2012).

Having this is mind, Cherns's (1976) elaboration of socio-technical design principles: described in the following section, was not used as a cookbook recipe for a successful organisational development into a socio-technical system, but as guiding principles for the second phase of this case study. Good solutions are based on detailed descriptions. Detailed descriptions are based on close observations. The new approach in this article was that we tried to combine the socio-technical design principal with a more contemporary big group technic called 'The World Café' (Tan & Brown 2005). This is a modern method of creative participation very popular among organisational consultants, but not so much used as a participating action research method.

The socio-technical design principles

Focus on the interrelationship between humans and technology
A fundamental tenet of the socio-technical approach is that the design of a work system should understand the interdependence between, and give equal weight to, social and technical factors in order to achieve the joint optimisation of the two subsystems (Cherns 1976).

Variety in work tasks and task distribution
Ideally, employees should be allowed to perform a variety of tasks so they can become multi-skilled. Emery (1978) argued that work design should always seek for a redundancy of functions rather than a redundancy of tasks. Multi-skilled employees are better able to cope with challenges or opportunities that may arise because they can rearrange how they organise themselves and the tasks they perform.

Developing decision-making ability and autonomy
In order to test out new work arrangements, employees must be provided with responsible autonomy. In socio-technical terms, this is often referred to as the principle of 'minimal critical specification' (Herbst 1974). That is, employees should be told what they are expected to do, (e.g. design and run an excellent day care surgery department), but not how to do it.

Management structure
In order to enable responsible autonomy and self-regulation it is important that leadership and supervision are close and internal in the operating team. Thus, socio-technical theory challenges traditional leadership theories by arguing that autocratic control leads to sub-optimal performance (Mumford 2006).

Shared goals
According to the socio-technical approach, the best work design for a productive system is one where each part of the system embodies the goals of the overall system (Emery 1978). In order to do this, organisational members must share the responsibility of identifying challenges and solutions. They must look for continuous improvement, which means that change should be perceived as an ongoing fluid process rather than a process with an end point. This has been named the 'principle of incompletion' (Cherns 1976) and implies that work design is an interactive and continuous process.

The World Café method
The World Café methodology (Tan & Brown 2005) is a simple, effective, and flexible format for hosting large group dialogue. World Café can be modified to meet a wide variety of needs depending on the context, numbers, purpose, location and other circumstances. The main ingredients are to divide the group in numbers between 4 and 6, and set up tables for each group with paper and pens. The facilitator should first introduce the World Café process, setting the context, sharing the Café etiquette. The facilitator can also decide to break up professional groups and power structures when he or she divides participants into groups. Each group will then visit each Café table (it can vary how many tables depending on themes and size of groups). They will have a twenty to thirty minutes round of conversation with the small group seated around a table. The discussion will be centered by a predefined theme or question on each table. When time is up, each member of the group moves

to a new table with another discussion topic, except for one person who stays behind as the "table host". The host write down comments and suggestions in each group to the topic or question specially created for the specific context and desired purpose of the World Café.

After all groups have been to the different Café tables the big group is gathered together, and the different table hosts give a summary of the discussions and suggestions at each table. Individuals are also invited to share insights or other results from their conversations with the rest of the large group. These results are written down and further action decided before the World Café day ends.

Methodology

Context and background

This study was a co-operation between the local university's business school and the top management of the hospital. An important aim for the hospital management was to develop a day care surgery where different professions came together in an integrated and co-ordinated effort to treat a variety of pathologies in an efficient and cost effective way. The goal to develop a separate day care surgery department was not new. The process of establishing the DCS had been ongoing for several years, and since 1997, a number of attempts had failed. In 2003, the NUH had got as far as to design, fund and construct a new DCS building only to find the surgeons unwilling to relocate, or split their tasks between two locations. As a result, the new building was transferred to another department. For the hospital management this was also a small pilot for a much bigger project to come, namely building a new hospital in the area expected to be finished in 2023.

In April 2014, the hospital finally succeeded in opening the new DCS. The researchers collected data and participated in the project over a two-year period from October 2013 through the first 18 months after the DCS opened in April 2014.

The research approach in the first phase (the year before start-up) was initially inductive investigating empirically the action going on in the organization. In the next phase (the first year in operation), all regular employees participated in the action research approach.

Research design and data collection

This study was a single case study (Yin 2011), following traditional qualitative methodology, which is not participatory in essence. The first year of data collection, we used traditional case study methods such as stakeholder analysis, documents studies, observations of meetings and semi-structured interviews. In the second year of the case study, we used a participatory action-oriented method inspired by the socio-technical approach. In our case, group participation can be seen as one of the "multiple evidence sources" proposed by Yin (2011). These methods differ from the more traditional functionalist and positivist ways of thinking.

First, the researchers conducted a stakeholder analysis and analysed all formal documents in the case. This involved 190 pages of project documents including goals, risk analysis and planning documents, internal information newsletters, e-mail exchanges and written notes from project meetings. At this time observation in the project- and steering groups

established to work with the project, was also conducted. This observation started up the last year before formal start-up, the frequency for these meetings was an average of two to three meetings per month. Field notes were written after these observations by the first author. Then followed the first phase of interviews.

In-depth interviews with eight key stakeholders were carried out. All hospital departments influenced by the new day-care surgery at the hospital had employees participating in either the steering group or a project group. All interviews were semi-structured interviews taken at the hospital and recorded; they lasted up to 75 minutes. All professions (nurses, physicians, hospital leaders and administrative personnel) were included in these interviews.

After the initial round of data collection, the second phase of this case study started. In this phase, reflections on action for change were developed in line with the socio-technical approach, they were both an inspiration for developing the changes, and a framework for analysing the data. This work started before the formal start-up of the day care surgery and lasted throughout the first 18 months in operation. The focus in this phase was working together with all the leaders and regular employees at the new day care surgery to generate practical solutions for how they could achieve developing an outstanding day care surgery with a smooth workflow and good work environment.

In this phase, the socio-technical design principles (see page 4 and 5) were discussed and used to develop task planning and the work environment in the new DCS-department.

Then followed a new round of in-depth interviews with nine regular employees at the DCS, as well as five interviews with the leader of the new DCS. These interviews had an action-oriented critical focus with the goal to bring forth ideas that could potentially be acted upon to improve both task planning and improvements of the work environment of the new department.

The first author of this article participated in three half-day seminars with the goal that all regular employees should suggest and discuss potentials to improve task planning and work flow, as well as the social work environment, and the interaction between these. The first author, who is a trained organisational psychologist, had the role as a facilitator and process leader of these seminars. In the very first meeting with the regular employees the first week in the new day care surgery, the formal goals of the top management and project group were presented. All of these employees had long work experience from the main hospital, but they had not worked together as a team previously. So this was a good opportunity to open a new communicative space with the group (Wicks & Reason 2009), in relation to both practical, emotional and power aspects. Hospitals are normally very hierarchical when it comes to power and influence; this is also natural due to strict rules and regulations on what job tasks you formally are allowed to perform due to your profession and competence. Therefore, it was a clear goal in these meetings to open a discussion where all different voices could be raised and heard.

This started a discussion among the employees around what was realistic when it came to performance goals; surprisingly some of these goals were new to the employees. Then followed a discussion on what improvements and suggestions they had when it came to organisation and work flow for the new department, and what kind of work environment they wanted to create now that they had the possibility to form their new work environment from the start. It was the suggestions from the employees in this first meeting that formed the topics later discussed in 'The World Café' sessions.

This started a discussion among the employees around what was realistic when it came to performance goals; surprisingly some of these goals were new to the employees. Then followed a discussion on what improvements and suggestions they had when it came to organisation and work flow for the new department, and what kind of work environment they wanted to create now that they had the possibility to form their new work environment from the start. It was the suggestions from the employees in this first meeting that formed the topics later discussed in 'The World Café' sessions.

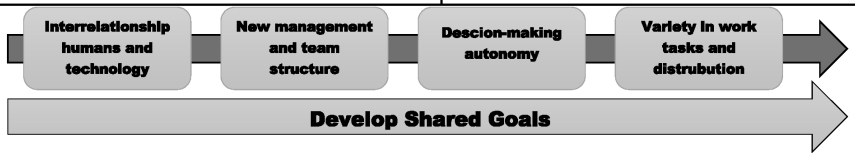
The goal was to facilitate the group process to encourage reflective observations in line with participating action research as a method focusing on developing workable solutions to practitioners' problems. In the session before formal start-up and in the next five months, both theoretical and empirical knowledge were introduced in the seminars to challenge participants' assumptions regarding their own practice and to start a discussion on what type of work organization and work environment they wanted to create. In these sessions, we were drawing on elements from both the *pragmatic* and the *critical* action research orientation (Johansson & Lindhult 2008). After five months, all employees participated in 'The World Café' method (Tan & Brown 2005). The focus was now on the following three themes: 'The work environment', 'Efficiency and procedures', and 'How can we improve task planning and work flow in the future?' The Café was run as a combination of an organisational development process and participating research design (Reason & Bradbury 2001). The main aim of these seminars was to ensure not only *reflective*, but also *practical* action (Jansen, Baur, de Wit, Wilbrink & Abma 2015) and to let the employees of the DCS-department define and formulate both problems and solutions to improve patient treatment, work flow and the psychosocial work environment. The time between the seminars focused on trying out these actions in practice and evaluate if they worked in accordance to plans and intentions. In accordance to other action research designs, the change implementation method was cyclical, in the sense that implementing changes are derived from the findings, and will be tested in subsequent action research (e.g. Acosta, Goltz & Goodson 2015). All of the change suggestions were written down in the seminars, and different groups of employees were given responsibility to work on implementations of suggestions in the timeframe between meetings, normally it was a couple of weeks in-between meetings. Some suggestions were so called "low hanging fruits", easy and uncontroversial suggestions that everyone agreed on (e.g. put a number on the chair the patients wait in so you know which patients are where, or put all patients ready for operation and cleared by the surgeon in one area). Other suggestions needed thorough discussions between the medical personnel (e.g. how young patients are suitable for day care surgery). Some suggestions were more controversial and created tension in the group, like moving nurses around in pre and post-operational positions to make the surgery less vulnerable when employees were absent from work, in this way forcing them out of their regular work responsibilities and comfort zones.

The socio-technical design principles and the World Café method also include some common normative goals which scholars using participating action research in healthcare seem to share. Hooks (2006) identified these as summative partnership attributes focusing on power and decision-making sharing, autonomy for patients and employees, shared knowledge, participation, communication and professional competence.

Participants

The informants in the first phase of the study, were chosen after a stakeholder analysis and came from all relevant hospital departments affected by the new DCS, and from all administrative departments having a role in the process. Informants were selected based on their organisational positions, making sure that those especially relevant to the project were interviewed following due ethical procedures. In the second phase, it included all regular employees.

Table 1: Overview over the phases, goals, data collection and participating action research in this study

	PHASE 1	PHASE 2
Timeframe	2009 - 2013	2014 - 2016
Key Events	Project aimed at moving surgical patients from hospitalization to day care treatments starts. The project group recommends a new, externally located department, initiating Phase 1 of the project. Project re-assessed, foundational documents drawn up defining activities, location, staffing and financing for the new DCS-department. Project Manager hired, detailed consultations and planning with professional groups begin.	A multidisciplinary day care surgery department with a new management structure opened in April 2014 outside the hospital area.
Data collection / action research	**Document analysis** Including all types of informative documents about the project, reports from meetings, risk assessments reports, and goal-setting documents from top management (October 2013).	**Participating interviews** with an action-oriented critical focus with 9 regular employees in the new DCS-department. Five in-depth action-oriented interviews with the leader of the new DCS-department at different stages in the process. Interviews with the other two supervisors (one for operational nurses/one for anesthesia nurses) in the DCS-department (April 2014 to May 2015).
	Stakeholder analysis A stakeholder analysis was performed and representatives for all stakeholders were interviewed. (autumn 2013).	**Three half-day seminars with all employees** These sessions were part of the data collection, but also part of the action research with a goal to improve task planning and work environment in collaboration with the DCS-staff. Five months after start-up all employees participated in 'The World Café' method (April to September 2014).
	In-depth interviews with 8 key stakeholders (autumn /winter 2013).	**Implementing** of suggested changes in the timeframe between seminars.
	Observation in project and steering groups (autumn / winter 2013).	**Evaluation** of the project in a seminar with all employees October 2016.
Goals	**Obtain** detailed, concrete, practical descriptions of tasks, task planning, equipment, personnel and operations needed in the new DCS-department.	**Establish** a patient-centered efficient day care surgery and perform 4000 operations per year
	Overcome resistance among staff to move out of the hospital and establish a new management structure.	**Establish** a good multidisciplinary work environment with satisfied employees and improved operational teams
Action Research Design Principles used in this project		

Interview guide

Standardised semi-structured interviews were utilised to produce comparable data, and all hospital documents and written reports from the project meetings in the pre start-up phase were studied. The main goals from the written documents were implemented in the interview guide. The interviews took place in the participants' normal work environment, and the interview guide consisted of open-ended questions, and were adapted to each situation and participant.

Data analysis

First, a preliminary analysis of the data noting key issues was undertaken, the resistance and time it took to establish the new department, and the difficulties in organising different professions under a new common management structure stood out as themes to analyse fur-

ther in the first phase of the case study. Second, an analysis guided by theoretical perspectives was performed (Giola & Chittipeddi 1991).

All text in the interviews containing information about establishing the DCS according to the research questions, were coded. The next step was first-order analysis of the selected data. Through this process, an account of events based on the dominant themes expressed by the research participants, was put together, and it was possible to look for patterns in these events and in the participants' accounts (Gioia & Chittipeddi 1991). This strategy involves constructing a detailed story from the raw data, which was done in order to prepare an analytical chronology, clarifying sequences across levels of analysis and establishing preliminary analytical themes (Pettigrew 1990). In order to discover the themes and patterns in the first order analysis, techniques such as categorisation, abstraction and comparison were used (Spiggle 1994).

Trustworthiness

In this study, a range of strategies were used both to avoid analysing the data prematurely and to avoid other data interpretation flaws. First, the data was collected systematically over a long period of time (over two years) and then two independent researchers interpreted the data and developed first and second order categories based on the themes of interest. The incoming data was organised around certain topics, themes and central questions. The data was examined to see how it fitted the expected categories, and categorised into different tables and groupings of similar topics.

The experts working on this case (leaders, project leaders or employees at the DCS and the hospital) were used to participate both as informants in interviews, and to read through and validate, criticise or comment the researchers' analysis.

Findings and Discussion

Key events and changes

In establishing the DCS, some major issues had to be addressed. In the first phase of this study, senior management had to identify and overcome resistance among other stakeholders over the proposal to establish the DCS in a new building separate from the existing hospital with permanent employees from different professions located under a new management structure. This was seen as especially difficult, as the employees involved were united in their opposition to the move away, both from the hospital and from their traditional management structure. A force field analysis was used as a method to gain a greater understanding of the changes required in order to achieve establishing a service-based DCS. The findings suggested that existing traditional and learned boundaries between professional groups and different stakeholder perspectives made the process of bringing all groups into one department under one manager something of a challenge (Øygaarden et al. 2018), a challenge that was not solved since both the surgeons and part of the anesthesia personnel ended up coming to the DCS as temporary personnel.

Table 2: Coding of issues in the process of establishing a day care surgery

First-order concepts	Second-order themes	Aggregate dimensions **The socio-technical design principles**
Physicians did not want to move out of hospital because it would restrict their work flexibility (e.g. to do other work tasks between operations) Patient safety issues Physicians under specialization or with lack of experience cannot be sent alone down to the new department so it will increase the need for specialized personnel Some employees were worried about high efficiency goals and repetitive work task in a day care surgery More "blood, action and challenges" in a general surgery department than in a day care surgery	Resistance against external location and expected negative outcomes related to reorganizing a day care surgery outside the hospital area	**Decision-making ability and autonomy** **Variety and flexibility in work tasks**
Not enough operators available to fill up operation program both places simultaneously, and sometimes not even enough patients Some patient groups are organized under day care surgery, but includes patients that are too sick, old or young to be operated in the DCS department outside the hospital location Not having regular employees in all positions in the new DCS makes efficiency goals harder to reach	Objections against high efficiency goals for the new DCS	**Management and organizational structure**
Avoid cancellations of elective surgery due to incoming emergencies Create new teams sharing work experience, competence and work tasks across professions and disciplines Physicians allowed to be dedicated to operations only and not having to do other work tasks Different work hours allow more efficient work flow Predicable operation program Be able to give the patients good and efficient treatment in nice and functional surroundings Organize professions around patients Develop a new inter-disciplined work culture with social belonging across disciplines and profession Higher competence transfer between different professions	Expected positive outcomes related to task planning and work distribution in a new DCS	**Shared goals** **Humans and technology**
Regular employees versus shifting employees Unclear authority, responsibility and accountability of services provided to the new day care surgery Leadership structure (who is leading who) Danger of creating "A and B teams" with both regular and shifting personnel Moving between locations takes time Fear of alienation from profession and "mother-departments" Competence transfer harder within your own profession	Challenges with new organization of personnel and management issues	**Management structure and organization of personnel**

The second phase of this study involved discussing and deciding on all the details of how the DCS should operate including the type of equipment, the layout of the new facility, which medical and other professions should permanently be employed on site, what services should be provided from the hospital, and DCS's new management structure. One of the main challenges in this phase was whether and how to involve temporary employees who would be based at the existing hospital in the management of the DCS.

