

# EUROPEAN POLICYBRIEF

# SOCIAL INNOVATION IN POVERTY REDUCTION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT



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May 2017

#### INTRODUCTION

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Absolute poverty is defined as having an income lower than \$1.90 per day per person as the average needed to enable individuals simply to survive. In contrast, relative poverty is generally used in developed countries (for example in the EU it is set at below 60% of the median national income) below which individuals are unable to participate in a normal way in mainstream society. In both cases, this leads to various forms of destitution, vulnerability, exclusion or marginalisation. Whilst global poverty has decreased between 2000 and 2015, it has been rising in Europe and the gap between the highest and lowest income groups is widening in most countries globally. Research by the IMF, the OECD and the EC show conclusively that this is both socially and economically damaging to everyone, including those on high incomes. All United Nations member countries agreed in 2015 to a 15-year strategy to continue tackling these challenges by contextually implementing the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to meet the needs of

the present without compromising the needs of future generations. A huge number of initiatives around the world are successfully using social innovation approaches to meet these needs, even though most do so without using this term.

Global sustainable development challenges are multi-dimensional with most vulnerable people experiencing deprivation across many areas of their lives. These include lack of adequate income, hunger, little or no education, healthcare and jobs, as well as often poor or even dangerous natural and man-made habitats and energy sources. Women and girls, as well as minorities, are sometimes doubly or even multiply marginalised through traditional practices and even legal constraints. Public goods and services are often in short supply and of low quality, and the market may be weak or dysfunctional. Climate change is now starting to compound many of these problems, adding to deprivation and increasing migratory pressures. The UN recognises that to achieve sustainable development, innovative shifts are required which focus on the participation and inclusion of the poor, partnerships amongst all actors, gender responsiveness, the use of new technology, and improvements to risk and disaster management. In part as a result of SI-DRIVE, social, inclusive and frugal innovation is now becoming explicitly embedded in the development of UN policy and practitioner discourses related to the public and other services needed to support the SDGs. In Europe, relative poverty often leads to social exclusion, pushing people to the edge of otherwise prosperous societies. This makes them vulnerable because they lack sufficient resources, are at risk of debt, suffer poor health and experience educational disadvantage, poor working conditions and inadequate housing. The fight against poverty and social exclusion is at the heart of the Europe 2020 strategy, where the aim is to target these challenges through growth and employment as well as modern and effective social protection.

#### **EVIDENCE AND ANALYSIS**

Overall, SI-DRIVE has found that social innovations in support of PRSD are typically undertaken through collaboration with non-mainstream actors, bound together by a common vision of inclusion and solidarity. This extends to the people actually experiencing poverty and exclusion, so their incorporation into the process of social innovation is vital. This also helps to prioritise the coordination and integration of initiatives, given that vulnerable people typically experience multiple deprivation challenges that single sector or actor interventions can often exacerbate rather than ameliorate. Success is thus often cross-sector and cross-actor, bottom-up, small scale and highly local and contextualized, at least initially, and works closely with the local target beneficiaries to increase their capacity and knowledge about their own needs and how they can achieve them. Advocating for the right to have their social needs met is often an important component, both vis à vis the government and other powerful institutions and organisations, but also within the community itself to raise their own awareness in order to take collective action.

As Figure 1 shows, the most common social innovation practices for PRSD reflect the focus on poor and vulnerable people and include income support in the form, for example, of micro-financing and financial safety nets, as well as community development and capacity building. Also important are creating and finding jobs and housing, supporting families and children, combatting inadequate nutrition and hunger, focusing on cross sectoral support (such as coordina-



# Figure 1: Distribution of PRSD case studies across empirically derived practice fields (n=179)

#### ting between diverse actors

and institutions), and supporting women.

Figure 2 shows the relative involvement of the main sector actors in the 179 PRSD cases across the four continents contributing cases, and also makes comparisons with similar data on all SI-DRIVE's 1,005 cases.



