

And then a miracle occurs—a review of theory of change models for societal impact of research

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Abstract

Through an umbrella review, this article identified and surveyed 24 societal impact of research (SIR) models. Most of these models were developed within health domains and in Anglo-Saxon countries. The authors mapped the SIR models against constituent components of a robust theory of change. The study found that logic models were predominantly used to conceive SIR models. Yet, only nine models had explicit causal links, and only two made explicit assumptions about why research contributes to societal change. The old proverb among evaluators—when using theories of change to describe change—“and then a miracle occurs . . .,” rings uncomfortably true to the current state of SIR theorizing. Further theorizing and conceptual clarity are needed to advance the science of research impact.

Keywords: societal impact; research impact; research to practice; research to policy; theory of change; assumptions; evaluation.

1. Introduction

In recent years, research funders have increasingly demanded that researchers and research institutions address the impact of their research (Sørensen et al., 2022). In doing so, researchers, funders, and policymakers typically distinguish between the academic impact and societal impact of research (SIR) (D’Este et al., 2018).

Conceptualization of methodologies and instruments to measure academic impacts have evolved considerably (Aksnes et al., 2019) and have been quantified and codified in rankings of journals, research institutions, departments, and researchers to an extent where prominent institutions have called for a more balanced assessment of researchers and research institutions (Coara 2022).

There has been a similar call to conceptualize, measure, and demonstrate the societal impact of research (Kuruville et al., 2006; Pedersen et al., 2020). However, such conceptualization, let alone measurement of the SIR, is admittedly more complex and elusive.

Drawing on the extant literature, SIR models can be defined as conceptual frameworks seeking to describe and explain how research processes, outputs, interactions, and institutions contribute to changes in society, encompassing cultural, social, economic, environmental, and political domains beyond the academic arena (c.f. Greenhalgh et al., 2016; Reale et al., 2018; Pedersen et al., 2020). In the academic literature, several such *models or frameworks* (from here on *models*) to capture the SIR in various research domains have been developed (Greenhalgh et al., 2016). Essentially, such SIR models theorize how and why research contributes to societal change.

Invariably, the definitions of societal impacts differ along with their focus and underlying assumptions. Yet, SIR models offer valuable conceptual understandings of how research is supposed to bring about societal impact. Such models are often developed into *analytical approaches* (Pedersen et al., 2020) of

how SIR should be evaluated and measured, and in rare instances, *instruments* (Kramer et al., 2013; Sørensen et al., 2022) to measure and assess the SIR. Conceptualizations of SIR models are depicted in illustrative, narrative, or tabular formats.

Several reviews have provided insights as to the epistemological and methodological nature of these models, for example, dividing approaches up into positivist, constructive, realist, critical, and performative approaches (Greenhalgh et al., 2016) or describing the methods used for data collection, for example, interviews, surveys, expert reviews, statistics, altmetrics, and document analyses (Pedersen et al., 2020) in analytical approaches.

Despite these theoretical and methodological advancements, considerable ambiguity remains. As remarked by Greenhalgh and her colleagues:

‘Different approaches to assessing research impact make different assumptions about the nature of research knowledge, the purpose of research, the definition of research quality, the role of values in research and its implementation, the mechanisms by which impact is achieved, and the implications for how impact is measured’ (Greenhalgh et al. 2016:p.2).

As the above quote indicates, different SIR models inherently make *assumptions* about *research (knowledge)*, *how* researchers and research products (directly or indirectly) interact with a broader context of social actors, and *why* these interactions lead to societal changes. As such, these assumptions have far-reaching consequences. They are the very essence of the causal propositions of *how* and *why* research is believed to bring about societal impact (Weiss 1997; Nkwake 2013; Mertens 2016). In other words, SIR models are innately *theories* of how research brings about societal impact (Pawson and Tilley 1997). It is through explicating assumptions that one can develop plausible and cogent theorizing of

the interactions and impact pathways through which research is purported to bring about change can be developed.