Preventing and Overcoming Resistance

The decision to establish the new DCS in a separate building outside the hospital with a new management structure was expected to have both negative and positive effects on employees. At the hospital, the surgeons were able to do other, unrelated work tasks in between the surgeries. It is hard to achieve a good workflow when all personnel had so many work tasks outside the operation theatre, and no common ground to discuss the workflow. Some interviewees saw this as counterproductive:

'Between surgeries, the surgeons run around doing all sorts of work tasks. I am sure that it is very important and useful tasks they are doing. In the meantime, the rest of the surgical team is ready for the next surgery. We are ready to put the patient to sleep. Therefore, we call on the operators, and they do not answer or the calling system does not work, and then you get a delay. That is not good for anyone…. So the way I see it the question is: what is the most appropriate way to organise this? Having operators present so they can continuously operate, operate and operate…or, should they run around doing everything else at the same time?' (NUH anaesthesiologist)

However, others, both senior management and physicians expressed a different view, arguing that multitasking was important:

'Unfortunately, we do not have enough specialists in all disciplines, which leads to physicians doing more than one task at a time. In a department located outside the hospital area, they cannot do that. At the hospital they can run in to the post or to the clinic and do work tasks in-between. Ideally, this is not the best way to organise it. However, it is better than cancelling or patients having to wait all day for a doctor…' (NUH senior management team member)

To involve already hard-pressed specialists was a time-consuming but necessary process in order to avoid the same fate as two previous attempts to establish a day care surgery, which both failed. These groups undertook a long process of discussing and deciding on topics such as type of surgeries to be included in the DCS; which patients were best suited for day care operations; the finances; the goal setting; and the location of the new department.

Focus on the interrelationship between humans and technology

Freedman (2013) noted that a socio-technical system comprises two separate but interdependent systems, i.e. the human beings who perform the work, and the technological system that is composed of the tools, techniques, and methods required to allow people to accomplish specific tasks. In an operating theatre, with several medical and nursing specialties serving the same patient with high complexity in both work tasks and equipment, the interrelationship between the two systems is especially evident (Rydenfält, Larsson & Odenrick 2017). To have an efficient workflow in a day care surgery, the physical surroundings play an essential role. Early on in the new DCS initiative, experienced day care surgery staff were asked to participate in drawing up the outlines of how they would like to develop the physical surroundings to support a seamless workflow. It was experienced day care surgical staff's idea to create the

department as a circle where patients move around in a natural order from phase to phase. The experts were allowed to come up with their suggestions before the building of the new DCS:

'… the good thing in this project is the involvement of the staff. They have decided where all the lockers will be placed. All the doors. All the walls. Therefore, they are responsible for the choices they have made, and that is why they believe it is the right choices. Because these are competent people with extensive experience.' (NUH senior management team member)

Variety in work tasks and task distribution

One of the guiding principles of socio-technical approach, according to Emery (1978), is to seek for a redundancy of functions rather than redundancy of tasks. After one year in operation, the regular staff in the new DCS reported experiencing much higher levels of job tasks variety than expected. This development was due to the introduction of new patient groups not previously planned for, and a lower number of staff, with the implication of everyone having to step outside of their old professional roles and learn new work tasks. The goal in this action research project was to allow staff to participate in implementing the multidisciplinary DCS by giving them a high degree of competence and excellence in day care surgery as a field, and hence developing this as a specialty:

'All surgical nurses know what they are meant to do in the operating theatre. However, the day care surgery field involves much more than that. Day care surgery is all the pre-operative and post-operative competences seen under one.' (DCS nurse)

In order to ensure that DCS staff obtained pre- and postoperative work experience in support of competence transfer and development, all staff participated in an internship scheme. Before opening the DCS, there was a concern from different professions that working with day care surgery would provide too little variety in work tasks and therefore reduce competence development. In practice, DCS staff reported the opposite:

'My old colleagues at the hospital said that they thought it was going to be too boring for me in a day care surgery. Too little action, challenge and drama. However, in reality we have such a variation in patient groups, diagnoses and work tasks. In addition, we have a different responsibility here and have to trust in our own abilities that we can handle everything ourselves.' (DCS anaesthesia nurse)

The possibility to discuss work procedures and practice with colleges with a range of different specialties facilitated the improvement of multidisciplinary teams and knowledge transfer, as well as the possibility to utilise the knowledge in everyday work practice.

Shared goals

According to the socio-technical approach, the best work design for a productive system is one where each part of the system embodies the goals of the overall system (Emery 1978). The DCS initiative had two main goals. The first goal was to develop an efficient patient-centered day care surgery department with an outstanding work environment for the employees:

'We have always had a vision in this project of creating a working environment characterized by inter-disciplinary teamwork and ownership ... that all employees should experience ownership for the department and responsibility for the DCS-department being as good as possible.' (NUH senior management team member)

The second goal was that the initiative had to specify efficiency in numbers of operations per year. Whilst the first goal was fairly straightforward and uncontroversial, this second goal was perceived to be more controversial, especially among the medical department managers delivering services to the DCS. However, it was a conscious choice from the NUH senior management team to have ambitious goals:

'We had an absolutely absurd start-up plan to be honest. It was a deliberate choice, because I wanted full pressure from day one, without any slack. The patient focus and the focus on no cancellations of planned operations… is one of the most valuable elements in the work culture at this hospital. For all of us it is a shame… it's a shame every time we have to cancel operations.' (NUH senior management team member)

At the project meetings senior managers of the different surgeon-groups constantly repeated that they did not have enough operators, or in some cases even patients to fill the numbers of operations and operation days set for DCS in the first year. There was no immediate solution to this disagreement, which kept emerging in meetings and discussions. Not surprisingly, this theme evolved into a problem in the DCS start-up phase, and certain types of operations had to be rescheduled due to some departments not managing to fill their operation theatres.

The new DCS did not manage to reach the target of expected numbers of operations per year during the first year in operation. When it comes to efficiency of the new DCS the senior managers at the hospital insisted that a target of 4000 operations per year was achievable, even though staff in both the project and steering groups challenged this. This is not an unusual occurrence; senior managers often feel that they need to over-promise in order to justify investing in new facilities (Burnes 2014).

Although it requires some time to establish a good workflow within any new department, the target set was perceived to be extremely ambitious, and even with full capacity in all five operation theatres from day one it was perceived as hard to reach. Furthermore, some medical fields were lacking operators, and staff reported from an early stage that they would not manage to deliver according to plan due to this. Finding the patient groups suitable for day care operations also took some time, but after one full year in operation, all five operation theatres were now in use every day.

Decision-making ability and autonomy

Socio-technical theory was pioneering for its shift in emphasis towards considering teams or groups as the primary unit of analysis, and not the individual. Sociotechnical theory pays particular attention to internal supervision and leadership at the level of the "group", and refers to it as 'responsible autonomy'. Staff must be provided with responsible autonomy to test new solutions. This is referred to as the principle of Minimal Critical Specification, which simply means that people should be told what to do, but not how to do it (Herbst 1974). To follow this design principle is also in line with the action research principle of working with people and seeing them as experts, not simply studying them (Bradbury & Reason 2003).

The NUH senior management team had a clear vision that DCS staff should be allowed to participate actively in shaping the task planning, workflow and work environment in the new department:

'What we gave them was the opportunity to create their own work place, work culture and work procedures. What we wanted in return was top quality. Best challenge you can give competent people if you ask me…' (NUH senior management team member)

This research involved a high degree of staff participation. They had three half-day seminars with different relevant themes with the aims to improve both work environment and work flow. In these seminars, all staff participated, and it was designed to work out practical solutions to perceived challenges. This could be anything from developing standardized patient procedures to better ways of organising the storage room. Staff worked out suggestions on how to solve both large and small problems potentially occurring in the DCS. They undertook evaluations of how and where patient flow typically stopped up (e.g. surgeons forgetting to tell the rest of the staff that a patient is examined and ready for operation, and as a result, they are waiting too long in the hallway instead of getting ready for operation) and set out to solve these problems. When they discovered barriers in the workflow, they were encouraged to find ways of removing these. Because of the relatively flat structure and small size of the department, it was easy to try out new solutions on an ongoing basis:

'I knew straight away that I've now got a completely different ownership to my new workplace. I am not just one of many pieces in a puzzle. Here I am allowed to be involved in the design of the work tasks and procedures. That has been a new experience for me, and it feels really good.' (DCS anaesthesia nurse)

Several staff reported it was a new and welcomed experience not only to be encouraged and allowed to provide input to the organisation of the department, but to observe that their input was actually used in new procedures.

Staff focused on the positive effect closer relationships between professions and specialists have on operational duties, and how these closer relationships could lead to more knowledge and competence transfer across disciplines:

'We co-operate so well under operations now, also with the physicians, we are smooth operators…Because we know each other, we know each other so well now that we are really like ... a team. It is completely different, the feeling of identity. It is good to feel such an identity to your work…' (DCS nurse)

The findings suggest that the NUH senior management team achieved part of their vision of creating more inter-disciplinary teams in the new DCS. Furthermore, they had only one lunchroom in the new DCS, at the hospital all the different professions have separate lunchrooms:

'I have worked as an anaesthesia nurse for almost thirty years up at the hospital, and I have never had lunch with surgeons or orthopedists before moving down here [to the new DCS]. I think it is nice that we can sit down with them and talk about everyday life stuff… Because we all eat together, not only the regular ones. We include the temporary staff as well, and share our lunch with them if they forget to bring their own food. I think most of them find it enjoyable and relaxing here.' (DCS anaesthesia nurse)

Staff were proud of their new department, and what they had achieved in a very short period of time:

'I must say that to be allowed to create your own work culture as we had the opportunity to do in this department, has been fantastic.' (DCS nurse)

The feedback from the patients after the first year was generally positive and the DCS had no serious incidents regarding patient safety. Some patients reported that they felt "a bit like

they were parts on a conveyor belt", but most reported that they liked being able to go home as soon as possible after their operation.

The staff also reported being motivated by the positive patient responses:

'One of our patients woke up after operation and said this is the best private hospital I have ever been to!' (DCS nurse)

In order to create true multidisciplinary teams where all staff help to develop each other's skills, the feeling of "being in the same boat", was important:

'I like to see the patients coming, and know that we can follow them through the process. We can give them safety and competence. And at the end of the day we can see the colour returning to their faces. That is my motivation.' (DCS anaesthesia nurse)

Management and team structure

According to the socio-technical design, in order to enable responsible autonomy and self-regulation, it is important that management and supervision are close and internal in the operating team. NUH senior management had a vision of creating a new team and management structure at the DCS-department. They realised this was going to be difficult if the majority of staff were 'just visiting' and if the new DCS did not have one senior manager. It was clear from early on in the planning process that operators would not be part of the regular staff at the new department. Instead, the managers of the different hospital surgery departments would provide surgeons in a shift system:

'Everyone agreed that if this new department was to succeed it was important to have regular staff feeling ownership of the results, and a local manager of the department. The problem was; no one wanted to report to this manager, they all wanted to keep their manager at the hospital.' (NUH senior management team member)

When it came to task planning and task distribution, study informants reported the high degree of temporary (shifting) staff as challenging:

'The DCS-department must have a seamless workflow to be efficient, the more people you are depending on contributing, the harder it is to achieve this goal. If you get new people constantly that do not know the standard routines or where things are put on top of tough deadlines to reach the goals, I think shifting staff will be a challenge'. (DCS anaesthesiologist)

The goal of having as many regular staff as possible reporting to a local senior manager, and thereby creating a focused and stable work force with stronger teams was only partly met the first year in operation:

'The challenge with health organisations is the discipline based silo organisation, where the patient flow needs to cross those borders to be efficient. So many people might think that we did not manage to solve this issue in the new DCS given the fact that many of the staff are still being provided by the individual hospital departments. However, in reality we have come very far in a new way of organising our services in this department, because we have managed to create a department that includes all professions, except physicians.' (NUH senior management team member)

The establishment of the new DCS challenged the typical hospital organisation because different professions from different departments were required to co-operate under one new 'umbrella'. Hence, a new management structure had to be established.

The operating theatre is a dynamic, high-pressured environment, with different specialists working together to ensure a successful outcome for the patients. This complex system relies

on the performance of the individual team members, and is vulnerable to errors and adverse events (Undre, Sevdalis, Healey & Darzi 2007). To challenge the hierarchies and professional silos, and have a work environment where all staff work towards delivering together working in teams where people know each other, is important. This is very much in line with the socio-technical approach to work with the group as a system to make improvements, not with individual workers (Herbst 1974).

Concluding remarks

The research provided mixed results: whilst managers and staff were satisfied with the autonomy determining the physical surroundings, work tasks, work flow and work environment in the new DCS, how to manage temporary (on loan) versus regular staff and the ability to set their own operation goals and programme stayed an unresolved issue. As regards the positive outcomes in relation to task planning, workflow, DCS staff highlighted the ability to influence important decisions, democratic leadership-style, practical locations and the possibility of socialising with all staff regardless of their profession or specialism, as an important success factor in achieving the vison of a good work environment. Building down silos and creating multidisciplinary teams require belonging to the same management structure and the possibilities to discuss work related issues and improvements together.

The socio-technical approach stresses that an effective and efficient work place requires an optimal interrelationship between humans and technology; it requires that all staff have task variety, decision-making ability and autonomy; it stresses the importance of shared goals, and a management structure that supports all of these. Crucial to achieving this is the ability of all employees to participate in the design of the new system. In this case, it was only the regular employees in the DCS who participated in the action research approach. One of the main criticism of hospital changes based on NPM reforms is the lack of influence and participation from clinical and first-line personnel in the change processes (Slagstad 2017). The combination of socio-technical change principles (Cherns 1976) and the World Café (Tan & Brown 2005) approach gives a good framework for allowing creative participation from employees in a range of different professions and positions, allowing them to discuss changes and improvements in their work environment regardless of their position in the power hierarchy. These methods seem to prevent turf battles and allow co-operation to reach a shared goal.

Our findings suggest that the possibility to discuss work tasks, procedures and practice with colleges from a range of different specialities facilitated the improvement of inter-professional knowledge transfer, as well as the possibility to utilise the knowledge in everyday work practice. Staff at the DCS reported on new ways of working together as a team, even comparing themselves to a "well-oiled machine" with a higher degree of competence transfer in this new organization.

One weakness of this case was that an important profession in any day care surgery, namely the surgeons, did not move to the new DCS. It was clear early in phase one of this case, that they would not be permanently positioned in the new DCS. This was due to several factors such as the type of operations available in a day care surgery compared to a general

surgery department, and it was due to lack of specialists in many fields and a resistance to move out of the hospital and the management structure they were used to belong to.

So the vision of building down the professional silos and create permanent inter-professional teams, with both the surgeons and parts of the anaesthesia staff still being 'on loan' from the main hospital, was only partly achieved in this case. These two professions tended to see themselves as being part of the mother departments at the hospital rather than part of the DCS.

However, after some months of operation, several of the temporary personnel from the hospital, being surgeons or nurses, became more regular. Since some preferred to be at the DCS, they chose to come more often. Therefore, the problem of having many temporary and new employees not knowing the routines and colleagues became a smaller issue than first expected in phase 1.

This study of the establishment of the new DCS shows that it is possible to develop a co-operative, democratic and multidisciplinary work environment that optimises the work-flow and abilities with the potential of the technology of work to produce a system that meets the needs of staff and patients. However, it does not happen by accident or mere goodwill. It requires an approach to change that recognises the need to optimise the social and technical systems of the workplace. It also needs a participating approach that involves all staff from relevant professions in the design process, managers and non-managers alike.

However, as the DCS study has shown, not everything will be perfect from the word *go*. Organisation design and operation are on-going processes, which staff need to keep working with. Seen in that light, the DCS has made remarkable progress.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the participation of the regional health authorities, the hospitals and the university in this project.

Disclosure Statement

The authors reported no potential conflict of interest.

Bibliography

Acosta, S., Goltz H., & Goodson P. (2015). "Autoethnography in action research for health education practitioners". *Action Research,* 13(4), 412-428. doi: 10.1177/1476750315573589

Bradbury H., & Reason P. (2003). "Action research: An opportunity for revitalizing research purpose and practices." *Qualitative social work*, 2(2), 155-175. doi 10.1177/1473325003002002003

Burnes B., & Cooke B. (2012)." Review article: The past, present and future of organization development: Taking the long view." *Human Relations*, 65(11), 1395-1429. doi 10.1177/0018726712450058

Burnes B. (2014) *Managing Change* (6th Edition). Pearson: Harlow.

Cherns A. (1976). "The Principles of Sociotechnical Design". *Human Relations*, 29(8), 783-792. doi: 10.1177/001872677602900806

du Gay P., & Vikkelsø S. (2012). «Reflections: On the lost specification of 'change'." *Journal of Change Management*, 12(2), 121-143. doi 10.1080/14697017.2011.606609

Emery F. E. (1978). *Systems thinking*. New York: Penguin.

Emery F. E. (1978). "The assembly line: its logic and our future." *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 82-100. doi: 10.1080/00208825.1978.11656246

Emery F. E., & Trist E. L. (1969). "The causal texture of organisational environments." *Systems thinking*, 1, 245-262. doi: 10.1177/001872676501800103

Freedman A. M. (2013). "The Application of Systems Theory to Organizational Diagnosis*." The Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Leadership, Change, and Organizational Development*, 405-441. doi 10.1002/9781118326404.ch20

Gayá Wicks P. & Reason P. (2009). "Initiating action research: Challenges and paradoxes of opening communicative space." *Action Research*, 7 (2), 243-260. doi: 10.1177/1476750309336715

Gioia D. A., & Chittipeddi K. (1991). "Sensemaking and sensegiving in strategic change initiation." *Strategic management journal*, 12(6), 433-448. doi: 10.1002/smj.4250120604

Herbst P. G. (1974*). Socio-technical design*. London: Tavistock Publication.

Jansen E., Baur V., de Wit M., Wilbrink N., & Abma T. (2015). "Co-designing collaboration: Using a partnership framework for shared policymaking in geriatric networks." *Action Research*, 13(1), 65-83. doi: 10.1177/1476750314565944

Johansson A. W., & Lindhult E. (2008)."Emancipation or workability? Critical versus pragmatic scientific orientation in action research." *Action Research*, 6(1), 95-114. doi: 10.1177/1476750307083713

Lapsley I. (2008). The NPM agenda: back to the future. *Financial accountability & management*, 24(1), 77-96. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-0408.2008.00444.x

Mumford E. (2006). "The story of socio-technical design: reflections on its successes, failures and potential." *Information Systems Journal,* 16(4), 317-342. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2575.2006.00221.x

Olsson E. & Lau M. (2015). "When one size does not fit all: Using participatory action research to co-create preventive healthcare services." *Action Research*, 13(1), 9-29. doi: 10.1177/1476750314566216

Pasmore W. A. (1995). "Social science transformed: the socio-technical perspective." *Human Relations*, 48(1), 1-21. doi: 10.1177/001872679504800101

Pettigrew A. M. (1990). "Longitudinal field research on change: Theory and practice." *Organization science*, 1(3), 267-292. doi: 10.1287/orsc.1.3.267

Reason P., & Bradbury H. (2001). Handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice. London: Sage Publication.