Figure 2: Actor ecosystems for PRSD

The contrasts depicted in Figure 2 are striking. First, there is clear variation in the involvement of actors in the PRSD cases compared with all SI-DRIVE cases, with civil society actors generally more heavily engaged, and the public and private sectors generally less so. Each actor type also often includes more than one individual actor indicating а strong networking effect. The percentages always add to more than 100% given that two, and more commonly three, actor types are involved in each case. This demonstrates that social innovation is strongly characterised by variable and dynamic

ecosystems and constellations of actors depending on the particular practice field and context. Africa shows the importance of civil society most distinctly, possibly reflecting overall its relatively weaker public and private sectors with their fewer resources so that overwhelmingly the main initiative for social innovation comes from civil society. Asia, LAC (Latin America and the Caribbean) and Europe reflect this although to a much lesser extent, but still demonstrate that civil society is typically the most important actor for PRSD. On the other hand, the data for all SI-DRIVE's cases shows a relatively even balance across the actor types at about 70% involvement each. This reflects the fact that the majority of non-PRSD cases are drawn mainly from Europe and include policy fields like education, health, employment, transport, energy and environment, where the public and private sectors are traditionally more heavily involved.

Social innovation has only recently gained significant recognition by governments and companies, and there remains both uncertainty and contested views about its needed inputs, processes and outcomes. The drivers and barriers to social innovation are therefore particularly important and often highly contextual.



#### Figure 3: Drivers for PRSD

#### Figure 4: Barriers to PRSD

Figure 3 displays the most important drivers for PRSD social innovation for both the DEE (Developing and Emerging Economies; in this context Africa, Asia and LAC) and for Europe. Overall, ecosystems of networks, groups and individuals, bound together by a common and pervasive vision of solidarity also with the target beneficiaries, are clearly the most important drivers, as also evidenced above. This is followed by the benefits of an innovative environment and the need for financial resources, although the latter is interestingly not the most important driver

given that many social innovations take place using their own and partner's monetary and nonmonetary resources, such as volunteers and assets in kind typically available locally (see Figure 5). Social innovation for PRSD is largely about collaboration, new alliances and the crossfertilization of ideas and practices. Governance, regulation and politics are not highly important given that many social innovations take place below the radar and in the gaps left by the state and the market, where regulation may be uncertain. This can in some contexts lead to conflicts around interests, rights and legality. There are also clear differences between the DEE and Europe in Figure 3, with the former much less characterised by a vision of solidarity, perhaps because of the greater competition for resources and the difficulties in recognising common needs. The impact of competition and globalisation is also significantly greater in the DEE which is likely to be due to such countries' greater exposure to these forces. The DEE are also markedly less likely to be driven by ICT and social media (5% compared to 15% of cases) which, although there are important exceptions (such as in Kenya), reflects the greater access, cost and skill differences between the two groups of countries, particularly when dealing with poor and marginalised people. Overall, ICT and social media is less important as a driver of PRDS social innovation than it is for social innovations in other policy fields, evidenced by the fact that 32% of all SI-DRIVE's 1,005 cases deploy these technologies as part of the innovation process compared to 10% for PRSD.

The barriers to PRSD social innovation are depicted in Figure 4, showing that the lack of suitable people and knowledge is the most important overall, although more so in the DEE than in Europe. However, the lack of finance is also a barrier in one third of all PRSD cases, and much more so in Europe, where it is the biggest barrier, and where ambitions may be much higher than the shrinking availability of finance allows. This may also be due to the fact that European initiatives are traditionally more prone to use financial inputs compared to the DEE. As noted above, such resources in the DEE have always been, and remain, relatively scarce, so there is a tradition of focusing even more on frugal innovation and the use of non-monetary assets. As noted in Figure 3, issues directly related to governance, regulation and politics are only marginally seen as drivers when conducive. However, when un-conducive, Figure 4 shows that political barriers are often important in the DEE almost certainly due to greater scope than in Europe for conflicting interests around legality, legitimacy and power. In a community-driven education case in Ghana for instance, its success initially led to resistance from the state as it was, in effect, doing the government's job quite effectively and thereby showing the public sector in a relatively bad light. Lack of media coverage can also be a barrier in the DEE, compared to Europe where it does not seem to play any role.

Given the relative importance of financing PRSD social innovation noted above, Figure 5 illustrates the role of the different sources of finance. As can be seen, a case's own and its partner's financial inputs are by far the most important source in 70% to 80% of all cases, and this is followed by private sector finance at about 55% overall. The private sector is even more likely do this in Europe than in the DEE, possibly because the sector is much stronger in Europe and likely to be involved in the provision of similar products and services to a wide range of users, so sees such activity directed at PRSD as complementary to its wider business.