This observation has implications for research program planners and evaluators. In short, assumptions clarify how and why research is expected to influence society. In doing so, it also brings to the fore the role of contextual factors. Explicit assumptions also surface critical weak links and risks in the SIR model (Chen 1990). Failing to develop a SIR model undermines the evaluability of the program and the testability of its causal claims (Janssens and de Wolf 2009). Finally, explicit assumptions support stakeholder dialogues and adaptive learning (Rogers 2008).

The practical implications are many. First, the unit of analysis may differ. It may be a research product (i.e. one or more scientific articles), a research programme (i.e. a concerted body of knowledge on a particular topic), or a research institution (the totality of activities and outputs produced from one organizational entity). Second, the depiction of research(ers)' interaction with society at large rests on different theories about social reality. Third, such assumptions may lead to a more or less explicated preference for different research designs and methods.

Therefore, it is salient and important to identify how such models are constructed and how theoretical assumptions about how research brings about societal impact are explicated in SIR models (Nkwake 2013). One may argue that such assumptions are the very foundation of such models.

In this article, we explore the theoretical assumptions ingrained and explicated in the current SIR models. We do so by posing the following research questions:

- 1) Which models for societal impact of research exist in the research literature?
- 2) How are these models constructed and depicted?
- 3) How are theoretical assumptions about societal impact explicated in these models?

As demonstrated above, and observed in other reviews (Greenhalgh et al., 2016; Pedersen et al., 2020) models of SIR draw from evaluation theory and methods. Before moving on with analysis of SIR, let us digress to this article's conceptual and methodological foundation in theory-based evaluation. Some further considerations are needed, when eliciting the underlying theoretical assumptions of SIR models.

1.1 Theory of change and societal impact of research models

As mentioned, when making assumptions about how research brings about societal impact, let alone set about to evaluate whether this was achieved—or not—one is invariably inscribed in a broader theoretical and methodological literature on theory-driven evaluation (aka theory-based evaluation). Even though the history of theory-driven evaluation stretches over more than half a century, conceptual ambiguity remains in this field (Coryn et al., 2011; Lemire et al., 2021). Therefore, we explicate some conceptual clarification.

At the heart of theory-driven evaluation lies the elucidation of how and why a planned change (i.e. a practice, project, program, or policy) is supposed to work. Carol Weiss famously distinguished *implementation theory* and *program (matic) theory* (1997:47). Implementation theory focuses on *how* an intervention is carried out (according to plan, quality, dosage, attainment of results, etc.). Program theory focuses

on the mechanisms that intervene between the delivery of the intervention's activities and the outcome of interest. In other words, it focuses on *why* the intervention works and the underlying theoretical assumptions of these propositions. According to Coryn and his colleagues, such theoretical assumptions may be informed by existing social science theory (empirical and theoretical), implicit theory (stakeholders' theory), or emergent theory (based on observation of the intervention) (2010:203-05). Nkwake (2013) has distinguished between three main categories of assumptions that evaluators and stakeholders make; paradigmatic (worldview and conceptual), prescriptive (what actions should be taken), and causal (links between actions and results). In this article, we focus on the latter.

Within theory-driven evaluation, many different approaches have evolved, such as realist evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 1997) and contribution analysis (Mayne 2019), as well as a wide range of tools for elucidating theory from interventions such as logic models (Wyatt Knowlton and Phillips 2008) and outcomes frameworks (Taplin and Clark 2012). For an overview, see Lemire et al. (2023).

This article uses the label theory of change (ToC) as the overarching concept central to SIR models. We use *implementation theory* to describe the set of inputs, activities, outputs, and immediate, intermediate, and long-term outcomes in the models (i.e. the sequence of activities, outputs, and immediate outcomes in particular causal links). Essentially, implementation theory describes *how* a planned change is supposed to happen. We use the label *program theory* when we describe the assumptions about the causal links that explain *why* a planned change is supposed to work (within a broader configuration of contextual factors).