Rydenfäl, C., Larsson P. A., & Odenrick P. (2017). "An action-oriented method for interprofessional organization development at a hospital operating unit". *Action Research*, 15(2), 177-197. doi: 10.1177/1476750316631806

Saha S., Beach M. C., & Cooper L. A. (2008). "Patient centeredness, cultural competence and healthcare quality." *Journal of the National Medical Association*, 100(11), 1275. doi: 10.1016/s0027-9684(15)31505-4

Spiggle S. (1994). "Analysis and interpretation of qualitative data in consumer research." *Journal of consumer research*, 491-503. doi: 10.1086/209413

Tan S., & Brown J. (2005). "The world café in Singapore: Creating a learning culture through dialogue." *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 41(1), 83-90. doi: 10.1177/0021886304272851

Todnem B. R. (2005). "Organisational change management: A critical review*." Journal of change management*, 5(4), 369-380. doi: 10.1080/14697010500359250

Trist E. L., & Bamforth K. W. (1951). "Some social and psychological consequences of the Longwall Method of coal-getting: An examination of the psychological situation and defences of a work group in relation to the social structure and technological content of the work system". *Human relations*, 4(1), 3-38. doi: 10.1177/001872675100400101

Undre S., Sevdalis N., Healey A. N., Darzi S. A., & Vincent C. A. (2006). "Teamwork in the operating theatre: cohesion or confusion?" *Journal of evaluation in clinical practice*, 12(2), 182-189. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2753.2006.00614.x

Wall T. D., Burnes B., Clegg C. W. & Kemp N. J. (1984). "New technology, old jobs". *Work and People*, 10 (2), 15-21.

Yin R. K. (2011). *Applications of case study research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Øygaarden O., Bye R. T., Bjaalid G. & Mikkelsen A. (2019) "Establishing a multidisciplinary day-care surgery department: Challenges for nursing management". *Journal of Nursing Management*, 12(1), 133-142. doi: 10.1111/jonm.12658

About the authors

Gunhild Bjaalid has a PhD with a specialization in management from the University of Stavanger Business School.
She is a psychologist by profession and specializes in HRM, clinical psychology and organizational psychology.

Rune Todnem By
Professor of Organisational Behaviour (Staffordshire University Business School, UK), Professor II Change Leadership (University of Stavanger, Norway) and Co-founder and Chair of the Public Leadership Foundation. He is the Editor-in-Chief of Journal of Change Management.

Bernard Burnes
Professor of Organisational Change (Stirling Management School, UK) and is one of the leading international authorities on organisational change. Bernard is the author of over 50 journal articles, over 20 books and around 40 book chapters. His article 'Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach to Change: A Re-appraisal' (Journal of Management Studies, 41 (6), 977 – 1002), received a Citation of Excellence as one of the top 50 management articles in the world in 2004, has been reprinted twice and has received over 250 citations.

Aslaug Mikkelsen
Professor at the University of Stavanger Business School. Her professional field is Strategic Management and Organizational psychology. Specializes in HRM, business strategy, and leadership studies. Her work experience includes a broad range of management positions in academic institutions and in business; she has been the Principal of the University in Stavanger a four-year period.

Olaug Øygarden
PhD Fellow at the University of Stavanger Business School. She has a Background from Sociology, Development Studies and Change Management. Her current field is Health Care Organizations, Hospital Management, Change Management and Project implementation.

Authors' addresses
Gunhild Bjaalid, corresponding author.
Universitetet i Stavanger
Postboks 8600 Forus
4036 Stavanger, Norway
Email: gunhild.bjaalid@uis.no

Rune Todnem By, Staffordshire University Business School, UK, Universitetet i Stavanger
Postboks 8600 Forus
4036 Stavanger, Norway
E-mail: rune.t.by@uis.no

Bernard Burnes, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9 4LA Scotland UK
E-mail: bernard.burnes@stir.ac.uk

Aslaug Mikkelsen, Universitetet i Stavanger
Postboks 8600 Forus
4036 Stavanger, Norway
E-mail: aslaug.mikkelsen@uis.no

Olaug Øygaarden, Universitetet i Stavanger
Postboks 8600 Forus
4036 Stavanger, Norway
E-mai olaug.oygarden@uis.nol:

The learning web in the systematisation of experiences: An analysis of research processes with Artisan women

Aline Lemos da Cunha Della Libera, Edla Eggert

Abstract
This article discusses aspects of a dialogue with artisan women during the production of their handicrafts. Our dialogical proposition builds on participant research studies conducted in Brazil since the 1960's, to which feminist studies are added and mixed here. The article integrates two groups of female artisans who produced pieces, and simultaneously talked about their craft production processes and their daily experiences. We analyse the broad spectrum of accounts that emerges at the meetings, and the power of self-perception arising from the places of collective speech and listening. We conclude that the alternatives found for systematising the recorded findings provoked new reflections and the recognition, in scale, of other directions and derivations of research practice with poorly educated adult women.

Keywords: participant research, systematization, artisan women, simultaneity.

La red de aprendizaje en la sistematización de experiencias: análisis de procesos de investigación con mujeres artesanas.

Resumen
Este artículo analiza aspectos de un diálogo con mujeres artesanas durante la producción de sus artesanías. La propuesta dialógica se refiere a los estudios de investigación participativa producidos en Brasil desde la década de 1960, a los que se mezclan aquí los estudios feministas. El artículo integra dos grupos de artesanas que produjeron piezas y al mismo tiempo hablaron sobre sus procesos de producción artesanal y sus experiencias diarias. Analiza el amplio espectro del discurso que emerge en los encuentros y el poder de la autopercepción desde los lugares de discurso y escucha colectivos. Se concluyó que las alternativas encontradas para sistematizar los hallazgos registrados provocaron nuevas reflexiones y el reconocimiento, en escala, de otras direcciones y derivaciones de la práctica de investigación con mujeres adultas con baja escolaridad.

Palabras clave: investigación participativa, sistematización, artesanas, simultaneidad.

Introduction

Based on the experience originated from research activities with women who produce handicrafts, who learned from and taught each other techniques of craft production, we present in this article some of the methodological processes developed with them. Over the past ten years (Cunha 2010; Eggert 2011, 2017) we have been conducting research with artisan women, most of them poorly educated, who produce pieces for their own use and/or for sale. These groups allowed us to spend time with them and, through this interaction, provoked us to think about the forms of systematising the research we conducted, with reflections on current studies, such as this one. The contexts experienced in our investigative practices varied: a) in ateliers, where weaving pieces were produced for sale, which in this article we call the *hand weaving loom* group and, b) in the community spaces of a public school, through meetings organized for teaching and learning staple crochet and other forms of craft production, which in this article we call the *staple crochet* group.

Figure 1. Hand weaving loom
Note: Image retrieved from http://www.tecelagemanual.com.br/lojatear/acessorios.htm

According to Maria Rita Webster (1997) and Elza Hirata Baptista (2004), the hand weaving loom (Figure 1) predominates in the weaving produced in the state of Rio Grande do Sul (Brazil), besides being a more popular, easy-to-handle loom.

Staple crochet is a very old weaving technique that is nearly extinct in Rio Grande do Sul (Brazil); it uses a needle, thread or wool and a U-shaped wooden or metal artifact (Figure 2) in which the piece is woven. Each woven part (Figure 3) can be sewn to another to form a whole piece (jackets, purses, blankets...)[1].

[1] There are few references to staple crochet in academic texts. Currently, through the Google Scholar platform, two articles are available (Júnior & Junger 2009; Montemezzo & Cunha 2013), two end-of-course monographs (Ferreira 2017; Rufino 2018), two Master's dissertations (Azevedo 2012; Cândido 2015), a doctoral thesis (Cunha 2010) and a book chapter (Cunha & Eggert 2011). Only one of the dissertations and one monograph, both in the Design area, detail a little more about the technique (Cândido 2015; Ferreira 2017). In addition to these, details about the technique and its teaching can be found in the doctoral thesis and book chapter, both in the Education area (Cunha 2010; Cunha & Eggert 2011). The other studies only cite staple crochet as a typology of crochet weaving. The thesis above refers to the study conducted by Cunha (2010), whose experience is part of the reflections presented in this article. That study illustrates the technique of staple crochet and goes into details on questions related to its teaching. Cunha e Eggert (2011, p. 60) suspect that staple crochet "[...] emerged by Chinese influence and was brought [to Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil] by Azoreans. With their fork-shaped hairpins, women wove with what threads they had access to (reeds, for example) in order to pass time." Cândido (2015) reaffirms that staple crochet is nearly extinct in Rio Grande do Sul.

Figure 2. Staple
Note: The researcher's personal collection (Cunha 2010, p. 217).

Figure 3. Detail of staple weaving
Note: The researcher's collection (Cunha 2010, p. 220).

In the two groups we followed, some characteristics were similar: they were formed by black and white women from lower classes, mostly poorly educated. The similarities also pervaded their way of sharing their technical knowledge, their silence and concentration while producing the pieces.

The research propositions in both groups were implemented using some data collection techniques: audio and video recordings, photographs, group and individual interviews, participant observation and notes in field diaries. This collection took place mainly during the simultaneous making/learning and making/teaching comprised in the production of the handcrafted pieces. The interviews' script was guided towards the form of open dialogues held amid the handicraft production and, according to the possibilities provided by the groups, with the actual participation of the researchers during the production of pieces. This methodological choice provoked reflections about the ways of systematising data which, in most cases, were not transcribed even despite our careful listening, due to the difficulty of understanding simultaneous speeches or to interference by the women's work instruments (e.g., their looms). In addition to these factors, the proposition of spending time with the women during their group time led to long dialogues and parallel talks about which, in some cases, the researchers' intervention was not possible: this was more recurrent in the staple crochet group.

The experience of dialoguing in these groups of women generated displacements with regard to the treatment of collected data. As we transcribed them, we realised it was necessary to organise them into thematic axes, in order to avoid excessive fragmentation. Thus, particularly with regard to the group of women who learned staple crochet, we thought of ways of systematszing that formed a map, a document in scale, produced from the breadth of talks at the meetings. We built on Gattaz (1996), referred to by Eggert (1998) in our "trans-creating" of transcriptions when the range of talks was too wide. In other words, as we identified parts that harmonised, we brought them together and synthesised them as we systematized the written text.

Although focused on intervention and group participation, individual talks were also proposed with some women, especially those with some leadership role (those who had been longer in craft, who were older, who were craft teachers, recognized by the group and

referred to as authorities). However, we assumed that the dialogue with the artisan women, even if carried out individually, were influenced by the collectivity they belonged to. In synthesis, dialoguing about this range of manifest opinions, considering that the speech carries a 'we', even with the use of data collection tools that may be widely known (e.g., individual or group interviews), required other forms of systematisation due to the quantity and/or the difficulty to understand.

In the staple crochet group, few talks were literally transcribed. Most of them were synthesised, though carefully so that they did not lose their original connotation and could generate enough analysis elements, thematic axes and syntheses to form a mandala. For example, during the recording, some women took several minutes to discuss the importance of friendships made in the group for their mental health, arguing at length about the topic. Therefore, *Mental Health* and *friendships* were highlighted as elements of analysis and synthesis of these accounts, respectively, which made up the mandala.

In the dialogue with these artisan women, the challenge of systematising their work, their ways of teaching and learning, all this was pervaded by the repercussions of these craft practices on the present, since these are old practices that connect to their ancestry. This ancestry is understood from historical origins that "[...] bring the possibility of elaborating more consistent and significant identity processes, i.e., beyond individual gain, processes that can be perceived collectively" (Cunha 2010, p. 193). We consider that, although some women did not identify their groups of belonging: ethnic, religious, cultural or social, there were elements of these experiences in their accounts, and in the choice of artisanal production techniques. With regard to staple crochet, for example, the Azorean influence of handicraft practices circulating in the Rio Grande region (Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil) was evident. In this group, based in the far south of Brazil, at no time was there an interest in learning bobbin lace (Figure 4), for example, even though it is a craft practiced in the neighboring state (Santa Catarina, Brazil) and also of Portuguese origin.

Figure 4. Bobbin Lace
Note: image retrieved from http://www.pmf.sc.gov.br/mobile/index.php?pagina=notpagina&noti=5479

Therefore, we can see that there were preferred techniques which were so considered because they were part of set of cultural practices specific to where they lived, very typical of that region. In this particular case, another aspect to consider is the lack of recognition of artisanal practices that could connect to black ancestry, since the staple crochet group is mostly formed by black women (black or brown), including the craft teacher. This choice shows the effects of the racism that structured Brazilian society, which erased, in different communities, elements of black ancestry in terms of creative and autonomous products produced through artisanal techniques. In Brazil's southern region, which was heavily influenced by European immigration, many of these practices arising from the experience of blacks were subsumed or ignored. Based on this group, we will reflect on elements considered important to enter this investigative experience and

think about pedagogical aspects that occurred in the making of a mandala of possibilities – a graphic representation used to systematise the meetings.

Participant Observation of "Worldviews" amid "Experiential Knowledge"

Participant observation was essential as a data collection instrument. This approach is characterised by a "less structured, continuous conversation" that emphasises "absorbing local knowledge and culture for a longer period of time" without having to "ask questions within a relatively limited period" (Gaskell 2002, p. 64). Therefore, the need arose to promote a broader dialogue, knowing that it could transcend the initial agenda organised by the researchers. In a way, this conduct was expected and desired in the course of research activity with established groups of women. By choosing to use open instruments, we found the prominent need to identify aspects of the daily life of the artisan women and their collectivity.

Thus we realised that, even in different groups of women, participant observation and a few talks in particular allowed us to find the existence of Pedagogies, i.e., forms of teaching and learning in which they were protagonists. We do not consider this to be a feature exclusive of groups formed by women; however, through the approaches adopted in the research we conducted in recent years, we intend to point to a peculiar reality of women in their teaching and learning processes. Women in lower class groups, in particular, have been deprived of the opportunity to attend formal instructional spaces for centuries, and have built up their learning in other places and times, a fact we believe Pedagogy should address.

According to Gaskell (2002, p. 65) "[...] The understanding of the life worlds of respondents and specified social groupings is the sine qua non of qualitative interviewing". These "life worlds" come close to what Freire [2] emphasises by referring to the "readings of the world." These readings, which precede the reading of words, were guided by women in their dialogues about daily life. Poorly educated, they had the handicraft production collectives as a possibility of knowledge and income generation. Also considering that "no one

2 Paulo Freire's life and work were marked by his clear choice to be on the side of the oppressed. Born in a poor region of Brazil: Recife, Pernambuco, in 1921, he could, from an early age, observe the survival difficulties of the disadvantaged classes. Perhaps from this came his indignation against injustice and his great desire: the transformation of society which, according to him, should be less authoritarian, discriminatory and unequal. [...]Because he dared to put into practice a methodology capable not only of instructing the reading and writing of the illiterate, or literacy acquirers, as he preferred to call them, but also of inciting their liberation, Freire was accused of subverting the order established [by the Military Regime] and, after arrest, had to leave the country to follow the path of exile. [...] After 16 years of exile, Paulo Freire returned to Brazil in 1980. He taught at major universities such as UNICAMP (State University of Campinas) and PUC/SP (Pontifical University of São Paulo) and gradually recognized and re-learned life in his country. [...]Paulo Freire won several awards around the world in recognition of the relevance of his work in the field of education. In April 1997, he released his last book, *Pedagogia da Autonomia: Saberes necessários à prática educativa* [Pedagogy of Autonomy: Knowledge Required for Educational Practice], and in May the same year, after suffering a heart attack, Paulo Freire passed away. In 2012, through Law 12,612 of April 13, 2012, proposed by Representative Luíza Erundina, Paulo Freire was declared Patron of Brazilian Education. (Retrieved from: https://www.paulofreire.org/paulo-freire-patrono-da-educacao-brasileira).

reads the world isolatedly" (Passos 2008, p. 241), it is possible to infer that there are "as many worlds as possible readings of it" (Passos 2008, p. 242). We find resonance in this statement when we dialogue with the group of women.

Here, we understand "world" based on what Balduíno Andreola points out by describing that

Freire relates the category world to: nature, culture, history, existence, consciousness, work, transformative action, word and praxis, concepts through which he tries to make explicit: reading the world – reading the word, the foundation of all literacy and all education (Andreola 2008, p. 288).

To us, "life worlds" is related to what Wivian Weller (2003, p. 1) highlights, based on Karl Mannheim, about "worldview" which, as she reminds us, is "[...] a series of experiences linked to the same structure which, in turn, constitutes the common basis of the experiences that pervade the lives of multiple individuals "(Weller 2003, p. 2). Which more closely denotes what Freire calls "reading the world". Still concerning this issue, Weller points out that worldviews "[...] are built from practical actions and belong to the field that Mannheim defined as *a*theoretical knowledge" (Weller 2003, p. 2). In other words, there is implicit, not always systematised knowledge in the ways of seeing the world, and the role of the researcher is to find ways to access and name this knowledge in the groups he/she aims to research, thus contributing to these knowledge systematisation processes according to the interests of the collective. In the case of Mannheim, cited by Weller (2003, 2005), we can understand the concern with empirical social research. In our case, because we are pedagogues, we direct our analysis to understanding empirical pedagogical research that results in elements to advance the comprehension of ways of teaching and learning in lower-class groups.