#### Figure 5: Financing for PRSD





Charging for the products and services provided by an initiative takes place in about half of all cases. However, this does not involve charging the end beneficiaries, i.e. the poor and marginalised, as clearly this would normally be counter productive. Data on fees charged to these end users was also collected in the survey but found to be present in only a very small number of all cases. Charging for goods and services is instead made to intermediary public and/or private sector actors, who then offer these to the end beneficiaries free of charge. Figure 5 also shows that there is a significant difference between the DEE cases, where such charging is very important, and European cases where it is much less so. An examination of the cases shows that this seems to be because the public sector in the DEE is often paying for such products and services, being provided at quite a basic level, as they typically do not have the capacity or knowledge to do so themselves, unlike in Europe. As might be expected, Figure 5 also shows that the role of foundations and philanthropic financing is greater in the DEE than in Europe, given that the mission of such organisations is typically directed specifically at such countries. On the other hand, Europe is much more likely to use crowd-funding for PRSD initiatives, probably because the wider population and business community have access to considerably greater financial resources than in the DEE. Europe also generally has greater uptake of sophisticated ICT which is typically used to transact this form of financial sourcing.

One of the main public policy goals related to social innovation is to replicate or transfer successful initiatives so that the impacts and benefits can be as widely felt as possible. Figure 6 shows however that this is not always easy, although this may also be due to the fact that many PRSD social innovations are relatively recent. However, about 70% of successful cases do grow in situ, i.e. the initiative itself through its own governance and organisation grows organically and thereby serves an increasing number of beneficiaries. It is also clear that only on average between 10% to 30% of all cases transfer their basic ideas and practices to other organisations elsewhere, and that this is most likely to be within the locality and decreasingly so at greater geographical distance. European PRSD cases are more likely to spread at these greater distances, but there is not a marked difference compared to the DEE. However, more important than distance are both the constraints as well as the benefits of context. Context for all types of social innovation is extremely important, given that the end beneficiaries in their own lives and localities are typically themselves directly active in the initiative: 74% for PRSD cases and 66% for all cases where the data is available. Achieving success and large impact is made much more likely when those benefitting from an initiative own the process and its outcomes and are important actors in achieving them. This is often in quite stark contrast to more typical top-down innovations, for example as traditionally practiced by both public and private sectors alike, which in effect attempt to do something to the target group rather than doing something with them. There are also drawbacks to context, of course, in particular as illustrated in Figure 6, given that it is thereby difficult to transfer and scale successful social innovations. Indeed, one of the objectives of the SI-DRIVE research project is to identify powerful practice fields that provide good vision and ideas as well as effective mechanisms that address in a systemic way common challenges faced by most people and communities, so are less likely to be context dependent at that level. The current research has already empirically identified a number of these for PRSD, as shown in Figure 1, and although none of them is particularly new, their initiation, implementation and impact through the social innovation lens, is a new rich way to understand processes, involve the beneficiaries and deploy resources, especially in support of sustainable development.

#### POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is important for policy makers when developing and implementing policy to recognise the distinctions as well as relationships between **different types of policy approach** for different needs, contexts, scales and actors in PRSD, for example:

- 1. The duality and interrelationships between between structure and agency/advocacy:
  - **Structure**: the overall policy framework, regulations and formal institutions, as well as informal institutions of all types, ways of thinking and acting (including social memes, social norms, patterns of behaviour, and similar). These tend to be the **(root) causes** of social needs and challenges, and typically reflect the overall relative powerlessness of the poor and marginalised, thus policies might include simplifying structures and making them

work better for the poor so they are better able to address their own problems through their own 'agency' (see below). This might include the ability to be able to usurp the power of incumbents embedded in structures and institutions when the latter are not performing, are exploitative or not present when they should be. Also in a structural governance context, moving towards 'open governance' systems which recognise that governments do not have a monopoly on the knowledge and power to address societal challenges but need to collaborate with all other legitimate actors.