Drawing from Dhillon and Vaca (2018), one should distinguish between different components when constructing a theory of change: inputs (human, physical, technological, and financial resources), activities (actions taken), outputs (immediate product of the action), immediate outcomes (e.g. immediate outcome of training or service delivery on the recipient), intermediate outcomes (e.g. more distal behavioral changes of recipients), long-term outcomes (e.g. changes in the broader target population's condition), specific causal links (detailing how particular sets of activities and outputs bring about an outcome in a given context), assumptions (statements of if—then—because supporting each causal link) and mechanisms (recognizable causal patterns triggered under certain conditions) (Elster 1998:45).

Dhillon and Vaca posit that a *strong ToC*, and therefore a strong SIR model, must contain all components, thereby covering both the implementation theory and program theory aspects of a ToC. Drawing from dominant theory-driven approaches such as realist evaluation and contribution analysis, one may add that salient contextual factors assumed to mediate or moderate outcomes; potential unintended outcomes should also be identified (Pawson and Tilley 1997; Mayne 2017). Dhillon and Vaca observe that *standard ToCs* rarely include all components needed to form a strong ToC but only include inputs, activities, outputs, and immediate, intermediate, and long-term outcomes (Kellogg 2006). Figure 1 depicts these components.

Other proponents of theory-driven evaluation have emphasized that a strong (or robust) ToC must be structurally sound and plausible (herein measurable) (Mayne 2017). In a

monetisation frameworks introduce assumptions related to time lags and the quantification of economic impact (Banzi et al., 2011; Greenhalgh et al., 2016; Raftery et al., 2016). Only three reviews address assumptions about impact pathways and solely in the context of frameworks incorporating theories of change or contribution mapping (Raftery et al., 2016; Pedersen et al., 2020; Smit and Hessels 2021). None of the reviews provides guidance on how to identify and operationalize such assumptions in practice.

We identified 80 references to original manuscripts about SIR models in these reviews. We retrieved the original manuscripts for further inspection. Two references were outdated and could not be retrieved. As new SIR models might have been published within the last five years, we conducted a hand search from 2019 to 2024 in leading journals on science research for more recent publications on SIR models using the search terms societal impact, theory of change, logic model, and programme theory. These journals included *Evidence and Policy*, *Health Research*, *Policy and Systems*, *Implementation Science*, *Journal of Health Services*, *Research and Policy*, *Research Evaluation*, and *Science Communication*. Our search identified four potentially relevant SIR models.

All retrieved manuscripts were included in NVivo 12 Pro for further analysis using file classification. Each manuscript was reviewed and screened. We excluded 60 of 84 articles based on seven exclusion criteria:

- 1) Not about societal impact ($n=23$);
- 2) SIR model or framework without causal links ($n=6$);
- 3) Practical cases or measurements, not a SIR model ($n=11$);
- 4) Performance evaluation and metrics, not a SIR model ($n=9$);
- 5) General report, not a SIR model ($n=7$);
- 6) Duplicate or variant of an existing model ($n=1$);
- 7) Out of scope ($n=3$).
- 8) In total, 24 distinct SIR models were identified. The process is depicted in the PRISMA diagram in Figure 2.

2.2 Data analysis

All manuscripts that were selected for further analysis in NVivo 12 Pro were categorized according to model characteristics using case classification (Table 1).

Some model properties could be derived from article characteristics in the file classification imported into NVivo from Endnote: article type (peer-reviewed article, report, PhD thesis, etc.), author affiliation (institution type), country of study, and type of research. The remaining information was extracted through document analysis.

2.3 Coding strategy and coding themes

The analysis combined both deductive and inductive coding. Deductive coding was guided by categories derived from existing reviews and theoretical articles, such as model components (Dhillon and Vaca 2018) and evaluation tools for devising a theory of change (Lemire et al., 2023). Inductive, open coding allowed emerging subcodes to be aggregated into thematic category codes. While most of these subcodes were framework-specific, manuscripts were recoded when subcodes were deemed to have broader applicability.

Manuscripts were coded in accordance with a coding manual. Two authors divided the manuscripts and conducted the initial coding independently, reading each manuscript in full.

Each author's coding was then validated by the other. To ensure consistency, the full author group met several times to resolve definitional issues and refine coding practices. Based on these discussions, the coding manual was revised and relevant manuscripts were revisited.