The worldviews we found in our empirical pedagogical research were organized through interactions which, as we analyse today, after ten years, provided deeper insight on a group of women based on social constraints and on their historical contingencies. Through their individualities and peculiarities, in addition to the different knowledge that each one demonstrated to have, we were able to systematise the ways of teaching and learning, as well as conceptions about both.

Such views, manifested in the dialogues between these women, were therefore based on the daily experiences of each of them in their communities, in their daily movements to overcome social conditions. They did not always take the time to reflect on these events and actions, but their conduct and forms of argumentation brought up these experiences. According to Freire (1997, p. 82), in this case, "our mind [...] in the spontaneous orientation we make in the world does not operate epistemologically. It is not critically, inquisitively, methodically, rigorously directed to the world or to the objects it focuses on."

He nonetheless values such experiences as fundamental to life in community and, beyond that, as essential for educational projects that aim to contribute to the acquisition of meaningful learning that is transformed into emancipatory processes. To Freire, experiential knowledge lacks criticality. "[...] It is the naïve, common-sense wisdom, disarmed of rigorous methods of approaching the object, however, not for this reason can we or should we disregard it" (Freire 1997, p. 82). The author points out that only by starting from common sense can we overcome it. Likewise, it is our view that the analysis of this knowledge generates questions and reflections not only for the women who manifest them,

but also for those who research and, consequently, for the procedures that guide field research.

Through this path, the collective and manual work amidst a study in the field of Education sought to establish simultaneity, an element that is seldom visible or debated in academic contexts, in order to bring together places and experiences arising from non-formality (Eggert 2017), which is quite common in the lives of these women. We believe these experiences with non-formality have been a fruitful teaching and learning time that enabled these women to somehow continue to resist oppression. It is the recognition of the potential of teaching and learning in different spaces and times, performed by people without an academic or school background. Moreover, these are ways of thinking that problematise and provoke reflections on traditional Youth and Adult Education methodologies.[3]

Simultaneous Dialogues and the Systematisation Mandala

In our research experiences with craft-producing groups, we noted that in order to structure our empirical findings, we would have to adapt collection and systematisation techniques in order to perform data analysis and interpretation. Hermetically structured strategies would be insufficient to deal with the experiences that are usually involved in researching working youths and adults. Thus, we began to outline possibilities for meetings that fostered participation while allowing for reorganisation according to present demands. We called *learning webs* the methodology designed for both groups.

In the first one, which we called the *hand weaving loom* group, there was an average of four artisan women at an atelier located in the city of Alvorada, in the metropolitan area of Porto Alegre, capital of the state of Rio Grande do Sul (Brazil). Dialogue interviews took place during the weaving of pieces. The artisans told the researchers about their processes and their stories and, at a certain point in the study, were invited to form two discussion groups inspired by the documentary method of Ralf Bohnsack, which was reread in Brazil by Wivian Weller and Nicole Pfaff (2013). In this group, participant research was a key element since the first meeting, held in 2007, and continued in the involvement of the artisan group when it accepted to hold weaving courses for Pedagogy students from 2010 onwards, apart from just providing information on how they produced their pieces. The dynamics with this group took place mostly in the weaving atelier, where we and the artisans planned some activities in which they visited schools and universities to present their work. We

3 In Brazil, until the 1988 Constitution, adult literacy was the task of well-meaning people who engaged in government campaigns or in NGO initiatives for eradicating Adult illiteracy in the country in the long term. According to Fischer and Godinho (2014), the National Education Guidelines and Framework Law 9394/96 extinguished *Ensino Supletivo* [Supplementary Education], which was meant to provide education for those who could not go to school or who had done so for a short period but, for several reasons, dropped out. In order to overcome the idea of supplementary education, which was provided through faster, simplified programmes, Youth and Adult Education was implemented and recognised as an education modality. Its proposition was that youth and adult programmes should recognise this public's specific features, including their work experience, and play three roles: to repair the previously denied right to basic education; to equalise learning of scientific and technological knowledge, even if through a late access to it; and to guarantee lifelong education for all Brazilian citizens (training role).

identified perceptions that these women built about their work and their lives, and systematised them over the meetings, which cannot be considered simply as data collection through questions and answers, because, as Brandão and Streck (2006) argue, knowledge sharing is one of the founding characteristics of participant research. Thus, we proposed for them to be both *teachers and students*, since they taught and learned in a dialogue with the other women in their production group, as well as with researchers, students and faculty.

The research on craft production in the *staple crochet* group was carried out in a more fluctuating way, through a proposal in the form of intervention which involved organizing a collective of women to learn the *staple crochet* technique. Women were invited to the meetings, and the field research took place from 2008 to 2010. The meetings were held weekly, and attendance varied from six to thirty women, in the urban area of the municipality of Rio Grande, in the south of the state Rio Grande do Sul (Brazil) as said earlier. During the conduction of this group, the *staple crochet* technique was chosen as the sole production method for collective learning. The researcher sought to organise the weekly meetings according to the number of women attending them. What we noted at first was that the technique of collecting information through dialogue required a different organisation depending on the number of women present.

The initial idea: whose execution was not fully possible, was that, in a group of up to six women, a learning web would be held in which each woman would be represented by a letter: W1, W2, W3, W4, W5 and W6. Thus, the web would be formed so that each woman could share with others what they brought to the group as knowledge. For example, W1 teaches W2, W3, W4, W5, and W6, and likewise, W2 teaches what she knows to W1, W3, W4, W5, and W6, and so on, thus forming a learning web. After establishing this, each group would have its own rotation, based on the composition of its web, thus ensuring the participation of each woman as a teacher and as a learner. In addition, a rotation between subgroups would be proposed when more women were present, so as to allow for multiple meeting possibilities. This dynamic was meant for all women to participate in different positions, not always as learners, not always as teachers, thus contributing to rotation. However, we found that the women insistently said they had nothing to share with the others.

Therefore, without abandoning the learning web, i.e., spaces for constant dialogue between women to learn and teach collectively, we adopted the formation of a large group, regardless of the number of women, always around a table, like the Popular Culture Circles.[4] Thus, they could see their own production among the others, besides facilitating, through the positioning of their bodies, dialogue and fraternisation. Carlos Rodrigues Brandão (2008) points out that when Paulo Freire questions the "banking" concept of educating, he proposes cultural circles in which people can share their experiences and knowledge around a circle of people. Thus, no one occupies a visibly prominent place. Therefore, "[...] dialogue ceases to be a simple methodology or a technique of group action to become the guideline itself..." (Brandão 2008, p. 77).

4 The Popular Culture Circles were developed during the 1960's and 1970's in different parts of Brazil, through activities that contained ideas and propositions by Paulo Freire and by groups whose worldviews sought the emancipation of the people. The Popular Culture Movement (MCP) had its first National Meeting in 1961. Leôncio Soares and Osmar Fávero (2009) wrote a study that systematized the whole history of it.

Starting from the intentionality of the dialogue with women, we thought of strategies for establishing of the *staple crochet* group that would enhance collectivity. The presence of a craft teacher who mastered the technique became essential. In view of this demand, a woman was invited who was recognised by others as a knowledge authority in the are,a and who could share her knowledge with them in the proposed circle around the table. Thus, there was a significant change in the way the group was conducted, regardless of the number of women present. Even with a small number or with the full group, which ranged from six to thirty women, the craft teacher was responsible for starting the proposition of the day by talking to all of them, who were organised around a large table or divided in small groups according to their interests. Learning focused on *staple crochet*, but at the same time, some women said they wanted to learn other techniques they considered simpler, before moving on to *staple*, which they considered more complex. Sometimes the craft teacher would ask women with experience in teaching crafts to help leading the group so as to share the teaching and enhance learning. The women who learned *staple crochet* attached great importance to the models, i.e., pieces produced by the teacher which served as an inspiration to them. In addition to the models, handicraft magazines represented teaching material to be followed, as they illustrated mastery of the technique which would later allow them to creatively advance to more independent production.

The Mandala of Possibilities

The mandala image was intended to be a representation of what was said by the women attending the *staple crochet* group. As said earlier, considering the number of women and how they related to each other in this environment where they gathered to teach and learn handicraft production techniques, the presence of working instrument noises or parallel talks made literal transcription and speaker identification difficult. The mandala, in turn, was formed by nonlinear syntheses interconnected with each other, and allowed the inclusion of silences. Thus, in this approach, each group or set of groups had its mandala of possibilities.

In the research experience presented here, we began to construct the figure by the element at center of the mandala, formed by the theme that pervaded dialogues and practices with greatest emphasis (Figure 5). We started from the idea that this central theme should also be identified, during the research activity, as an aggregator of the analysis elements and thematic axes. Therefore, we constructed a mandala to systematise the dialogue produced in the *staple crochet* group, in which the central theme was *ancestry* (Cunha, 2010), considering these women's experiences with their Afro-Brazilian origin in a context of Azorean colonisation.

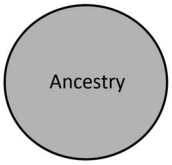


Figure 5. The mandala's central core

Analysis elements linked to this central theme emerged as a result of it while having also been originated from the theoretical studies that founded our research practice (Figure 6). Ancestry, in this example, is linked to five motion-generating elements in the mandala: corporeality (Gomes 2003a, 2003b, 2006), sensitivity (Josso 2004, 2006), health promotion (Werneck, Mendonça & White 2000), aesthetic care (Eggert 2003, 2004) and emancipatory processes (Freire 1981, 2006; Moreira 2008).

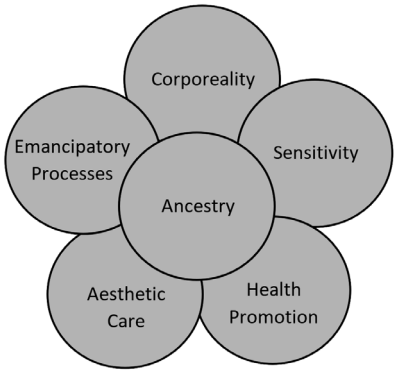


Figure 6. The mandala's central core and analysis elements

The mandala comprised the syntheses of talks, which were produced after we carefully listened to the audios and videos and reread the photographic records and notes in the field diary. These syntheses were placed close to the analysis elements they adhered to, grouped into three thematic axes and represented by coloured circles.[5] The analysis elements, thematic axes and syntheses were not randomly juxtaposed. Both were designed as agreed to in the group, and were organised to represent the dialogues that emerged.

The first set of circles represented the thematic axis *being a woman* (Figure 7). A series of syntheses linked to it and briefly mentioned here were produced from the talks of the women who participated in the *staple crochet* group; according to them, the craft and the group allowed a relationship between them and a care of the self.

5 Due to editorial contingencies, the Journal will print the central parts in darker shades of gray, and each circle will have a hue, but you are invited to read with the commitment of imagining a colored mandala with the following colors: the core with the word 'ancestry' and the analysis elements: corporeality, sensitivity, health promotion, aesthetic care and emancipatory processes, in different shades of lilac. The next circles, which correspond to axes "being a woman", "autonomy" and "teaching and learning" should be imagined in green, red and purple, respectively. This is how the conversation produced with the women was made visible, and it can be seen in Cunha's doctoral thesis (2010).

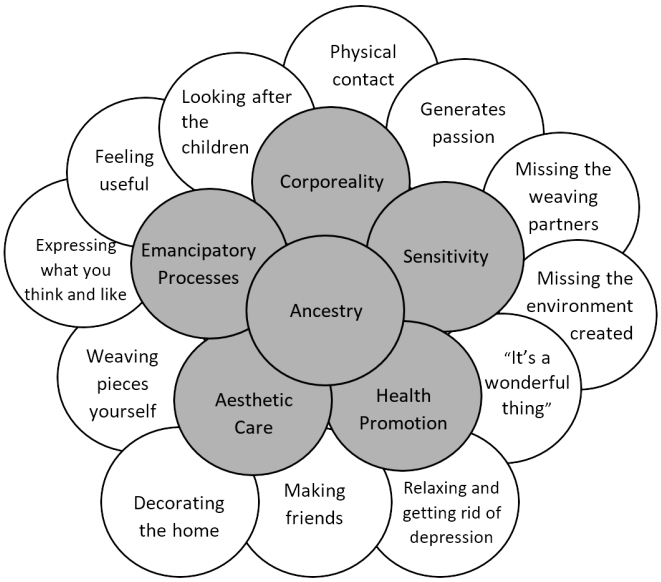


Figure 7. The mandala's central core and analysis elements, and the syntheses in the axis **being a woman**

According to the proposed design, ancestry is linked to corporeality, which in turn is closely intertwined with physical contact (between bodies) and the possibility of making handicrafts while looking after their children. In the researched group, such connections were possible even initially, when the women kept some distance between themselves, and grew stronger as they discovered the positive effects of sharing knowledge in the group, beyond what they were taught by the teacher. The influence between them, with positive and encouraging expressions, generated other images about themselves that reflected in their bodies. They came closer to each other and, likewise, praised each other with more affective, proud and receptive body postures, exchanging hugs and affection. The tasks of looking after their children conditioned the daily lives of most of them to routines aimed at the care of young children. We observed that the need to share care tasks was not recognised by their families, especially their partners and sometimes themselves. Thus, their bodies also bore the marks and consequences of doing all housework and child care. The synthesis *feeling useful* was placed next to the analysis element *emancipatory processes*, because, in the researched group, this was so read by the older women, whose bodies were marked by time and therefore had some physical limitations regarding some activities. Participation in a handicraft group, however, made them regain a certain type of protagonist role. The passion, generated by the possibility of making the pieces was manifested in the body through the joy and contentment about their production, and they became connected to the sensitivity provided by the awakening of good feelings about themselves and the group. Becoming passionate about handicraft expanded towards a passion for the group members, for themselves and for the collectivity itself.

The second set of circles presents the thematic axis *autonomy* (Figure 8). We included some empty spaces, i.e., moments of silence in which we could not identify syntheses that might represent what happened while they were producing together. In the talk syntheses, we noticed that the women recognized the beauty of their production and awakened their creativity, and because they became able to produce at home while looking after their children, they achieved some *autonomy*. It is also worth highlighting that this *autonomy* included *income generation* and the possibility of *reducing spending on clothing*, considering that several of the women were responsible for family support or for managing their families' finances.

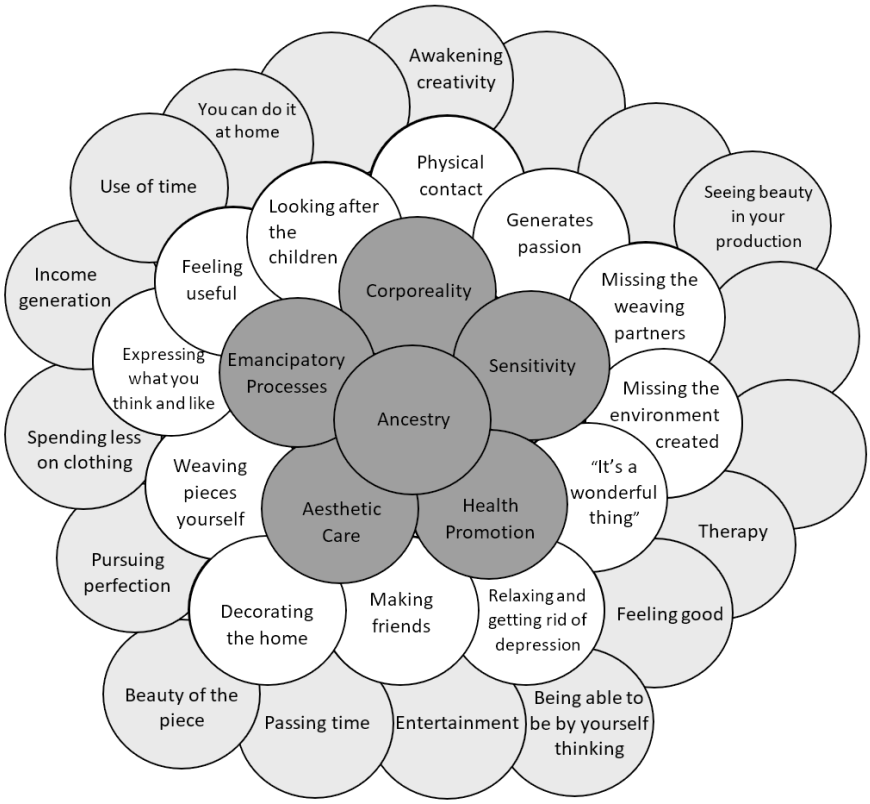


Figure 8. The mandala's central core and analysis elements, the syntheses in the axis **being a woman**, the syntheses in the axis **autonomy**, and silences

The third set of circles presents the thematic axis *learning and teaching* (Figure 9). As the women learned and taught, they overcame the technical difficulties in *staple crochet*. The craft mode was progressively experimented and enhanced. The syntheses *arousing curiosity* and *overcoming learning difficulties* demonstrated the encouragement they gave and received, which made them experience the achievement of completing a piece. It seems to us that their artisanal production was only possible through the direct contact that the teacher encouraged and allowed to happen between them. Another aspect to be highlighted was certainly the change in the body posture of women who no longer saw themselves as those

who did not know anything. On the contrary, by the overcoming learning difficulties, the desire to always learn more also emerged in them and, according to them, served as encouragement to their children, who had them as role models.