- **Agency**: the capacity of individuals and groups to act independently and to make their own free choices, by developing social capital, knowledge, appropriate power, etc. These tend to address the **symptoms** of social needs and challenges, and reflect beneficiaries' huge potential, resilience and opportunities, often building on the typically very strong everyday relationships of poor people, so policies might include capacity and community building, advocacy, awareness raising, knowledge sharing, networks, etc. Policies which help individuals, communities and groups valorise their inherent competencies, e.g. through personal budgets, universal basic income, etc., are relevant examples.
- 2. The **development trajectory** of many PRSD social innovations, which:
  - i) start with envisioning and describing desired outcomes, either derived directly from a perceived/experienced societal need or challenge, or derived directly from existing capacities and desires about beneficiary wishes
  - ii) use social innovation to develop beneficiary agency to achieve the outcomes in i)
  - iii) do this within the existing structural context
  - iv) then attempt to change the structure and further develop agency to maximise the outcomes both for the initiative itself as well as for other (similar) initiatives in the practice field.
- 3. **Project stage**: for example addressing: 1) immediate humanitarian, crisis or relief needs (including disaster response); 2) basic needs like social inclusion and employment; 3) more longer term needs like education and health, etc. (These can probably be related to the three BEPA levels of social demand, societal challenge and systemic change).
- 4. Policies which simply provide an **enabling or permissive environment**, on the one hand, as well as policies which are more active and interventionist, on the other. Many social innovations for PRSD are successfully being delivered by civil organisations which normally only need an enabling policy environment. For example, not setting up barriers or roadblocks such as legal constraints barring civil organisations from delivering services (providing they are good quality and not exploitative). In the PRSD context as in others, enabling environments can lead to a lot of good social innovation by letting people get on with it. However, it is important that an enabling policy should not undermine the rights-based approach (see below) if such local bottom-up innovations are not able to deliver. In addition, there is also a very strong need for an active policy approach which attempts to directly support social innovation though, for example, funding, setting up support structures and networks, the public sector getting actively involved as partners, directly addressing the lack of suitable people, knowledge, finance, etc., which are typically the biggest barriers to social innovation as evidenced by SI-DRIVE. An example of the differences between enabling and active policies is that civil society typically needs only an enabling policy environment when starting an innovation to address a particular social need, but if successful, it is likely to require an active policy environment to grow, scale and transfer, address a structural issue, etc.

A good example of policies which address both symptoms, on the one hand, and the (root) causes on the other focuses on a **reconsideration of 'poverty' of being primarily about only the lack of money, but much more often about lack of time**. Recent research shows that the poor in any society have precarious structures within which to live and work so that they typically expend all their effort simply surviving from day to day or week to week, and don't have sufficient time or energy to plan for and invest in their own, their family's or their community's future. This is not the traditional 'poverty trap' as policy in this new analysis should instead make the poor's lives as easy and as simple as possible, for example through policy remedies like structural readjustments, laws, regulations, cross-agency and non-government collaborations, etc. The purpose is thereby to enable the poor to focus on solving their own problems of scarcity rather than grappling with a complex system that is often not contextually embedded. This approach often involves creating a customized 'cockpit' of information, controls and supports for the individual. Examples might include the recent employment tribunal ruling in the UK that Uber no longer has the right to classify

drivers as self-employed, but must also pay drivers the national living wage and holiday pay with likely implications for the gig economy, thereby (at least potentially) simplifying their lives and providing them with more long-term security. An Indian example is the use of ICT to promote the financial inclusion of the poor by simplifying and linking up the contextual structures and supports that surround them through the world's largest bio-metric ID system. This means that the preexisting complex system of subsidies and benefits for the poor are now provided through a one-stop shop with simple identification, both raising awareness of what the poor are entitled to and making it very easy to access support.

Related to this, policies that change the 'choice structure' and 'choice space' of beneficiaries (social innovators, intermediaries, etc.) are needed, e.g. drawing on behavioural, psychological and nudge studies, etc. This involves policy makers attempting to understand choices made in a deprived situation. Important goals for policy thus also include the expansion of the choices of individuals, so that how choice is perceived becomes a very important component of free agency.