To increase transparency, the exact framework name used in each article was assigned as a subcode under the relevant theoretical category code. When a new category emerged, it was added to the coding manual. Furthermore, NVivo's search capabilities were used to mine manuscripts for keywords such as assumptions and related synonyms (such as propositions, hypotheses, suppositions, presumptions, and expectations) to reduce the risk of overlooking important points about assumptions.

2.4 Analytical strategy

For the data analysis, we applied different elements of the coding manual to address the various research questions. Table 2 presents an overview of how the coding elements were used.

2.5 Strengths and limitations

The chosen methodology's strengths are as follows: First, the review takes advantage of existing (systematic) reviews and thus saves significant resources on conducting exhaustive database searches. It presents an overview of the existing SIR models addressed in prior reviews, and the structured analyses cut across the reviews' different domains and purposes.

However, there are several disadvantages associated with umbrella reviews. For one, the validity hinges on the quality of the existing reviews. We have sought to address this apparent weakness by retrieving the original SIR model manuscripts. Second, umbrella reviews exclude data that are not reported in prior reviews. Recognizing these disadvantages, we conducted a hand search in leading science evaluation journals to identify SIR models published after the analyses conducted in the most recent review.

Another limitation is that this approach does not capture work from research groups that have not explicitly labelled their work as societal impact or as a framework, or that have not published in scientific journals. We are aware that some research groups have systematically applied theory of change and related approaches. Examples can be found in fields such as international humanitarian aid and agriculture—for instance, work connected to the CGIAR (Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research) programs (Mayne and Johnson 2015; Belcher et al., 2024). To the extent that we have encountered such research, it has informed the analyses presented in this article.

We believe that the current review is considerably more comprehensive than previous reviews because it covers many different domains. As such, it is the most comprehensive review of existing SIR models to date.

3. Findings

This section outlines the key findings from the review of the 24 SIR models. It is organized according to the three research questions.

Which SIR models for societal impact of research exist in the research literature?

The first step in our analysis was to examine the characteristics of the SIR models in the research literature.