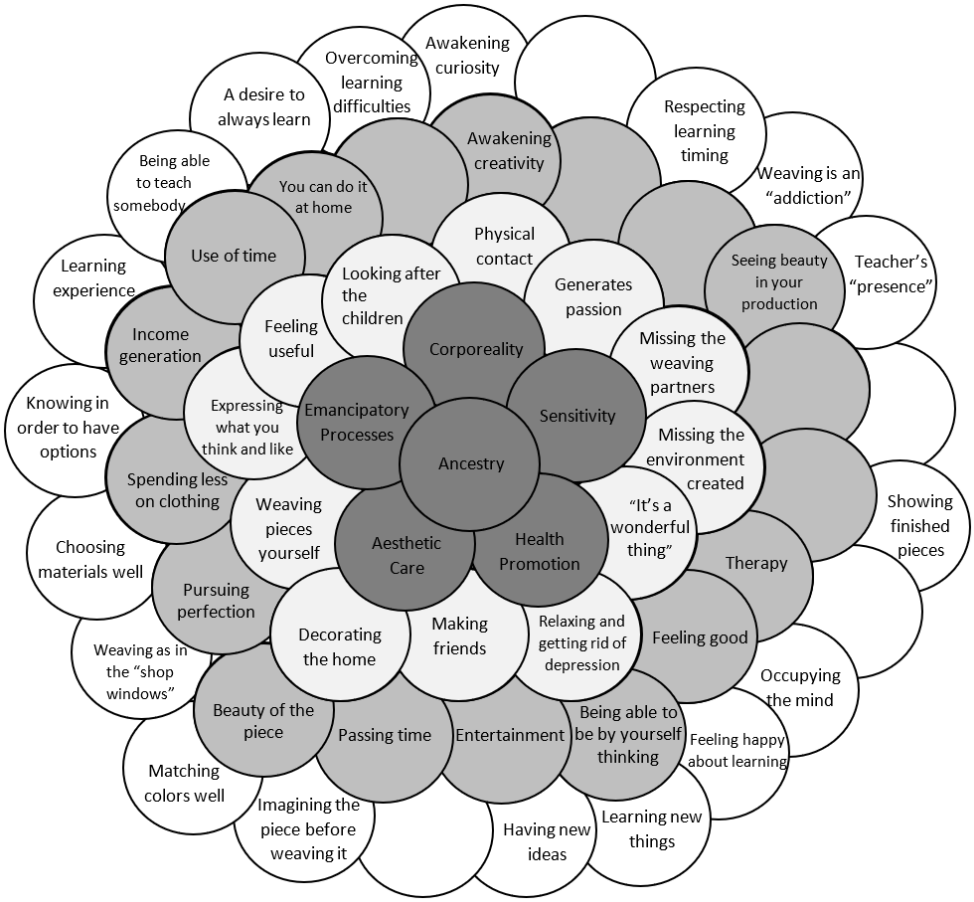


Figure 9. The mandala's central core and analysis elements, the syntheses in the axis the **being a woman**, the syntheses in the axis **autonomy**, the syntheses in the axis **teaching and learning**, and silences.

Thus, we identified the relationship between the syntheses, the thematic axes of each set of mandala circles and the analysis elements that were central to its constitution. The element *corporeality*, for example, in the axis *being a woman*, was linked to *physical contact* and *looking after the children*. With regard to *autonomy*, it was linked to *awakening creativity*, silences (empty spaces) and other syntheses, in a secondary way. Creativity in the experience of this group was closely linked to close contact with each other. It was through ways of teaching from body to body and with exclusive attention that craft teachers and peers encouraged

and contributed to the stimulation and creativity of those who learned, thus arousing curiosity to learn other craft techniques. The silences also represented some secrets that, according to the women, guaranteed a differential in their products (what is not revealed becomes exclusive in the pieces they produce) or, even, that which could not be captured. Certainly, other experiences would generate other elements, other syntheses, and new connections. However, our goal in outlining this experience with the *staple crochet* group was to present a data systematisation alternative that was not linearly organised, considering that groups are plural and dynamic. The figure represented by a mandala also seeks to create such a representation, and we are aware that, besides silences, other themes and syntheses can be added to it without the need to guarantee a fixed number of records. The mandala can be expanded according to groups' needs.

Final Considerations

The interpretation of the methodological processes in the production of manual experiences, according to our observations, showed that what the women were making and thinking became emblematic when, in the interpellations between the researchers and artisans, accounts emerged that demonstrated a sharp critical sense of their experiences and an outlining of ways of teaching and learning that pervaded knowledge derived from non-formality. Based on our research experiences with women, we address in these reflections the methodological choice whose principle was the simultaneity of dialogue and artisanal production, resuming forms of organisation and systematisation of experiences produced over the last ten years. Because we focused on these experiences, it became essential to detach from the traditional form of data collection through semi-structured interviews, whether individually or in group, from which accounts would be later represented and finally analysed.

The worldviews and knowledge that each woman brought to the groups we interacted with confronted us with the reality of experience, combined with academic knowledge that links us to feminist studies, Freirean studies and participant research. Each of these fields allowed articulations with researching in Education and Pedagogy, in the pursuit of a careful look at the condition of being a black, poor and peripheral woman in Brazil. In addition, we paid close attention of the fact that these are poorly educated women, which drove us to think about their experiences and aspects related to their autonomy, and to outline teaching and learning processes in non-school spaces. In such spaces, those who teach do not have systematised pedagogical knowledge; rather, they start from their experiences and the attention given to the group of learners so as to outline strategies in order to achieve the learning goals that pervade the collective. This way of researching, i.e., with women and not about them, generated the need to learn and teach within the group. We found that the peculiarities of each collective were significant for us to find similarities and differences in the ways of conducting and systematising experiences.

In the group of weavers that we call the *hand weaving loom*, i.e., the artisan women who produced pieces for sale, the experience of promoting a displacement from their apprentice position to that of teachers was significant. Interacting with groups of higher education students who showed an interest in their weaving in the sense of recognising it as an

object of knowledge promoted other meanings for their daily tasks, which they previously viewed only as manual, non-intellectual work..

In the case of the women in the *staple crochet* group, which is the main object of this article, their initial talks often expressed the conviction that they had nothing to teach one another; the researcher was thus faced with the need to change the schedule so as to start from a more hermetic learning web in order to promote a wider rotation in knowledge exchange. The women demonstrated that it was possible to learn in other ways, even though a central figure (the craft teacher) was necessary so that they could later feel authorised to share knowledge. They resumed the importance of models, which they did not view as something to be eternally followed, but rather something to inspire them to dedicate to new learning and possibilities of making handicraft pieces. Far more than a standard, the model provided the security they needed to enter the new.

The mandala of possibilities, which was built from the dialogue with the artisan women in the *staple crochet* group, allowed us to analyse a larger spectrum of the talks that emerged at the meetings, while highlighting elements that were also inspired by the theoretical-methodological framework adopted. Paying attention to the women's talks and promoting wider sharing spaces; recognising and valuing their worldviews so as to seek reflections about them based on dialogue; and providing spaces that guaranteed the women's place of speech, as well as listening to their aspirations, strengthened new views of themselves that generated changes in different dimensions of their daily lives. Recognszing themselves as someone who can learn, valuing the collectivity and adopting new attitudes towards new knowledge are some of these changes.

We can see that the weaving produced with this group was not enough to achieve the emancipatory processes they might pursue (to overcome family and domestic violence, to have financial independence, to advance their education, for example), but we realized that, during the meetings, there was knowledge sharing and the possibility of learning and teaching. In addition, the autonomous completion of a piece was enchanting, with the beauty of the work done. This generated a humanising experience for these women. In the academic field, moreover, we were able to experiment with this encounter with pedagogies conducted by poorly educated women, and advances were achieved in the forms of systematising and recording these collective experiences.

The alternatives we found in both researched groups for systematising findings were possible through dialogue between the women. The way we found to record what was listened to provoked new reflections while making it possible to recognise, as said earlier, ways of teaching and learning from the world of poorly educated artisan women. These findings are relevant for studies on Youth and Adult Education, especially regarding teaching projects designed for this modality. The more horizontal relations in the empirical research process allow, in this case, the dialogical construction that produces the recognition of knowledge produced while handicrafts were made.

References

Andreola B. (2008). Mundo. In D. R. Streck, E. Redin, & J. J. Zitkoski. *Dicionário Paulo Freire* (pp. 287-288). Belo Horizonte: Autêntica.

Azevedo L. X. (2012). *O Design e as Políticas de Apoio Ao Artesanato: Um Estudo de caso sobre a relação de patrocínio do grupo Teares Alegria pela Caixa Econômica Federal* (Dissertação de Mestrado em Design). Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Recife, Brasil. Retrieved from https://repositorio.ufpe.br/bitstream/123456789/11476/1/ texto%20da%20lucyana.pdf

Baptista E. H. (2004). *A imagética rural na estrutura do design têxtil* (Monografia do Curso de especialização em Design de Estamparia). Universidade Federal de Santa Maria, Santa Maria, Brasil.

Brandão C. R., & Streck D. R. (2006). *Pesquisa Participante: o saber da partilha*. Aparecida: Idéias e Letras.

Brandão C. R. (2008). "Círculos de Cultura." In D. R. Streck, E. Redin, & J. J. Zitkoski. *Dicionário Paulo Freire* (pp. 76-78). Belo Horizonte: Autêntica.

Cândido L. A. (2015). *Design estratégico e artesanato: estudo da organização histórias na garagem* (Dissertação de Mestrado em Design). Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos, São Leopoldo, Brasil. Retrieved from http://repositorio.jesuita.org.br/bitstream/handle/UNISINOS/3815/Luciane%20Aparecida%20C%c3%a2ndido.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Cunha A. L. (2010). *Histórias em múltiplos fios: o ensino de manualidades entre mulheres negras em Rio Grande (RS – Brasil) e Capitán Bermúdez (Sta. Fe – Argentina) (re)inventando pedagogias da não-formalidade ou das tramas complexas* (Tese de Doutorado em Educação). Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos, São Leopoldo, Brasil.

Cunha A. L., & Eggert E. (2011). "O ensino do crochê de grampada como possibilidade emancipatória para mulheres negras em Rio Grande, RS". In E. Eggert. (Org.), *Processos educativos no fazer artesanal de mulheres do Rio Grande do Sul* (pp. 60-76, 1. ed.). Santa Cruz do Sul: EDUNISC.

Eggert E. (1998). *Educa-teologiza-ção: fragmentos de um discurso teológico (mulheres em busca de visibilidade através da narrativa transcriada)* (Tese de Doutorado em Teologia). Faculdades EST, São Leopoldo, Brasil.

Eggert E. (2003). *Educação popular e teologia das margens* (v. 21). São Leopoldo: Sinodal.

Eggert E. (2004). "domÉsTICO: espaços e tempos para as mulheres reconhecerem seus corpos e textos." In M. Ströer, W. Deifelt, & A. Musskopf (Orgs.), *À flor da pele* (pp. 225-244). São Leopoldo: Editora Sinodal.

Eggert E. (2011). *Processos educativos no fazer artesanal de Mulheres do Rio Grande do Sul*. 1. ed. Santa Cruz do Sul: EDUNISC.

Eggert E. (2017). "Women Weavers Recognizing Their Craftwork." *Gender a výzkum / Gender and Research*, 18, 78-95. doi: 10.13060/25706578.2017.18.2.372

Ferreira T. L. (2017). *Criação de moda sustentável: desenvolvimento de uma coleção de roupas utilizando o conceito Upcycling e a técnica de crochê* (Trabalho de Conclusão do Curso de Design). Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Caruaru, Brasil. Retrieved from https://repositorio.ufpe.br/handle/123456789/31713

Fischer M. C. B., & Godinho A. C. F. (2014). "Trabalho, Educação e Emancipação Humana: A afirmação da EJA como direito." *Arquivos Analíticos de Políticas Educativas*, *22*(65). doi: 10.14507/epaa.v22n65.2014

Freire P. (1981). *Ação cultural para a liberdade e outros escritos* (5. ed.). Rio de Janeiro: Paz e Terra.

Freire P. (1997). *Professora sim, tia não: cartas a quem ousa ensinar*. São Paulo: Editora Olho D'água. Retrieved from http://forumeja.org.br/files/Professorasimtianao.pdf

Freire P. (2006). *Pedagogia do Oprimido* (45. ed.). Rio de Janeiro: Paz e Terra.

Gaskell, G. (2002). Entrevistas Individuais e Grupais. In M. W. Bauer, & G. Gaskell. *Pesquisa Qualitativa com texto, imagem e som: um manual prático* (5. ed., pp. 64-89). Petrópolis: Vozes.

Gattaz A. C. (1996). "Lapidando a fala bruta: a textualização em história oral." In J. C. Meihy (Org.), *(Re)introduzindo história oral no Brasil* (pp. 135-140). São Paulo: Editora Xamã.

Gomes N. L. (2003a). "Educação, identidade negra e formação de professores/as: um olhar sobre o corpo negro e o cabelo crespo." *Educação e Pesquisa*, *29*(1), 167-182. doi: 10.1590/S1517-97022003000100012

Gomes N. L. (2003b). *Corpo e cabelo como símbolos da identidade negra*. Retrieved from http://www.rizoma.ufsc.br/pdfs/641-of1-st1.pdf

Gomes N. L. (2006). *Sem perder a raiz: corpo e cabelo como símbolos da identidade negra*. Belo Horizonte: Autêntica.

Josso M. C. (2004). *Experiências de vida e formação*. São Paulo: Cortez.

Josso M. C. (2006). "As figuras de ligação nos relatos de formação: ligações formadoras, deformadoras e transformadoras." *Educação e Pesquisa*, *32*(2), 373-383. doi: 10.1590/S1517-97022006000200012

Júnior L. E., & Junger A. P. (2009). "O lado turístico de Guarapari: tradições e cultura". *Pesquisa em Debate*, 1-16. Retrieved from http://www.pesquisaemdebate.net/docs/ pesquisaEmDebate_especial1/artigo_16.pdf

Lagarde y de los Rios M. (2005). *Los cautiverios de las mujeres: madresposas, monjas, putas, presas y locas* (4. ed., 884 p.). Coyoacán: Universidad Nacional Autônoma de México.

Montemezzo E. L. F., & Cunha A. L. (2013). "Estágio de docência na Educação de Jovens e Adultos: conhecimentos tramados na prática dialógica." *Anais do Salão de Pesquisa da Faculdades EST*, São Leopoldo, Brasil, 12. Retrieved from http://www.anais.est.edu.br/ index.php/salao/article/view/205/163

Moreira C. E. (2008). "Emancipação." In D. R. Streck, E. Redin, & J. J. Zitkoski. *Dicionário Paulo Freire* (pp. 163-164). Belo Horizonte: Autêntica.

Passos L. A. (2008). "Leitura do Mundo". In D. R. Streck, E. Redin, & J. J. Zitkoski. *Dicionário Paulo Freire* (pp. 240-242). Belo Horizonte: Autêntica.

Rufino S. E. (2018). *Fazer artesanal: reconstrução da identidade e ressocialização de detentas da Casa Prisional de Dom Pedrito/RS* (Trabalho de Conclusão do Curso de Licenciatura em Educação do Campo). Unipampa, Dom Pedrito, Brasil. Retrieved from http://dspace.unipampa.edu.br:8080/jspui/bitstream/riu/3984/1/SANDRA%20ELISA%20VAZ%20TIMM%20RUFINO.pdf

Soares L., & Fávero O. (Orgs.). (2009). *I Encontro Nacional de Alfabetização e Cultura Popular*. Brasília: Ministério da Educação, Secretaria de Educação Continuada, Alfabetização e Diversidade, UNESCO.

Webster M. R. (1997). *Técnicas e possibilidades*. Porto Alegre: Editora MR Webster Atelier Tecelagem.

Weller W. (2003, abril). "Hip hop em São Paulo e Berlim: orientações político-culturais de jovens negros e jovens de origem turca." *Anais do Seminário Internacional 'Educação Intercultural, Gênero E Movimentos Sociais – Identidade, Diferenças E Mediações'*, Florianópolis, Brasil, 2.

Weller W. (2005). "A contribuição de Karl Mannheim para a pesquisa qualitativa: aspectos teóricos e metodológicos." *Revista Sociologias*, 13, 260-300. doi: 10.1590/S1517-45222005000100011

Weller W. (2006). "Grupos de discussão na pesquisa com adolescentes e jovens: aportes teórico-metodológicos e análise de uma experiência com o método" *Educação e Pesquisa*, 32 (2). doi: 10.1590/S1517-97022006000200003

Weller W., & Pfaff, N. (Orgs.). (2013). *Metodologias da Pesquisa Qualitativa em Educação: Teoria e Prática* (3. ed.). Petrópolis: Vozes.

Werneck J., Mendonça, M., & White E. C. (Orgs.). (2000). *O livro da saúde das mulheres negras: nossos passos vêm de longe*. Rio de Janeiro: Pallas Criola.

About the authors

Aline Lemos da Cunha Della Libera holds a Pedagogy Degree (Federal University of Rio Grande), a Master's Degree in Education (Federal University of Pelotas) and a Ph.D. in Education (University of Vale do Rio dos Sinos). She is a professor in the Youth and Adult Education section, Department of Specialized Studies, School of Education, Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul.

Edla Eggert holds a Pedagogy Degree (University of Santa Catarina Plateau), a Master's Degree in Education (Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul) and a Ph.D. in Theology (Higher School of Theology). She is a professor at the School of Humanities of the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul (PUC-RS) and a Coordinator for the Graduate Program in Education of PUC-RS.

Authors' addresses
Aline Lemos da Cunha Della Libera
Av. Paulo da Gama, s/n – Building 12201 – Office 506
Farroupilha District. CEP: 90040-060
Porto Alegre – RS – Brazil
E-mail: alinefaced@gmail.com

Edla Eggert
Av. Ipiranga, 6681 – Building 8 – Office 403
Partenon District. CEP: 90619-900.
Porto Alegre – RS – Brazil.
E-mail: edla.eggert@gmail.com

Second language teachers' reasons for doing/not doing action research in their classrooms

Vahid Rahmani Doqaruni, Behzad Ghonsooly, Reza Pishghadam

Abstract
This study aims to explore the extent to which Iranian teachers do research, and their reasons for doing so in the English as a foreign language context, with a special emphasis on action research (AR). The present study used a mixed methods design, i.e. questionnaire and interview, to gain a richer understanding of the teachers' reasons for doing AR. The participants were 65 English teachers from 5 private English language teaching institutions. Despite the fact that many teachers in the present study considered AR useful in solving their immediate teaching problems and improving their teaching practices, the analysis of the teachers' reasons showed that there are serious barriers in the way of conducting AR which are in nature practical (lack of time), logistic (not having enough knowledge and support), and attitudinal (teachers believe that their job is only to teach).