Policies that recognize and support the **dignity and human condition** of the beneficiaries are important. This is about **policy sensitivity and purpose**. Policy should be designed to consciously take account of **how beneficiary needs and issues are articulated**, e.g. the need for the policy maker in supporting social innovation to be self-reflective, for example, whose needs and who decides? This is necessary, given that marginalised people are often treated as objects to be 'helped' in ways the social innovator or policy maker decides, rather in a way which the beneficiary recognises s/he needs and has at least some control over. Part of this is the need to take on board strong 'human condition' and 'human dignity' approaches which take the real human condition of the poor/vulnerable people directly into account and to address these holistically. This should be done in a manner that treats the individual with dignity recognising their full value as a human being, something that many are not used to. The policy maker can only do this in collaboration with both the social innovator and the beneficiary.

In this context, a parallel policy goal is to re-conceive the identity of marginalised and vulnerable people by stressing equity and empowerment, as well as dignity. This can also be a highly politicised issue so that identity politics becomes important and it is then important to develop respect for different identities and ways of life. This typically also means changing power relations and building strong actor networks.

Policies are needed which recognise and help build the existing or potential **aspirations**, **capacities**, **resources** and **visions** of **beneficiaries** in order to identify what to do, for example, by identifying and acting upon their 'possibilities' instead of only the 'problems' they confront. 'Possibilities' and 'problems' can also be combined, for example by starting from a specific problem or social need, and then looking for possibilities through inspirations for solutions in existing aspirations, capacities, resources and visions, using for example appreciative enquiry approaches.

Policies are required that support the building of **social innovation actor and knowledge sharing networks**, including with movements that undertake social innovation but do not use this term or identify with mainstream social innovation activities. This should include policies that address the existing **power and knowledge structures**, which are typically hierarchical and not amenable to the poor and marginalised.

In addition, to help in building social innovation actor and knowledge sharing networks, policy should encourage and support social innovators in developing and implementing **new business models** which can prioritise the specific characteristics, needs and goals of social innovation. In this context, a business model is a model for the sustainability of a social innovation in relation to its financial, organisational, human resources, social and environmental sustainability, at least over the medium term. Such a PRSD business model is likely to incorporate issues related to social need, culture, values and behaviour, as well as realising social change and building in a dynamic element. All these are factors which do not feature in the traditional business model canvas that has been constructed for commercial enterprises. The PRSD research undertaken in SI-DRIVE has suggested a so-called 'living ecosystem business model'.

Policies which are cross-cutting, multi-silo, etc., are needed to tackle the **inter-sectionality** and **multi-disciplinarity / multi-deprivation** experienced by most poor and marginalised people. Poverty is highly complex and multi-dimensional, typically resulting in multiple forms of deprivation, including being left out of the mainstream and unable to participate in the normal activities of the community/locality even in so-called developed countries. Thus, there is a need to focus on 'all-round' approaches which treat people as whole individuals through joined-up policy responses, for

example innovations that integrate cross silos, cross-sectors, between levels, and/or involve multiactors working together. Clearly, the policy context should attempt to support or deliver this, though it is of course quite hard to do in practice. The evidence, both from SI-DRIVE and elsewhere, indicates that civil organisations are often best placed to orchestrate this, whilst more entrenched public bodies, philanthropies and often companies as well, find it harder. It seems civil organisations are often more trusted by the beneficiaries, have greater local knowledge and are more nimble -- they act, in effect, as 'trusted third parties'.

In the context of the urgent need for joined-up policy making, a **nexus thinking approach** should be adopted given that any policy that focuses only on one part of the poverty-deprivationvulnerability nexus without considering its interconnections risks serious unintended consequences. Nexus thinking focuses on policy linkages, synergies and trade-offs attempting to balance different interests and outcomes, especially when these appear in conflict, in order to seek win-win-win solutions, for example through forms of democratic and open consensus building. However, tools and approaches for operationalising the nexus at different scales require development and testing. It is not clear what a 'successful nexus approach looks like in practice, nor how it can be achieved and evaluated. Policy at all levels should urgently address this.

Further, it is important to recognise that it is **not just a matter of public policy but also the policy of other institutions and organisations** which impacts the condition of poor and marginalised people as well as the sustainable development strategies which should be adopted. For example, the policies of trades unions and employers associations, of chambers of commerce, of donor, private sector and corporation investment bodies, and of foreign governments in the case of overseas development aid. In the latter case, for example, many developed countries aid agencies are moving from directly funding or supporting service provision towards community development through agency building and advocacy so local people, organisations and authorities can address their own problems directly.