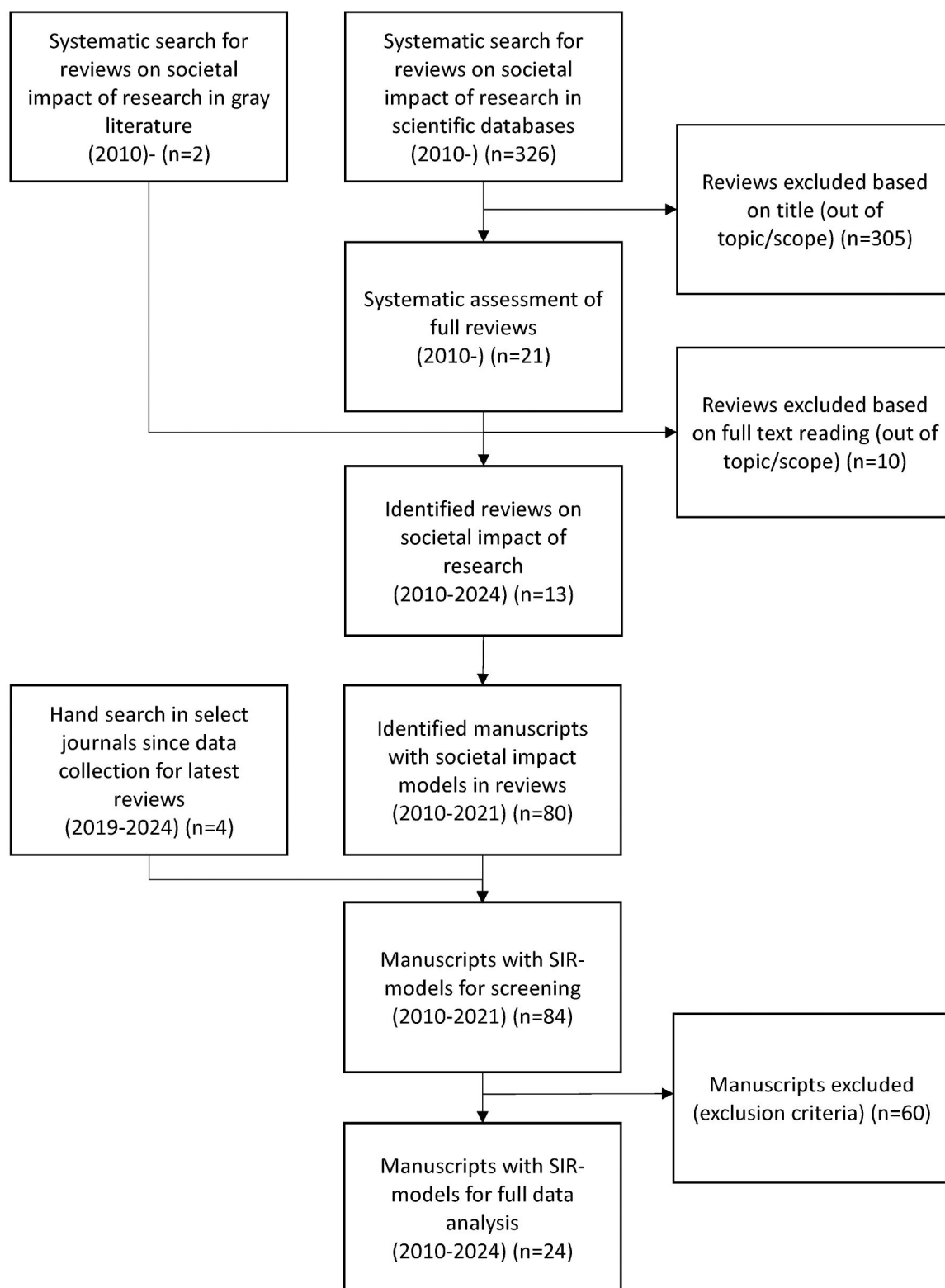


Figure 2. PRISMA diagram of search. The figure illustrates the flow of information through the different stages of the review process.

Table 3 illustrates that 16 of the 24 SIR models originate from the public health and clinical health domains, where most models' long-term impact is improved health and health care. The purpose of the models varies, but across domains, the common denominator is to assess SIR impact. The most frequent unit of analysis is at the project level (11). Five

models address multiple levels, indicating that some models use a broad, integrative approach that examines societal impact across various levels. Institution level is found in five cases, reflecting their focus on the societal impact of research organizations. The community level is the least frequent, with three instances. The geographic origin of contributions shows

Logic Model as an evaluation tool aligns well with the components of the models. Logic models are typically arranged in boxes with components from input, activities, outputs, and outcomes. These are the components that the majority of the SIR models contain. Inputs and outputs are only present in about half of the SIR models using logic models.

Finally, we have analysed how many of the SIR models include the elements of the standard ToC. None of the 24 models had all six standard ToC elements, while 20 had four or five elements. Table 5 illustrates that especially inputs and outputs were not described. Very few SIR models included elements of a strong ToC: 10 described context, nine explicitly described causal links, four described mechanisms, two explicitly described how to work with assumptions of impact pathways in the model, and none described unintended outcomes. Table 6 lists the five SIR models that included most components characterizing a strong ToC (3). It is notable that they include either mechanisms or assumptions.

4.1 Summary of how models are constructed and depicted

Our findings reveal that most SIR models lack the components Dhillon and Vaca (2018) address as essential for a strong ToC. They only comprise the implementation theory, which describes the set of inputs, activities, outputs, and immediate, intermediate, and long-term outcomes in the models. Thus, program theory components, such as assumptions, causal links, alternative outcomes, mechanisms, and context, are only included in a few SIR models.

Table 3. Summary of domain, level, and source of SIR models.

Category	Value	Number
Domain	Public health	11
	Clinical health	5
	Generic	2
	Other (occupational safety and health, social and political science, agriculture)	6
Level	Project level	11
	Institution level	5
	Community level	3
	Multiple levels	5
Country	UK	6
	Australia	5
	Canada	5
	USA	5
	Continental Europe (Spain, France, and the Netherlands)	3

Table 4. Relation between evaluation tool and SIR model format.