Key Words: teacher research engagement, teachers' reasons, action research, mixed methods design, questionnaire, interview

Razones de los profesores de segundo idioma para hacer/no hacer investigación-acción en sus aulas

Resumen
Este estudio tiene como objetivo explorar en qué medida los maestros iraníes realizan investigación y sus razones para hacerlo en el contexto del inglés como idioma extranjero con un énfasis especial en la Investigación-Acción (IA). El presente estudio utilizó un diseño de métodos mixtos, es decir, cuestionario y entrevista, para obtener una mejor comprensión de las razones de los maestros para hacer IA. Los participantes fueron 65 profesores de inglés de 5 instituciones privadas de enseñanza de inglés. A pesar del hecho de que muchos maestros, en el presente estudio, consideraron que la IA es útil para resolver sus problemas de enseñanza inmediatos y mejorar sus prácticas de enseñanza, el análisis de las razones de los profesores mostró que existen serias barreras en la forma de conducir la IA que son de naturaleza práctica (falta de tiempo), logísticas (no tienen suficiente conocimiento y apoyo) y actitudinales (los docentes creen que su trabajo es solo enseñar).

Palabras clave: compromiso de investigación docente, razones de los profesores, investigación-acción, diseño de métodos mixtos, cuestionario, entrevista.

Introduction

One central argument supporting a drive to make teachers more engaged in educational research is that when teachers do research and make pedagogical decisions based on their own research findings, they can make more informed and evidence-based decisions (Borg 2007, 2009, 2010). Consequently, these decisions will beneficially affect both teaching and learning (Hargreaves 2001). Another main reason underlying this drive has been that engaging teachers in research is considered essential for teachers' professional development (Borg 2010; McDonough 2006). In other words, doing research can empower teachers to better understand their work, encourage them to reflect on what they do, lead them to explore different avenues regarding new thoughts, and end up being more autonomous (e.g., Kirkwood & Christie 2006; Tinker Sachs 2000). On a personal level, conducting research has been found to have the capacity to fulfill an academic's curiosity and creativity (e.g., Akerlind 2008; Chen et al. 2006). On a professional level, it can raise professional status (e.g., Akerlind 2008; Borg 2003).

Stimulated by this interest in encouraging teachers to be research-engaged, an emergent strand of research has concentrated on looking at what reasons underlie and drive teacher research or vice versa discourage it (e.g., Allison & Carey 2007; Barkhuizen 2009; Borg 2007, 2008, 2009). The rationale for such work has been that activities to advance teacher research engagement will more probably succeed if they are based on an awareness of teachers' reasons for doing research. This success will in turn bridge the gap between the stakeholders in the field of second/foreign language (L2) education. Considering the importance of such an issue, Borg and Liu (2013, p. 296) state that,

It is essential that initiatives to promote teacher research engagement be informed by insights into such matters [teachers' current understandings of and attitudes towards research engagement]. This will, for example, allow discrepancies between institutional and teacher perspectives on research engagement to be identified and addressed.

Looking at the issue from a general perspective, this is of most extreme significance in light of the fact that "understanding what teachers do, how they do it, and *why they do it* is central to any effort at reshaping education policy around teacher education, teacher professional development, and school reform" (O'Connell Rust 2009, p. 1882; *emphasis added*).

In line with this general attitude toward investigating teachers' research engagement, this study aims to explore the extent to which Iranian teachers do research and their reasons for doing so in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context with a special emphasis on action research (AR). AR is specifically noteworthy as teachers are increasingly being encouraged to carry out small-scale research studies in their own classrooms, and to assume the role of a teacher-researcher (Atay 2006, 2008; Burns 2005b, 2010; Edwards & Burns 2016; McDonough 2006; Wyatt 2011).

Confusion may arise as in education the term *action research* is often used almost interchangeably with another term, i.e., *teacher research*. It should be noted that, however, there are important differences between these two terms. Teacher research refers to all kinds of school- and classroom-based research conducted by practitioners, and is an "inquiry that is intentional, systematic, public, voluntary, ethical, and contextual" (Mohr et al. 2004, p. 23). As a general term, teacher research includes many different methodologies

and contexts. In contrast, action research in its strict sense refers to research activities that use "cycles of planning, action, observation and reflection that problematise (in a positive sense) issues, dilemmas or gaps that concern us" (Burns 2010, p. 19) and attempts to make change in an organization, for example, a school.

AR has been theoretically studied and practically used by many different traditions, such as social movements, public health, psychology, management, and education. These different disciplines have looked at AR from their own perspective and have emphasised the learning and transformation power of AR. They have also praised the role of AR in the increase of quality in various settings. Despite such benefits, however, "what most approaches have in common is the idea that creating knowledge for change is essentially a *social and political process*, and that how this process is facilitated will shape the outcomes" (Pettit 2010, p. 821; *emphasis added*). In other words, despite their differences, most of these approaches and disciplines are still faithful to Kurt Lewin´s principal tenet which is about the relationship between AR and the larger panorama of society and its problems.

Considering the importance of AR in the field of L2 education, it is now an established belief that the process of AR, if conducted systematically and extensively, enables the construction of teacher-generated knowledge, thus empowering teachers as the creators and not just the holders of such knowledge (Avgitidou 2010; Edge 2001). Moreover, AR has been regarded favourably because it can help teachers develop in-depth perspectives about the process of teaching and learning (Lacorte & Krastel 2002). In addition, AR can help L2 teachers recognise the importance of learning how to seek answers to their questions (Tedick & Walker 1995), address and find solutions to particular problems in a specific teaching or learning situation (Hadley 2003), develop personal theories about L2 learning (Crookes, 1997), become autonomous (Tinker Sachs 2000), reduce gaps between academic research findings and practical classroom applications (Sayer 2005), and become familiar with research skills and enhance their knowledge of conducting research (Crookes & Chandler 2001). It is often considered as a potential way to encourage teachers' engagement in research and subsequently to bridge the gap between researchers and practitioners (Burns 2005b).

Saying this, it is not aimed to argue that teachers should be research-engaged; rather the point is that the decisions to be made about what is feasible and attainable in relation to language teachers' research engagement need to be based on empirical studies that we currently lack. Such studies can clarify teachers' viewpoints on the degree to which they are research-engaged, and the reasons behind being so (Borg 2007, 2008, 2009); needless to say that without a perception of such issues, thoughtful proposals about teacher research engagement in second language education cannot be made.

The present study thus aims to collect data relevant to the following questions:

1) To what extent do Iranian EFL teachers say they do AR?
2) Where teachers do AR, what are their reasons for engaging in this type of research?
3) Where teachers do not do AR, what reasons do they cite?

Literature review

Researchers have recently paid a special attention to the reasons which drive teacher research or vice versa impede it. Watkins (2006), for example, examined the factors which may prompt teachers to end up in conducting research. Her article aimed to present some first-hand observations from teachers in special education who had all been involved in teacher research projects. She highlighted a number of concepts including motivation, support, and professional learning based on her personal experiences that were then examined in relation to teachers' willingness and ability to engage in research. Teachers' views were obtained through semi-structured interviews with nine practicing teacher-researchers. Her study revealed that professional development was the teachers' primary motivation for getting involved in research. The other reasons included obtaining an outsider perspective toward the practice of teaching, finding out what other people are doing, seeing the practical relevance of research to classroom setting, developing research skills, and enjoying a research-type approach to teaching. Yet, some other teachers related their engagement in research to their involvement in higher education courses.

Borg (2007, 2008, 2009) also conducted a series of studies on teachers' perceptions of research in the field of L2 education. His more comprehensive study (Borg 2009) examined the conceptions of research held by 505 teachers of English from 13 countries around the world. His methodology consisted of questionnaire responses accompanied by follow-up interview data which aimed to reveal what teachers' views on research were. By and large, in explaining why they do research, teachers referred to intentions which were primarily personal, pedagogical, and professional, with much less emphasis on external drivers such as promotion and employer pressure. He found that the three main reasons for doing research were to find better ways of teaching, to solve problems in their teaching, and to enhance their professional development. In contrast, more instrumental motives such as employer expectations and promotion were less significant in teachers' responses. The main factor for not doing research was a lack of time; the next most common reason teachers mentioned for not doing research was that most of their colleagues were also not interested in doing research. A lack of knowledge about research was also considered an important factor in preventing teachers from conducting research. Moreover, some of the teachers contended that such activity was not part of their responsibility while some others stated that they were not intrigued by research.

Allison and Carey (2007) also investigated the views of teachers about research at a university language centre in Canada. A questionnaire was distributed to 22 teachers and 17 of them participated in the follow-up interviews. In line with the Borg's (2007, 2008, 2009) studies, the respondents of the study mentioned lack of time and time-consuming demands of teaching as an obstruction to conducting research. They also believed that immediate classroom needs had priority over any other activity such as research. However, in contrast to other studies (Borg 2007, 2008, 2009), teachers mentioned that they needed outside motivation to initiate and conduct research since research was not an obligatory activity for them. Collecting data through a narrative frame during a professional development programme in China which aimed to introduce teachers to qualitative research methods, Barkhuizen (2009) examined the research experiences of 83 teachers of English in Chinese

universities. In line with the previous studies (e.g., Allison & Carey 2007; Borg 2007, 2008, 2009), he found that time was a major factor preventing teachers from carrying out research. A second key constraint concerned teachers' impression of their ability to conduct research. Moreover, surprisingly, a number of the teachers in his study assumed that their students would not take an interest in participating in their research. However, his findings also reflected the dominance of practical and professional concerns as factors which motivated teachers to go through the task of doing research (e.g., motivating their students, improving teaching materials, and encouraging students to speak in class).

Gao et al. (2011) conducted a mixed methods study to find out about the research engagement of a group of primary English language school teachers in China. The researchers particularly focused on the teachers' conceptions of research and the contextual factors driving them to do research. They first administered a survey among the 33 teachers who had agreed to participate in their study and then, drawing on a preliminary analysis of the survey data, they invited participants to take part in the following focus-group interviews. The study revealed that the majority of teachers preferred the type of research involving experimental use of particular teaching methods in their classrooms with the goal of improving their own teaching and their students' learning. While it is an integral part of academic research to share research findings through publication, the teachers of this particular study did not consider writing for publication essential, although they mentioned other forms of research dissemination. Carrying out a study on Sudanese teachers' professionalization, Bashir (2011) tried to deal with the complexities of engaging in AR by providing explanations in different areas, one of them was teachers' beliefs of AR. In order to explore the principles and practices of AR, a workshop consisting of 25 teachers and 7 representatives from universities was held. The data obtained from the workshop discussions were analyzed and the results revealed that since AR was not part of the Sudanese teachers' institutional culture, they did not have any idea about AR. In addition, it was found that the teachers were mostly unwilling to do AR due to the absence of knowledge which was viewed as a basic element. Some other reasons for the scarcity of AR were also recognized, such as lack of time, work overload, and uncertainty about the adequacy of doing AR.

Methodology

Design and data types

In order to gain a rich understanding of the teachers' reasons for doing AR, the present study used a mixed methods design. Mixed methods designs incorporate both qualitative and quantitative elements in the design, data collection, and analysis (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). Quantitative and qualitative approaches are currently viewed as complementary rather than fundamentally incompatible in the fields of applied linguistics and second language acquisition, and, hence, more mixed methods research is recommended (Dornyei 2007; Hashemi 2012; Hashemi & Babaii 2013). Although integration has been described as difficult to achieve (Bryman 2007), the main attraction of mixed methods research lies in the fact that by using both quantitative and qualitative approaches researchers can bring out the best of both paradigms. This integration is further enhanced by the potential that the

strengths of one method can overcome the weaknesses of the other method used in the study (Dornyei 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). This overlap in turn leads to a better understanding of problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Garrett 2008).

The particular mixed methods design used in the present study is called "sequential explanatory strategy" by Creswell (2009). In his words, this is a design which "is characterised by the collection and analysis of quantitative data in a first phase of research followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in a second phase that builds on the results of the initial quantitative results" (p. 211). The questionnaire is the first part of this strategy which allows an extensive analysis of data but also acts as a kind of filter through which a smaller sample of participants will be identified for the subsequent interview phase of the study. The rationale behind this type of mixed methods research is that in spite of the fact that the questionnaire survey is an adaptable technique that helps to gather a large amount of data efficiently and quickly, it also suffers from the shallow respondents' engagement. In other words, it is difficult for the researcher to investigate complex meanings directly by using this technique alone (Dornyei 2007). It is believed that adding a subsequent interview component to the study can help the researcher to deal with this weakness. Each data type is described in detail in the following sections.

Questionnaire

The format of questionnaire used in this study is generally based on the questionnaire developed by Borg (2009). Borg's questionnaire has originally six sections which one of its sections (section 5) is used in this particular study due to its relevance (see Appendix). However, regarding the present study questionnaire, one point is worth noting. All of the words "research" in section 5 in the original questionnaire were changed to "action research" to reflect the aims of the present study. As Borg (2007) makes it clear, the lists of factors presented in section 5 in relation to why teachers do and do not do research "were informed by the discussion of these issues both in the ELT literature and outside" (p. 734). The questionnaire aimed to reveal the teachers' dedication to doing AR with the reasons behind.

Interview

A subgroup of teachers (n=22) were randomly chosen and invited to a semi structured interview to elaborate on their responses to the quantitative data. In total 17 teachers were actually interviewed, as the other five teachers declined to participate in the interview due to the lack of time. The aim of the interview was to get a better insight of the reasons for doing or not doing AR in the questionnaire. In this way, during the face-to-face interviews, teachers were requested to elaborate on their questionnaire responses; in particular they were asked about the reasons for their engagement/non-engagement in AR. Although there was a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the interviewees were encouraged to elaborate on their views and experiences of AR in an exploratory manner. Interviews lasted on average between 25 to 30 minutes and were audio recorded. Farsi (the teachers' native language) was used to help the participants feel more relaxed and speak more freely. All of the interviews were translated from Farsi into English and fully transcribed.

Participants

The participants were 83 Iranian teachers from 5 private English Language Teaching (ELT) institutions. They were all of the available and active English teaching staff in these institutions which had been recruited with the mission of teaching general English skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing). The institutions were located in a middle class part of the city of Mashhad, north-eastern Iran. The questionnaires in hard copy were given personally to the teachers in each institute from which 65 completed questionnaires (38 female and 27 male) were returned, representing a response rate of 78%. The respondents were homogeneous in several respects including their mother tongue (Farsi), second language education experience (EFL context), type of institution (private), the age of their learners (they were teaching mostly teenagers), years of teaching experience (the majority of teachers had less than 15 years of teaching experience) and relevant ELT qualification (most of them had bachelor's degree). Before administering the survey, consent was sought from the chair of each of the five institutions and all participants received information about the voluntary nature of the study with anonymity assured.

Tables 1 and 2 present the sample according to experience in ELT and qualifications relevant to ELT, respectively. As Table 1 shows, the majority of this sample of teachers (83%, n=54) had less than 15 years of ELT experience. Table 2 indicates that just over 18 per cent had postgraduate qualifications.

Table 1: Respondents by years of ELT experience

Years	N (%)
0-4	11 (16.9)
5-9	25 (38.5)
10-14	18 (27.7)
15-19	8 (12.3)
20+	3 (4.6)
Total	65 (100)

Table 2: Respondents by highest ELT qualification

Qualification	N (%)
Certificate	7 (10.8)
Bachelor's	46 (70.8)
Master's	12 (18.4)
Total	65 (100)

Findings

The survey focused on teachers' engagement in AR. Teachers were asked how often they did AR, if so, why, and if not, what the reasons for this were. 32% (the percentages are rounded to the nearest number) of the respondents said they did AR sometimes, while only 8% of them often did research. 45% of individuals reported never doing research and 15% rarely.

Reasons for doing action research

The 26 teachers who reported doing AR often or sometimes were asked to choose from a list of 9 reasons provided for doing so by selecting items from and suggesting other reasons if required. The findings are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3: Teachers' reasons for doing action research

Reasons for Doing Action Research	Frequency (%)
1) As part of a course I am studying on	2 (7.6)
2) Because I enjoy it	12 (46.1)
3) Because it is good for my professional development	5 (19.2)
4) Because it will help me get a promotion	9 (34.6)
5) Because my employer expects me to	1 (3.8)
6) Because other teachers can learn from the findings of my work	17 (65.3)
7) To contribute to the improvement of the institute generally	8 (30.7)
8) To find better ways of teaching	21 (80.7)
9) To solve problems in my teaching	23 (88.4)

As Table 3 shows, the most commonly cited reasons were "to solve problems in my teaching" (88%) and "to find better ways of teaching" (81%). 65% of teachers also said they do AR because other teachers can learn from the findings of their work. Another interesting finding is that 46% of teachers said they do AR because they enjoy it. Getting a promotion and improvement of the institute emerged here as minor factors motivating teachers to do AR. Additionally, only 19% of the teachers said that they do AR because it is good for their professional development. The least favourable reasons were "because my employer expects me to" (item 5) and "as part of a course I am studying on" (item 1) which only 4% and 8% of teachers chose them, respectively.

Item 9 (solving the problems of teaching) was the most popular reason for doing AR among teachers in this particular study. Teachers' main views about this reason are provided in the following:

The name talks for itself. I mean we do research to understand whether our action is right or wrong. What is more important than this? If it does not help me to make my teaching better, why action research at all?

I think that the most noticeable difference between this type of research [action research] and other types of research is this characteristic. If the kind of research we do is not compatible with helping teachers in solving their problems, it is anything but action research.

I am a teacher and the first aim in my teaching is improving my classroom context. Action research is an important technique for reaching to this aim. It helps me solve the problems I have in my teaching.

Item 8 (to find better ways of teaching) was the second most popular reason for doing AR among teachers. Teachers' opinions about this reason are stated below:

I've always been interested in finding new ways in my teaching… I think that this helps me break the routine and make teaching more enjoyable for both teachers and students. The best way to analyze the result is through action research because of its cyclical nature and you can always check whether the new method is good or not.