Policies are needed that do **not dictate the process** of SI, but instead aim at specific outcomes/impacts and **open up for process innovation** to find the most appropriate in the specific context, to achieve these (as long as these processes remain ethical, transparent, not exploitative, not criminal, etc.).

Policies should take account of **local cultures and contexts** or have a high risk of being unsuccessful, whilst also attempting the change this context towards a more amenable structure for tackling societal challenges in future. In this context, specific policy provisions should be made to make it easier to recruit, train and deploy 'barefoot' local human resources, as lightly but effectively trained to deliver basic services in contexts where there are insufficient skilled personnel. Clearly ethical, transparency and quality standards need to be put into place and efforts made to work with, rather than antagonise, professional organisations like trades unions where these exist. This would include moves to steadily upgrade the skills and professionalism of the 'barefoot' personnel in close collaboration with such organisations, including the terms, conditions and remuneration of their work, by seeing such personnel as temporary gap fillers who should as soon as possible be merged into mainstream systems. Thus, as with other policies, there is here a clear distinction between 'agency' ('barefoot' personnel tackling immediate symptoms), on the one hand, and 'structure' (professional bodies and systems representing mainstream institutions and establishments), on the other, which when the two become inter-linked and aligned can produce much better outcomes.

Policies at **the local, municipality and city levels** often have most impact, as they are close to the beneficiaries and know the actual contextual situation. **Cities** are the most successful level as they are at the **structure-agency 'sweet spot'**, i.e. they are large enough to have sufficient power and resources but at the same time small enough to be local and contextually based.

Policymakers at all levels need to **shift from a 'needs' based to a 'rights' based approach**, for example through legal or regulatory provisions, standards, training and good practice handbooks, etc. For example, this should demonstrate how governments or other service providers should be seen as 'duty bearers' whilst the beneficiaries should be seen as 'rights holders'.

A prime policy recommendation, needed to achieve the paradigm shift necessary, is to **advocate for relevant policy and funding bodies to develop and issue their own declaration on social innovation**. It is imperative to get such institutions consciously to adopt social innovation policies and strategies, for example, the African Union, African Development Bank, etc., as well as their Latin American and Asian equivalents. Concerted approaches need to be tailored to specific institutions by understanding their focal points in order to target attention by changing the nature of

the debate and to share knowledge. This should include aligning SI policy for PRSD directly to welfare policies as well as polices for social protection, social impact investment and the currently developing re-vamp of the 'Social Europe' strategy (especially in Europe where such policies are most developed).

#### **RESEARCH PARAMETERS**

Social Innovation - Driving Force of Social Change", in short SI-DRIVE, is a research project aimed at extending knowledge about Social Innovation (SI) in three major directions:

- Integrating theories and research methodologies to advance understanding of Social Innovation leading to a comprehensive new paradigm of innovation.
- Undertaking European and global mapping of social innovation initiatives, thereby addressing different social, economic, cultural, and historical contexts in twelve major world regions.
- Ensuring relevance for policy makers and practitioners through in-depth analyses and case studies in seven policy fields, with cross European and world region comparisons, foresight and policy round tables.

SI-DRIVE involves 14 partners from 11 EU Member States and 11 partners from other states of all continents, accompanied by 13 advisory board members, all in all covering 30 countries all over the world. Research is dedicated to seven major policy fields: (1) Education and Lifelong Learning (2) Employment (3) Environment and Climate Change (4) Energy Supply (5) Transport and Mobility (6) Health and Social Care (7) Poverty Reduction and Sustainable Development.

The approach adopted ensures cyclical iteration Five key research dimensions theorv between development. methodological and policy recommendations. improvements. Two mapping exercises at the European and the global level were carried out in the frame of SI-DRIVE: Initial mapping captures basic information of more than 1000 actual social innovations from a wide variety of sources worldwide, leading to a typology of social innovation. Subsequent mapping focused on well documented social innovation, leading to the selection of 82 cases for indepth analysis in the seven SI-DRIVE policy areas. The results of the global mapping and the in-depth case studies were analysed on the ground of the developed





theoretical framework, further discussed in policy and foresight workshops and stakeholder dialogues - carefully taking into account cross-cutting dimensions (e.g. gender, diversity, technology), cross-sector relevance (private, public, civil sectors), and future impact. Beneath the comprehensive definition of Social Innovation and defined practice fields, five key dimensions (see figure) are mainly structuring the theoretical and empirical work. The outcomes of SI-DRIVE will cover a broad range of research dimensions, impacting particularly in terms of changing society and empowerment, and contributing to the objectives of the Europe 2020 Strategy.