	Logic model	Outcome framework	Nested and Hybrid Model	Stock and Flow diagram	Programme theory	Theory of change	Total
Figure	1,8,10,13,14,17,18,21,23,24		4,5,22	9,12,20			16
Table	2,11						2
Figure and table		3	7		6,15		4
Figure and narrative ^a			16				1
Narrative ^a						19	1
Total	12	1	5	3	2	1	24

a Narrative is interpreted as extensive narration of model content.

5. How are theoretical assumptions about societal impact explicated in these models?

Lastly, we examined how theoretical assumptions about societal impact are explicated in the SIR models to provide inspiration for model developers and revisers. Our analysis showed that only two models, the Research Contribution Framework (RCF) (Morton 2015) and the Spirit Action Framework (SAF) (Redman et al., 2015), include theoretical assumptions in their SIR models about *why* research contributes to societal change. While several models stress the importance of stating assumptions about research impact, they neither incorporate these assumptions in their SIR model nor provide guidance on addressing them (e.g. Young et al., 2014). As assumptions are a key element of a robust SIR model, we elaborate on research question 3 by analyzing these two frameworks to illustrate how assumptions can be incorporated and explicated in practice.

Below, we present how these two SIR models present assumptions. We provide examples, elaborate on the types and origins of these assumptions (whether they stem from social science, stakeholders, or emergent theories), and describe how the authors suggest one can work with them in practice. The two SIR models are both situated within the health domain. They are based on empirical and theoretical foundations, using research interventions, policies, or programs as units of analysis.

5.1 The research contribution framework

As the name implies, the framework aims to investigate and demonstrate how research *contributes* to policy-making and practice. Drawing on literature about evaluation, research utilization, and empirical studies and using Contribution Mapping as a theory-based approach, it traces and evaluates the pathways through which research influences policy and practice. The model emphasizes the processes and ways research is adopted and used to identify its contributions.

Using the logic model as a tool, illustrated in figure and table formats, the RCF provides a detailed guide on identifying, explicating, and testing theoretical assumptions at each step in the causal chain, from research inputs to societal impact. Throughout this process, the authors argue that one should consider the influence of context and potential risks if the assumptions do not hold. A similar approach has been used in other fields (Belcher et al., 2024).

5.2 The spirit action framework

While the CRF solely aims to measure how research contributes to impact, the SAF model is, as the name suggests, an action framework. It also aims to *enhance* research use in

Table 5. Components in the SIR models compared to the type of evaluation tool used.

	Model components	Logic model	Outcome framework	Nested and hybrid model	Stock and flow diagram	Programme theory	Theory of change	Total
Standard ToC	01. Inputs	6	1	3	2	2	0	14
	02. Activities	11	1	3	3	1	1	20
	03. Outputs	4	0	2	0	0	1	7
	04. Immediate outcomes	8	1	2	1	2	0	14
	05. Intermediate outcomes	12	1	3	2	2	1	21
	06. Long term impacts	12	1	4	3	2	1	23
Strong ToC	07. Unintended outcomes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	08. Causal links (explicit)	6	0	2	0	1	0	9
	09. Assumptions	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	10. Mechanism	2	0	2	0	0	0	4
	11. Context	6	0	1	1	1	1	10
Other	12. Vision-purpose	4	0	1	1	0	0	6
	13. Other components	9	1	1	0	0	0	11
	Total (unique)	12	1	5	3	2	1	24

Table 6. SIR models with a strong ToC.

ID	Model name	Strong ToC components
10	Melbourne Children's Knowledge Translation and Research Impact Framework	Causal links, mechanisms, context
14	The SPIRIT Action Framework	Causal links, assumptions, context
15	The Research Contribution Framework	Causal links, assumptions, context
21	Conceptual Model of Comprehensive Research Metrics for Improved Human Health and Environment	Causal links, mechanisms, context
22	ASIRPA	Causal links, mechanisms, context

policy-making by identifying and testing strategies that increase research utilization.