It is my belief that action research can help teachers test different methods of teaching to discover the best one that is suitable for their own context. It is true that all of the teachers are equipped with different methods of teaching from their teacher training programmes, but not all of them are applicable to their specific teaching context.

It is the responsibility of every teacher to make himself familiar with various forms of teaching as all of the classes are not the same. I think action research can help teachers more than any other type of research, as it is more applicable to classroom context.

The teachers' comments concerning their strong motivation to do research reveal that their research engagement is determined with the aim of improving their teaching practices, and particularly by the need to solve their pedagogical problems. It seems that teachers associate their research engagement with the difficulties they might encounter in their teaching process, as AR is primarily targeted to improve teaching and learning.

Reasons for not doing action research

The 39 teachers who reported doing AR rarely or never were similarly asked to indicate reasons for this. Their responses are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Teachers' reasons for not doing action research

Reasons for Not Doing Action Research	Frequency (%)
1) I do not know enough about action research methods	32 (82.0)
2) My job is to teach not to do action research	17 (43.5)
3) I do not have time to do action research	34 (87.1)
4) My employer discourages it	2 (5.1)
5) I am not interested in doing action research	8 (20.5)
6) I need someone to advise me but no one is available	26 (66.6)
7) Most of my colleagues do not do action research	23 (58.9)
8) I do not have access to the books and journals I need	13 (33.3)
9) The learners would not co-operate if I did action research in class	9 (23.0)
10) Other teachers would not co-operate if I asked for their help	2 (5.1)

A lack of time was the factor most often cited (87%). The next most common reason teachers cited for not doing AR was that they did not have enough knowledge about AR methods (82%). Items 6 and 7 which stated "I need someone to advise me but no one is available" and "most of my colleagues do not do action research" were the next factors in this list with the percentages of 67% and 59%, respectively. Yet 43% of teachers believed that their job was to teach not to do research, and 33% blamed the lack of access to the books and journals they needed as an important reason for not doing AR. The last four least mentioned reasons are the lack of co-operation of the students (23%), the lack of interest (20%), the lack of cooperation of other teachers (5%), and employer's discouragement (5%).

Teachers in this study have justified their main reason for not doing AR because of the lack of time. Some of their comments on this issue are provided here:

I teach in two other institutes except this one. With such a compact schedule it is very difficult to find free time for doing extra work such as action research.

I wish I had enough time to do action research. Sometimes I really feel that I need to do something about some of the problems I have in my classroom. However, it is really difficult to devote some time to such an activity.

Teaching is a kind of burdensome job. You are always living in the extra time. I mean you are always far behind the schedule. How could you sacrifice some of your time to doing research when you are living in such a situation?

As the quotations clearly show, the teachers accuse the lack of time as the main constraint for not doing AR. It seems that the teachers' heavy teaching workload prevents them from dealing with the time-consuming work required by the research activity.

Discussion

It seems that teachers' main reasons for doing AR in the present study (i.e., to solve problems and to find better ways of teaching) fall within Rock and Levin's (2002, p. 7) definition of teacher AR "with the goal of improving their [teachers] teaching practices". Learning to solve problems through the study of practice is of particular importance in the context of second language teaching. This context needs teachers to come to the job equipped not just with a broad knowledge of how learners learn a second language, but also with knowledge of how to apply diverse second language teaching methods to different learners and continually changing situations that are the remarkable signs of current second language education. As Richards and Farrell (2005) truly state, "teachers have different needs at different times during their careers…the pressure for teachers to update their knowledge in areas such as curriculum trends, second language acquisition research, composition theory and practice, technology or assessment is intense" (p. 2). Learning how to problematise and manage the intricate difficulties of their occupation is in this way fundamental to the work of teachers in the field of second language education. AR can help to address these issues. In other words, the process of solving problems with evidence gathered through AR can make teachers become more critical (Price 2001), connect general theory with their specific practice (Burns 2005b), and take appropriate action to make change if necessary (Somekh & Zeichner 2009).

In line with this perspective, many teachers in the present study have also expressed strong beliefs in support of AR to solve their teaching problems. Their responses demonstrate that several teachers believe that doing AR is both personally and professionally of significant value in helping them to examine issues related to their own teaching. As one of the teachers states, "although I hardly find any extra time to do action research, it is my firm conviction that if I am going to solve MY classroom problems, there is no way but to do it MYSELF through some sort of research" (emphasis in original). This finding is in accordance with the previous research. For example, Campbell and Jacques (2004, p. 80) state that all teachers in their study had "expectations of practical outcomes from doing research, which would affect their teaching and preparation and planning for teaching". Mehrani (2014) also found that the teachers participating in his study were disappointed with academic research studies as they neglect questions that are applicable to their teaching prac-

tice. The teachers believed that "they [academic research studies] deal with questions that are too insignificant and non-practical. Such research questions are basically not rooted in real classroom problems and often originate from theoretical discussions which do not serve teachers' interests" (p. 31).

Another interesting finding was that one of the least rated reasons for doing AR was professional development. Although in both general education (e.g., Ado 2013; Cain & Milovic 2010; Descamps-Bednarz 2007; McNiff 2002; Vogrinc & Zuljan 2009; Zeichne, 2003) and second language education (e.g., Atay 2006, 2008; Bailey et al. 2001; Campbell & Tovar 2006; Chou 2011; McDonough 2006; Richards & Farrell 2005) AR has been seen as a key factor in providing opportunities for professional growth and development, teachers in the present study do not express the same thought. This is due to several reasons mentioned by the teachers who participated in the interviews such as lack of motivation, lack of deep knowledge about AR and its trivial effects on their professional lives. Two-thirds of the teachers in the Campbell and Jacques' (2004) study also did not identify a resulting engagement in professional development. However, Campbell and Jacques (2004, p. 80) provide a different explanation and believe that "perhaps research into practice is not recognised as proper professional development…teachers' perceptions of professional development indicated a tendency for teachers to subscribe to a narrow, traditional model of professional development as characterised by workshop and course attendance". There is also evidence from general education that although teachers usually value AR as a means of professional development, it doesn't necessarily lead to changes in their practice. Haggarty and Postlethwaite (2003), for example, have reported that "[action research] led to understanding of new perspectives for some teachers but limited understanding for others" (p. 435).

Shifting the focus to the reasons for not doing AR, time limitation has always been considered a major problem in conducting AR in the field of second language education. In spite of the fact that time is more of a structural factor, which alone will not ensure that high levels of professional development will be achieved, there has not been provision made for time within the workload of teachers to suit the necessary ingredients for carrying out AR. Dealing with the prominent dimensions of research communities, Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) consider time to be one of the most important dimensions when teachers come together as researchers because they "need sufficient chunks of time in which to work and sufficient longevity as a group over time" (p. 294). In the same line, Firkins and Wong (2005), recognising research as a sign of professionalism of teachers, also assert that "educational authorities need to allocate resources to schools by way of time and funds" (p. 69).

Despite such propositions, many previous studies have shown that teachers justify their lack of engagement in research because of the lack of time. For example, Crookes and Arakaki (1999) highlighted some factors which hinder teachers' research engagement; one of them was lack of time. Borg (2007, 2008, 2009) also in his serial studies on teachers' research engagement showed that a lack of time was by far the factor most often cited for not doing research. It is not thus surprising to see that 87% of teachers in this study have also attributed their lack of engagement in AR to the lack of time. AR involvement demands time and the present study showed that teachers generally do not feel this time is available within their current schedule. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) pointed out, "unlike other

professions which are organised to support research activities, teaching is a profession in which it is extraordinarily difficult to find enough time to collect data…reflect, reread, or share with colleagues" (p. 91). As one of the teachers of the present study clarifies in his interview, "I do not find any logic in doing AR when I see that I even do not have enough time to cover my regular teaching programmes". A corollary of this situation is that AR turns into an activity which teachers do not feel it is important to engage in. The results here thus suggest that time may be a more prominent factor than others in impacting the degree to which teachers actually take part in AR.

A further noteworthy finding for not doing AR concerns teachers' lack of specialised knowledge of research (i.e., "I do not know enough about AR methods" and "I need someone to advise me but no one is available"). In the same line, the teachers in Mehrani's (2014, p. 29) study also argued that "teachers do not read research simply because they cannot; they are not educated how to find, read, evaluate, and use research papers". Definitely, this issue is largely related to our deficient pre-service teacher education programmes, where prospective teachers are not given sufficient knowledge and skills to engage with research (Atay 2008; Gore & Gitlin 2004; Zeuli 1994), leave alone in research. Examining the current teacher education programmes reveals that research methodology courses are basically theoretical rather than practical in involving teachers in reading and doing research. Prospective teachers are rarely educated where to find, how to read, and analyse research studies; however, they are unreasonably expected to carry out research projects all alone, and furthermore to use research findings in their own practice. Gore and Gitlin (2004, pp. 51-2) liken this "to inviting someone to a meeting at which they have access to the agenda but none of the background, the nuances, the politics of the committee and so on. At such meetings, where we do not have an adequate grasp of the terrain, we are effectively silenced". Thus, if practitioners are not equipped with enough knowledge and skills to critically read research materials and engage in practical research, they are basically ruled out of the research community.

Another finding that is worth considering is the rather high number of teachers who assumed that their job "is to teach not to do AR". Mehrani (2014) found that one factor that disheartens teachers from doing research especially in Iran is the way the Ministry of Education evaluates teachers. In his words, "teachers are not rewarded for engaging in research, participating in conferences, and keeping up with current theoretical issues in language education… teachers [thus] see their job as teaching and not researching" (pp. 27-28). In order to deal with this issue, the teachers in his study then suggested that the educational system can offer a set of incentives to motivate teachers to do research activities, a small part of teachers' working hours could be determined for research, teachers could be rewarded for carrying out small-scale research studies, the educational authorities can set research priorities and provide grants for practicing teachers to conduct such projects, and, last but not least, teachers can be encouraged to share their experience and knowledge to other teachers and colleagues.

Implications for L2 teachers

In spite of the fact that AR is a primary "vehicle for practitioners' personal and professional development" (Burns 2005a, p. 70), many researchers in the field of L2 education have considered lack of time as a major problem in preventing teachers from engaging in research (e.g., Allison & Carey 2007; Atay 2006; Barkhuizen 2009; Borg 2009).

Likewise, as the results show, many teachers in the present study have also blamed lack of time as the main reason for not doing AR. As one of the teachers states, "lack of time is a big problem [in conducting action research]. I'm sure that if time is integrated into teachers' workload, most of them would be eager to do action research". This comment suggests that the educational institutions do not provide teachers with required time to encourage them to do AR. So, one might speculate that if teachers have more time, it is more likely to carry out AR in their classes. In the same way, Borg (2007, p. 744) believes that "sustained and productive research engagement is not feasible unless the time it requires is acknowledged and built into institutional systems". In order to overcome the lack of time obstacle to research engagement, it is suggested that a comprehensive framework that allows teachers the flexibility to plan and incorporate research activities into their current teaching schedule be set up by administrative authorities.

As the findings show, a large number of teachers in the present study have also attributed their lack of engagement in AR to their lack of specialised knowledge about AR. The previous literature has made it clear that this problem is largely rooted in our inefficient teacher education programmes, where prospective teachers are not provided with enough knowledge and skills to help them feel confident in engaging with research (Atay 2008; Gore & Gitlin 2004; Zeuli 1994). As Mehrani (2014, p. 34) asserts "basically, research methodology courses offered in our teacher education programmes include too much *theoretical discussions about* research rather than *practical involvement in* reading and doing research" (emphasis in original). As one of the teachers plainly declared "we [teachers] were never taught how to do research in practice. It is true that we had research methodology course at the university but we never had any idea what research is in the real world, leave alone action research". In the same way, Gore and Gitlin (2004) argue that currently teachers are only given some basic knowledge and skills about research in teacher education programmes which is not at all enough for them to engage with it. They even go further and believe that presenting research "in all its messy, fragmented, manipulated reality may simply further undermine its credibility and give teachers even less reason to use it" (p. 51).

In order to deal with this problem, it is suggested that educational institutions provide opportunities for researchers and practitioners to meet regularly to share their knowledge and experience. In other words, if we truly hope to fill the gap in our teachers' knowledge about how to do AR, one good strategy is to help practitioners have access to researchers easily. This can be even beneficial for any possible collaborative and cooperative projects in the future. It is hoped that forming such professional communities provide teachers with opportunities to develop their research knowledge generally, and AR specifically.

Conclusion

The literature of second language teacher education is replete with powerful and influential arguments in favor of the benefits of being engaged in research. However, as Borg (2009, p. 377) asserts, "the reality remains though that teacher research … is a minority activity in ELT". Despite the fact that many teachers in the present study considered AR useful in solving their immediate teaching problems and improving their teaching practices, the analysis of the teachers' reasons showed that there are serious barriers in the way of conducting AR which are in nature practical (lack of time), logistic (not having enough knowledge and support), and attitudinal (teachers believe that their job is only to teach). These limitations shed light on why for such a large number of teachers carrying out AR is seen as not only undoable but also undesirable. This situation has obvious implications for the need for organisational, practical and intellectual support to encourage teachers to be research engaged.

The insights provided here can also fulfill an important awareness-raising function among those interested in promoting AR engagement. The notion of AR is definitely not new in the field of second language education; however, what is new is the organised and systematised study of the teachers who do AR and their personal reasons which impact their research engagement. In other words, research engagement efforts are more likely to succeed if they take into account the empirical evidence of the teachers' reasons for doing AR. Such understanding is currently restricted in the field, but as Borg (2007, p. 745) contends if a field wants "to promote and support research engagement by teachers more widely it is necessary for it to begin to generate the empirical evidence which is required to inform initiatives of this kind".

References

Ado K. (2013). "Action research: Professional development to help support and retain early career teachers." *Educational Action Research*, 21 (2), 131-146. doi: 10.1080/09650792.2013.789701

Akerlind G. S. (2008). An academic perspective on research and being a researcher: An integration of the literature. *Studies in Higher Education*, 33 (1), 17-31. doi: 10.1080/03075070701794775

Allison D., & Carey J. (2007). "What do university language teachers say about language teaching research?" *TESL Canada Journal*, 24, 61-81. doi: 10.18806/tesl.v24i2.139

Atay D. (2006). "Teachers' professional development: Partnerships in research." *TESL-EJ*, 10 (2), 1-15. Retrieved from https://tesl-ej.org/~teslejor/pdf/ej38/a8.pdf

Atay D. (2008). "Teacher research for professional development." *ELT Journal*, 62 (2), 139-147. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccl053

Avgitidou S. (2010). "Participation, roles and processes in a collaborative action research project: A reflexive account of the facilitator". *Educational Action Research*, 17 (4), 585-600. doi: 10.1080/09650790903309441

Bailey K. M., Curtis A., & Nunan D. (2001). *Pursuing professional development: The self as source*. New York: Heinle & Heinle.

Barkhuizen G. (2009). "Topics, aims, and constraints in English teacher research: A Chinese case study." *TESOL Quarterly*, 43, 113-125. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00231.x

Bashir I. (2011). "Professionalize Sudanese teachers' conception of work through action research". *English Language Teaching*, 4 (2), 121-124. doi: 10.5539/elt.v4n2p121

Borg S. (2003). "Research education as an objective for teacher learning." In B. Beaven & S. Borg (Eds.), *The role of research in teacher education* (pp. 41-48). Whitstable, UK: IATEFL.

Borg S. (2007). "Research engagement in English language teaching." *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 731-747. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2006.03.012

Borg S. (2008). "English language teachers' beliefs about research: Perspectives from the Netherlands." *Levende Talen*, 9 (3), 3-13. Retrieved from http://www.lt-tijdschriften.nl/ojs/index.php/ltt/article/view/195/190

Borg S. (2009). "English language teachers' conceptions of research." *Applied Linguistics*, 30, 355-388. doi: 10.1093/applin/amp007

Borg S. (2010). "Language teacher research engagement." *Language Teaching*, 43 (4), 391-429. doi: 10.1017/S0261444810000170

Borg S., & Liu Y. (2013). "Chinese college English teachers' research engagement." *TESOL Quarterly*, 47 (2), 270-299. doi: 10.1002/tesq.56

Bryman A. (2007). "Barriers to integrating quantitative and qualitative research." *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 8-22. doi: 10.1177/2345678906290531

Burns A. (2005a). "Action research: An evolving paradigm?" *Language Teaching,* 38, 57-74. doi: 10.1017/S0261444805002661

Burns A. (2005b). "Action research." In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 241-256). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Burns A. (2010). Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners. New York: Routledge.

Cain T., & Milovic S. (2010). "Action research as a tool of professional development of advisers and teachers in Croatia." *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 33 (1), 19-30. doi: 10.1080/02619760903457768

Campbell A., & Jacques K. (2004). "Best practice researched: Teachers' expectations of the impact of doing research in their classrooms and schools." *Teacher Development,* 7 (1), 75-90. doi: 10.1080/13664530400200200

Campbell C., & Tovar D. (2006). "Action research as a professional development tool for teachers and administrators." *Applied Language Learning*, 16 (1), 75-80. Retrieved from http://www.dliflc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/all16one.pdf

Chen Y. N., Gupta A., & Hoshower L. (2006). "Factors that motivate business faculty to conduct research: An expectancy theory analysis." *Journal of Education for Business*, 81 (4), 179-189. doi: 10.3200/JOEB.81.4.179-189

Chou C. (2011). "Teachers' professional development: Investigating teachers' learning to do action research in a professional learning community." *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 20 (3), 421-437.