### **PROJECT IDENTITY**

**PROJECT NAME** SI-DRIVE - Social Innovation: Driving Force of Social Change.

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	Bertha Centre for Social Innovation & Entrepreneurship, University of Cape Town – UCT-, Rondebosch Cape Town, South Africa Bradford University – United Kingdom Centre de recherche sur l'innovation sociale, Center for research on social innovation University of Quebec - CRISES -, Montreal, Canada Corporation Somos Más - SOMOSMAS -, Bogota, Colombia Heliopolis University - HU -, Cairo, Egypt Instanbul Teknik Universitesi - ITU –, Istanbul, Turkey Institut Arbeit und Technik / Institute for Work and Technology, Westfälische Fachhochschule Gelsenkirchen – IAT -, Gelsenkirchen, Germany Institute of Socio-Economic Development of Territories of the Russian Academy of Sciences - ISEDT RAS -, Vologda, Russian Federation International Organisation for Knowledge Economy and Enterprise Development, FORENINGEN - IKED -, Malmö, Sweden Kazimiero Simonavičiaus Universitetas - KSU -, Vilnius, Lithuania LABORATORIJ ZA DRUSTVENE INOVACIJE UDRUGE, social innovation lab - SIL -, Zagreb, Croatia Lama Development and Cooperation Agency - LAMA -, Florence, Italy Netherlands Organisation for Applied Scientific Research – TNO -, Leiden, NL Ryerson University - RU -, Toronto, Canada Tata Institute of Social Sciences - TISS -, Mumbai, India The Young Foundation – YF -, London, United Kingdom UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribban - ECLAC -,Chile Universidad de la Iglesia de Deusto / University of Deusto - UDEUSTO –, Bilbao, Spain University Danubius Galati - UDG -, Galati, Romania Zentrum für Soziale Innovation – ZSI -, Vienna, Austria Zheijiang University Hangzhou - ZJU -, Hangzhou, China (People's Republic of)
FUNDING SCHEME	FP7 Research Programme for the EU –Socio-economic Sciences and Humanities SSH.2013.3.2-1 Social Innovation – empowering people, changing societies?
DURATION	January 2014 – December 2017 (48 months).
BUDGET	EU contribution: 4 888 551.20 €.
WEBSITE	www.si-drive.eu.
FOR MORE INFORMATION	Contact: Jeremy Millard jeremy.millard@3mg.org Antonius Schröder <u>schroeder@sfs-dortmund.de</u>
<b>FURTHER</b> <b>READING</b>	<ul> <li>Millard, J. 2014. Development theory, chapter 3 in <i>Theoretical approaches to social innovation: a critical literature review</i>, D1.4, SI-DRIVE: www.si-drive.eu</li> <li>Millard J, <i>et al</i> (2015) Social innovation for poverty reduction and sustainable development: some governance and policy perspectives, Proceedings 9th International Conference on the Theory and Practice of Electronic Governance, the ACM Press.</li> <li>Millard, J. 2017. Social innovation in poverty reduction and sustainable development: case study results, D10.4, SI-DRIVE: www.si-drive.eu.</li> <li>SI-DRIVE Deliverable D10.3: Social innovation in poverty reduction, Employment, Environment, Energy Supply, Transport and Mobility, Health and Social Care, and Poverty Reduction and Sustainable Development. http://www.si-drive.eu/?p=1934</li> <li>SI-DRIVE Policy Briefs 2017: Social Innovation in Education, Employment, Environment, Energy Supply, Transport and Mobility, Health and Social Care, and Poverty Reduction and Sustainable Development. http://www.si-drive.eu/?p=1934</li> <li>SI-DRIVE Policy Briefs 2017: Social Innovation in Education, Employment, Environment, Energy Supply, Transport and Mobility, Health and Social Care, and Poverty Reduction and Sustainable Development. http://www.si-drive.eu/?p=2834</li> <li>SI-DRIVE Newsletters (http://www.si-drive.eu/?page_id=333)</li> </ul>