The SAF model is based on findings from a literature review and interviews combined with knowledge translation and implementation science theories. It was developed by a team of key stakeholders, including policymakers, researchers, and knowledge exchange specialists. According to the authors, the model can ‘*create testable hypotheses about the drivers of evidence use, causal pathways, and intervention strategies that are likely to be effective*’ (Redman et al., 2015:152). The authors use the notion of hypotheses instead of assumptions, but we have interpreted it as essentially the same, as the hypotheses describe why the causal pathways work as they do.

The model employs a logic model as a tool, illustrated in a figure. The logic model should be used as a dynamic tool, meaning that if the assumptions are not confirmed, the logic model should be adjusted. The SAF model provides examples of practical application, such as illustrating hypothetical scenarios and how to identify intervention strategies and causal links. Additionally, it includes an overview of key concepts, measurement levels, and tools.

5.3 Examples of assumptions

Table 7 provides examples of how the two models incorporate assumptions, taking Dhillon and Vaca's suggestions for components needed for a strong Theory of Change (ToC) at the outset. As shown, the models incorporate assumptions for each component in the standard ToC. In the RCF, impact pathways can only be deduced from the assumptions leading from one step in the ToC to the next. In the SAF, the assumptions are associated with hypotheses about how four different

catalysts can lead to more research-informed policy and practice and, subsequently, better health services and programs.

The RCF's assumptions concern the relevance of the research to policy or practice, the capacity of stakeholders to engage with and use research, and the adaptability of the research to specific contexts. The model depicts in a table how assumptions are important to progress toward contributing to increased capacity, changed behaviour, and improvements in intended outcomes (societal impact). The model also suggests indicators that document such a progression.

The assumptions in the SAF concern what is needed for a catalyst to initiate the use of research. The target group's capacity to engage with research mediates its response to this catalyst. If an organization has sufficient capacity, research engagement actions will likely occur, facilitating research use.

Both models emphasize the importance of context. For example, they assume that research is more likely to be used if it is timely and relevant to the user's needs and *if* it fits with their current thinking. In several cases, particularly in the RCF, facilitating contextual factors are integrated into the descriptions of assumptions related to each component. For example, that research is timely and relevant.

Furthermore, both models stress the importance of considering not only the intended (positive) assumptions about the causal links from research input to contribute to societal change. The RCF argues that addressing the potential risks at each step in the causal chain and the unintended outcomes that research may produce is equally important. As such, the RCF model incorporates potential risks into its logic model alongside the assumptions of various causal links.

However, while assumptions for each component are described, an interesting finding is that the assumptions mainly concern the implementation theory (how research brings

Table 7. Types of assumptions explicated in the CRF and SAF.

Components	Examples of assumptions about societal impact explicated in the models
Inputs	Intended audiences perceive research knowledge as valuable and useful, e.g. organizations and staff in political organizations.
Activities	Activities delivered and implemented as intended. Activities aligned with the interests and needs of involved stakeholders.
Outputs	The researchers know and can reach the intended audiences. Medias do not distort research content.
Immediate outcomes	The intended audiences access the research communication and receive it as intended. The timing is right and relevant to the current needs of the intended receivers. Intended audiences appraise the produced research knowledge and interact with researchers.
Intermediate outcomes	Research findings are perceived as useful and relevant. Research is adapted and used for instrumental, tactical, conceptual, and/or imposed purposes, leading to behavioral change.
Long-term impacts	Research ‘fits’ with current thinking and is integrated with other knowledge. Research has contributed to informed health policies, policy documents, and better health systems and outcomes.
Context	Research is only used if it is relevant and timely to the intended audience’s needs, interests, political context, public opinion, economic climate, etc. If the intended audiences do not have the capacity, skills, tools, and systems to support the research engagement actions and the use of research, they will most likely not be used.

about societal impact). As such, the models do not explain their assumptions about the programme theory, i.e. why the research brings about societal impact. In other words, what links the components together—the causal links—is missing. For example, an assumption in the SAF model is that the research is perceived as valuable and useful, but what it takes to make it so is not explained.