Cochran-Smith M., & Lytle S. (1993). *Inside/outside: Teacher-research and knowledge*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Cochran-Smith M., & Lytle S. (1999). "Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities." *Review of Research in Education,* 24, 249-305. doi: 10.2307/1167272

Creswell J. (2009). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Creswell J., & Garrett A. L. (2008). "The "movement" of mixed methods research and the role of educators." *South African Journal of Education*, 28, 321-333. Retrieved from https://www.ajol.info/index.php/saje/article/view/25155/4358

Crookes G. (1997). "What influences what and how second and foreign language teachers teach?" *Modern Language Journal,* 81, 67-79. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1997.tb01627.x

Crookes G., & Arakaki L. (1999). "Teaching idea sources and work conditions in an ESL program." *TESOL Journal*, 8, 15-19. Retrieved from http://www2.hawaii.edu/ ~crookes/CandA.html

Crookes G., & Chandler P. (2001). "Introducing action research into post-secondary foreign language teacher education." *Foreign Language Annals*, 34 (2), 131-140. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2001.tb02818.x

Descamps-Bednarz N. (2007). "Action research and collaborative research: Their specific contributions to professional development." *Educational Action Research*, 15 (4), 577-596. doi 10.1080/09650790701664013

Dornyei Z. (2007). Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Edge J. (2001). "Attitude and access: Building a new teaching/learning community in TESOL". In J. Edge (Ed.), *Action research* (pp. 1-11). Alexandria: TESOL.

Edwards E., & Burns A. (2016). "Language teacher action research: Achieving sustainability." *ELT Journal,* 70, 6-15. doi 10.1093/elt/ccv060

Firkins A., & Wong C. (2005). "From the basement of the ivory tower: English teachers as collaborative researchers". *English Teaching: Practise and Critique,* 4 (2), 62-71. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ847252.pdf

Gao X., Barkhuizen G., & Chow A. (2011). "Nowadays teachers are relatively obedient: Understanding primary school English teachers' conceptions of and drives for research in China". *Language Teaching Research*, 15, 61-81. doi: 10.1177/1362168810383344

Gore J. M., & Gitlin A. D. (2004). "[Re]Visioning the academic-teacher divide: Power and knowledge in the educational community." *Teachers and Teaching,* 10 (1), 35-58. doi: 10.1080/1354060032000017091 8

Hadley G. (2003). *Action research in action*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional English Language Center.

Haggart, L., & Postlethwaite K. (2003). "Action research: A strategy for teacher change and school development?" *Oxford Review of Education,* 29 (4), 423-448. doi: doi.org/10.1080/0305498032000153016

Hargreave, D. (2001). "Revitalizing educational research: Past lessons and future prospects". In M. Fielding (Ed.), *Taking education really seriously: Four years' hard labor* (pp. 197-208). London: Routledge.

Hashemi M. R. (2012). "Reflections on mixing methods in applied linguistics research." *Applied Linguistics*, 33, 206-212. doi: 10.1093/applin/ams008

Hashemi M. R., & Babaii E. (2013). "Mixed methods research: Toward new research designs in applied linguistics." *Modern Language Journal*, 97, 828-852. doi: /10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12049.x

Johnson R. B., & Onwuegbuzie A. J. (2004). "Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come". *Educational Researcher*, 33 (7), 14-26. doi: 10.3102/0013189X033007014

Kirkwood M., & Christie D. (2006). "The role of teacher research in continuing professional development." *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 54 (4), 429-448. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2006.00355.x

Lacorte M., & Krastel T. (2002). "Zapatero a tuszapatos? Action research in the Spanish language classroom." *Hispania,* 85, 907-917. doi: 10.2307/4141259

McDonough K. (2006). "Action research and the professional development of graduate teaching assistants." *Modern Language Journal*, 90, 33-47. Doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00383.x

McNiff J. (2002). Action research for professional development: Concise advice for new action researchers. Hamilton: Teaching Development Unit.

Mehran M. B. (2014). "Bridging the gap between research and practice: Voice of mediators." *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 18(2), 21-38. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1051324.pdf

Mohr M., Rogers C., Sanford B., Nocerino M., MacLean M. S., & Clawson S. (2004). *Teacher research for better schools*. New York: Teachers College.

O'Connell Rust F. (2009). "Teacher research and the problem of practice." *Teachers College Record,* 111, 1882-1893. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/f766/ 41b727e13bb06baa72e20ccf967f1206f59a.pdf

Pettit J. (2010). "Learning to do Action Research for Social Change". *International Journal of Communication*, 4, 820-827. Retrieved from https://ijoc.org/index.php/ijoc/article/view/892/456

Price J. N. (2001). "Action research, pedagogy and change: The transformative potential of action research in pre-service teacher education." *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 33, 43-74. doi: 10.1080/00220270118039

Richards J. C., & Farrell T. S. C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers: Strategies for teacher learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rock R. C., & Levin B. B. (2002). "Collaborative action research projects: Enhancing pre-service teacher development in professional development schools." *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 29 (1), 7-21. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/24ce/6ef5464f020f625fb729de14920a7252e189.pdf?_ga= 2.54794027.1695453689.1571864564-682611268.1571864564

Sayer P. (2005). "An intensive approach to building conversation skills." *ELT Journal*, 59 (1), 14-22. doi: 10.1093/elt/cci002

Somekh B., & Zeichner K. (2009). "Action research for educational reform: Remodeling action research theories and practices in local contexts." *Educational Action Research*, 17 (1), 5-21. doi: 10.1080/09650790802667402

Teddlie C., & Tashakkori A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Tedick D., & Walke, C. (1995). ""From theory to practice: How do we prepare teachers for second language classrooms? *Foreign Language Annals,* 28, 499-517. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1995.tb00823.x

Tinker Sachs G. (2000). "Teacher and researcher autonomy in action research." *Prospect*, 15 (3), 35-51. Retrieved from http://www.ameprc.mq.edu.au/docs/prospect_journal/volume_16_no_5/Prospect_15,_3_Dec_ Article_3.pdf

Vogrinc J., & Zuljan M. V. (2009). "Action research in schools – an important factor in teachers' professional development." *Educational Studies*, 35 (1), 53-63. doi: 10.1080/03055690802470399

Watkins A. (2006). "So what exactly do teacher-researchers think about doing research?" *Support for Learning,* 21, 12-18. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9604.2006.00394.x

Wyatt M. (2011). "Teachers researching their own practice". *ELT Journal*, 65 (4), 417-425. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccq074

Zeichner K. M. (2003). "Teacher research as professional development for P-12 educators in the USA". *Educational Action Research*, 11 (2), 301-326. doi: 10.1080/09650790300200211

Zeuli J. (1994). "How do teachers understand research when they read it?" *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 10 (1), 39-55. doi: 10.1016/0742-051X(94)90039-6

About the Authors

Vahid Rahmani Doqaruni is an assistant professor in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in the Department of English Language Teaching at the University of Gonabad, Iran. He has published several papers on second language education research in national and international journals. His major research interests are: action research, teacher education, cognitive linguistics, bilingualism, second language writing, mixed methods research and task-based language teaching.

Behzad Ghonsooly is professor in the Department of English Language and Literature at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. Publishing many papers in international journals, he is interested in introspection research, second language reading and language testing.

Reza Pishghadam is professor of language education and courtesy professor of educational psychology at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. Over the last nine years, he has published more than 170 articles and books in different domains of English language education, and has participated in more than 20 national and international conferences. In 2007, he was selected to become a member of Iran's National Foundation of Elites. In 2010, he was classified as the distinguished researcher of humanities in Iran. In 2014, he also received the distinguished professor award from Ferdowsi Academic Foundation, Iran.

Authors' addresses
Vahid Rahmani Doqaruni (Corresponding Author)
Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities, University of Gonabad
Qafari Street, Gonabad, Iran
Email: rahmanidoqaruni@mail.um.ac.ir

Behzad Ghonsooly
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad
Campus of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Azadi Square, Mashhad, Iran
Email: ghonsooly@um.ac.ir

Reza Pishghadam
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad
Campus of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Azadi Square, Mashhad, Iran
Email: pishghadam@um.ac.ir

Appendix: Reasons for (Not) Doing Action Research

a) How frequently do you do action research yourself? (Tick ONE)

Never ☐	Rarely ☐	Sometimes ☐	Often ☐

If you chose *Never* or *Rarely* go straight to part c.

b) You said you do action research *sometimes* or *often*. Below are a number of possible reasons for doing action research. Tick those which are true for you.

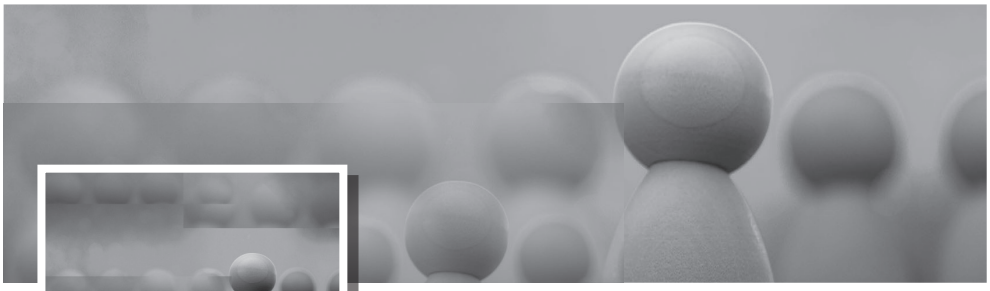
I do action research...

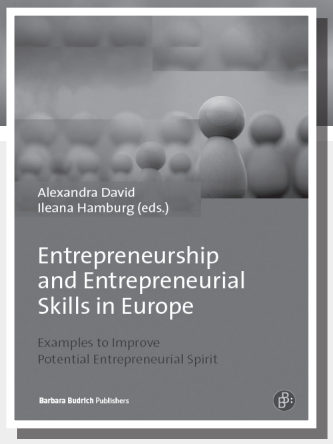
1) As part of a course I am studying on
2) Because I enjoy it
3) Because it is good for my professional development
4) Because it will help me get a promotion
5) Because my employer expects me to
6) Because other teachers can learn from the findings of my work
7) To contribute to the improvement of the institute generally
8) To find better ways of teaching
9) To solve problems in my teaching
10) Other reasons (please specify):

c) You said that you do action research *never* or *rarely*. Below are a number of possible reasons for not doing action research. Tick those which are true for you.

I don't do action research because...

1) I do not know enough about research methods
2) My job is to teach not to do research
3) I do not have time to do research
4) My employer discourages it
5) I am not interested in doing research
6) I need someone to advise me but no one is available
7) Most of my colleagues do not do research
8) I do not have access to the books and journals I need
9) The learners would not co-operate if I did research in class
10) Other teachers would not co-operate if I asked for their help
11) Other reasons (please specify):





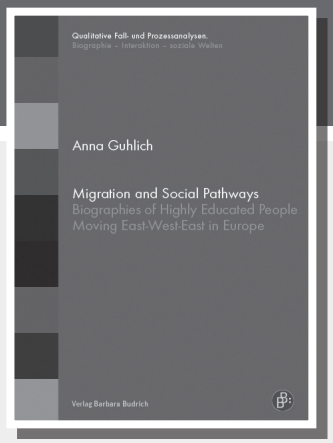
Alexandra David | Ileana Hamburg (eds.)

Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial Skills in Europe

2017 • 116 pp. • Pb. • 16,90 € (D) • 17,40 € (A)
ISBN 978-3-8474-0568-9 • eISBN 978-3-8474-0960-1

The labour markets and European societies as a whole are subject to constant change. One way to face these challenges is the application of "entrepreneurial skills" such as self-motivation, time management etc. The authors give examples of entrepreneurship in the fields of digitalization, social innovation, and eco-innovation and present special groups of entrepreneurs (e.g. migrants) and their entrepreneurial spirit. Thus, the readers get insight in how an innovative and competitive Europe can look like.

From the Contents: Entrepreneurial Education and Skills in a Changing Society • Micro-Entrepreneurship in the Sharing Economy – New Labour Market Opportunities? • Social Entrepreneurship: The Challenge of Hybridity • Immigrant Entrepreneurship – A Chance for Labour Market Integration of Refugees? • Women in Entrepreneurship – Education Methods to Support Female Businesses



Anna Guhlich

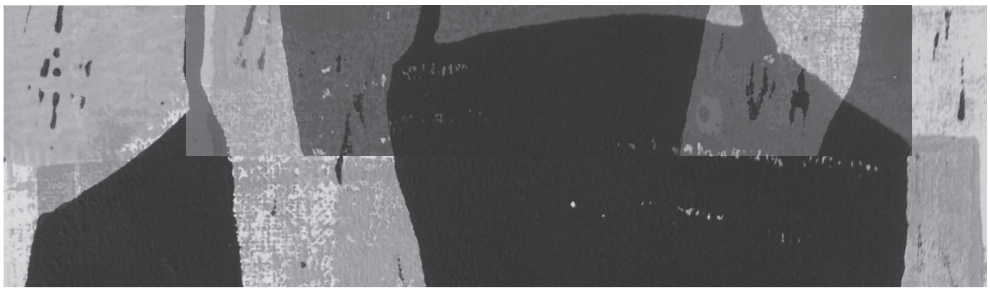
Migration and Social Pathways

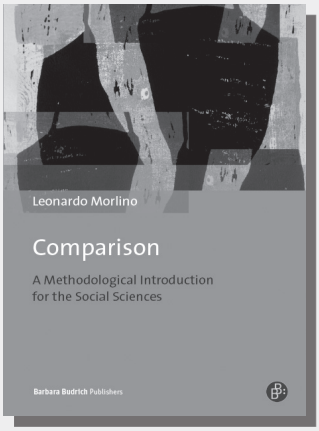
Biographies of Highly Educated People Moving East-West-East in Europe

Qualitative Fall- und Prozessanalysen. Biographie – Interaktion – soziale Welten
2017 • 363 pp. • Pb. • 46,00 € (D) • 47,30 € (A)
ISBN 978-3-8474-2118-4 • eISBN 978-3-8474-1106-2

The landscape of European migration has changed considerably over the past decades, in particular after the fall of the iron curtain and again after the EU enlargement to the east. The author researches the phenomenon of highly qualified migration using the example of migration between the Czech Republic and Germany. The book reveals diverse strategies migrants use to respond to the possible de-valuation of their qualification, e.g. by making use of their language skills, starting new studies or using transnational knowledge.

From the Contents: Context: Czech-German border crossings against the backdrop of the shifting landscape of European migration • Research on highly skilled migration in Europe: state of the art • Biographical approaches to migration and social mobility • The research process • Biographies • Cross-case comparisons and findings





Leonardo Morlino

Comparison

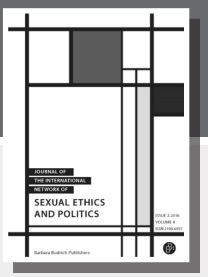
A Methodological Introduction for the Social Sciences

2018 • 128 pp. • Pb. • 19,90 € (D) • 20,50 € (A)
ISBN 978-3-8474-2143-6 • eISBN 978-3-8474-1146-8

Comparison is an essential research method in political science. This book helps students to understand comparison as an academic instrument, to grasp its necessity and its effective purpose for research. For that reason the author answers three simple' questions: why compare; what to compare; and, how to compare. Doing so, he considers not only the comparative tradition but he takes also into account methodological innovations of the last two decades.

From the Contents: Introduction: choosing the question? • Defining comparison • Why compare? • What to compare: the basic units • What to compare: space and time • How to compare: the key mechanisms • How to compare: recent developments • Beyond comparison: other research methods

Budrich Journals



European Review of International Studies

ISSN: 2196-6923
eISSN: 2196-7415
volume 5, 2018
3 x per annum
approx. 150 pp./issue
Language: English

International Journal for Research on Extended Education

ISSN: 2196-3673
eISSN: 2196-7423
volume 6, 2018
2 x per annum
approx. 120 pp./issue
Language: English

Journal of the International Network for Sexual Ethics & Politics

ISSN: 2196-6931
eISSN: 2196-694X
volume 6, 2018
2 x per annum
approx. 120 pp./issue
Language: English

Politics, Culture and Socialization

ISSN: 1866-3427
eISSN: 2196-1417
volume 9, 2018
2 x per annum
approx. 200 pp./issue
Language: English

• Available Print + Online •
• Single Article Downloads •
• Various Subscription Types for Individuals and Institutions •
• Free Contents (ToCs, Editorials, Book Reviews, Open Access Contents) •
• Online Access by Campus Licence via IP for Institutions •
• Archival Rights for Institutions •
• Permission for Interlibrary Loan •
• VPN access permitted •
• No Limitations on Number of Users at Budrich Journals •

www.budrich-journals.com

ABOUT THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ACTION RESEARCH

IJAR – International Journal of Action Research provides a forum for an open and non dogmatic discussion about action research, regarding both its present situation and future perspectives. This debate is open to the variety of action research concepts worldwide. The focus is on dialogues between theory and practice. The journal is problem driven; it is centered on the notion that organizational, regional and other forms of social development should be understood as multidimensional processes and viewed from a broad socio-ecological, participative and societal perspective.
IJAR is a refereed journal and published three times a year. The editors invite contributions from academic social sciences, giving special attention to action research and action research practice, to conceptual and theoretical discussions on the changing worlds of work and society.

Author Guidelines
https://www.budrich-journals.de/index.php/ijar/about/submissions#authorGuidelines

Submission
Manuscripts should be submitted via e-mail to the editor-in-chief, Dr. Danilo Streck: dstreck@unisinos.br

Databases / External Websites
CNKI – China National Knowledge Infrastructure | CNPeReading | Crossref | EBSCO | EconPapers | Fachzeitungen | Gale Cengage | GBI-Genios | Google Scholar | IBR-Online | IBZ-Online | NEBIS | RePEc | ProQuest ABI/INFORM Collection | ProQuest ABI/INFORM Global | ProQuest ABI/INFORM Professional Advanced | ProQuest ABI/INFORM Professional Advanced for Resellers | ProQuest Business Premium Collection | ProQuest Central | ProQuest Central Basic (Korea) | ProQuest Central Essentials | ProQuest Central Students | ProQuest Social Science Database | ProQuest Social Science Premium Collection | scholars-e-library | SCImago | SCOPUS | SSOAR – Social Science Open Access Repository | Zeitschriftendatenbank (ZDB)

Back Issues (2012 and older)
All full texts of contributions from back issues (2012 and older) – which are not available in the online archives of the journal at Budrich Journals – are freely available in Open Access at the Social Science Open Access Repository (SSOAR).