6. Where do the assumptions originate from?

The assumptions (and risks) in the RCF model are identified based on findings from a mix of existing literature on evaluation, research utilization, and an empirical study of research impact. In the SAF, assumptions are developed based on a literature review and input from key stakeholders.

Neither of the models clearly states what exactly underlies which assumptions and why they are included in the models. This is primarily described in the articles’ methodology, so they are unrelated to each causal link or causal effect proposition.

7. How do the models describe how to work with assumptions?

The RCF proposes to create a model that illustrates the expected pathway(s) to societal impact. Subsequently, one should identify the common assumptions and risks associated

with the activities and progression between stages involved in creating impact. Subsequently, one should identify indicators for progress. The indicators may lead to modifications of assumptions, and the combination of assumptions and indicators makes it easier to determine if a contribution has been made. Whether such assumptions and indicators should be theoretically or empirically driven is not explicitly expressed. While the project unfolds, the framework suggests annotating and revising the impact pathway model with new insights. Finally, a table listing pathways and their evidence can be produced.

Whether the assumptions or risks can be confirmed should be empirically assessed through suitable indicators. For example, indicators to validate such theoretical assumptions or risks can be whether the research project and activities are carried out as intended and measures of the audience’s reaction and participation. Indicators of intermediary outcomes could be the level of stakeholders’ awareness and response, participation, and engagement. It could also be research users’ perspectives on usefulness, relevance and timing, research engagement, and use in policy and practice. The long-term outcomes may be built on population-level data, including how many were affected by the research.

7.1 Summary of how theoretical assumptions are explicated

Our analyses show that only two SIR models explicitly state assumptions about how research brings about societal impact. However, two interesting findings emerge when investigating the types of assumptions being made. First, the assumptions only describe *how* research is assumed to bring about change (implementation theory). Assumptions about the causal links in the models that explain *why* the research is supposed to create change are absent. Second, it is unclear from *where* each assumption originates, i.e. whether they are empirical, theoretical, or based on stakeholder input. There is only a rudimentary discussion of how such assumptions can be developed and described.

8. Discussion

The review of 24 SIR models highlights both the breadth of conceptual approaches and notable gaps in theoretical robustness. While models span diverse domains, most originate in health-related fields and are constructed primarily with logic models focusing on implementation theory components—inputs, activities, and outcomes—rather than the program theory explaining why change occurs. Only two models explicitly integrate assumptions, and even these address the “how” more than the “why” of societal impact. Mechanisms, unintended outcomes, and contextual configurations are often absent or underdeveloped, limiting the plausibility and testability of causal propositions as seen from a theory-based evaluation perspective. This uneven theoretical grounding underscores the need for greater conceptual clarity, explicit articulation of assumptions, and attention to contextual and cultural variability. These findings set the stage for a deeper examination of the conceptual, methodological, and theoretical issues in SIR modelling, as explored in the discussion, where we address (1) cultural dependencies, (2) definitional precision, and (3) the imperative for rigorous causal theorizing. Finally, (4) we propose a research agenda to advance theory development and empirical research on SIR.

alone societal change. In sum, such approaches focusing also on context may aid both generative and configurational assumptions about how research contributes to societal change.

In doing so, we also echo Morton et al., (2015) call for identifying unintended consequences and risks for the societal impact of research. Not all uses may be intended, let alone legitimate.

Put together, an increased focus on the underlying assumptions and theorizing, by making such theoretical assumptions explicit, will help researchers and policymakers alike to understand the conditions necessary for research to have an impact, understand the pathways, and refine strategies to maximize societal benefits and enhance the robustness and credibility of research impact assessments/SIR models.

9. Conclusion

This article identified and surveyed 24 societal impact of research models through an umbrella review. The majority of these models were developed in the health domains. The SIR models were mapped based on the theory of change components included and the evaluation tools applied. The study found that logic models were dominant. Only six models had explicit causal links, and only two made explicit assumptions about why research contributes to societal change. Further theorizing and conceptual clarity are needed to advance the science of research impact.

Supplementary data

[Supplementary data](#) is available at *Research Evaluation Journal* online.

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Conflict of Interest

There are no conflicting interests.

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