SI-DRIVE
Social Innovation: Driving Force of Social Change

SOCIAL INNOVATION IN EMPLOYMENT: SUMMARY REPORT

POLICY FIELD EMPLOYMENT
D5.4_EMPLOYMENT

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CONTENTS

1 Executive summary

Social innovation in employment in the SI-DRIVE project identified three practice fields, namely 'youth unemployment & vulnerable groups' (YU), 'social entrepreneurship & self-creating opportunities' (SE) and 'workplace innovation & working conditions' (WPI). Practice fields are clusters of social innovation activities around a specific topic or target group. The gathered data among 136 social innovation projects (SIPs) inform us about the forerunners in social innovation, but it does not represent generalizable insights towards the total 'population' of social innovation examples.

The three practice fields differ in several ways:

- SIPs in youth unemployment and social entrepreneurship are strongly linked to governmental bodies and policies. YU covers a large part of the labour market policy field. Governments are reluctant to leave the scaling-up of the projects to market forces, and therefore seek to control these projects to a large extent. SE is a practice field that meets growing stimulation by policy in Europe and is seen outside Europe as a phenomenon that helps to alleviate social burdens of the state;
- SIPs in YU and SE seem to be partly replacing social security and welfare state arrangements in advanced economies, as these economies have been facing austerity measures due to the economic crisis. Advanced countries were observed to prefer to enhance the resilience of communities and civilians by more 'market conform' policymaking in several social domains, including labour market policy (for example the 'Big Society' initiative in the United Kingdom). Such market conform labour market policies, like increasing flexibility in employment relations, contracts and working time schemes, stimulate the economy, but can negatively affect the social security of employees and job seekers;
- SIPs in WPI take place within organisations and companies and are related to economic goals (profit maximisation, competitiveness, cost-efficiency); knowledge sharing in WPI across firms is limited for reasons of competition or ignorance. Organisations implementing WPI support employee involvement and employee engagement and strive for a double goal: better organisational performance and better quality jobs. Economic goals therefore are often aligned with social goals like healthy and safe working conditions;
- All three practice fields have in common that the presence of networks, individuals and groups (as actors) are important drivers as seems crucial for success; in other words the support of people, which may seem obvious, play a decisive role. For YU and SE public funding is likely to be a necessary condition to start and continue the SIP; in the WPI practice field it was found that rules and regulations can both be a driver (flexibility) as a barrier (rigidity);
- The lead actors launching SIPs of employment (as 'partners'), especially in YU and SE, are most often NGO/NPOs and public bodies, followed at a distance by private partners. These social innovation initiatves rarely are developed by public-private partnerships or research and education organisations. The users or beneficiaries in the SIPs often played a role as knowledge provider, i.e. to improve the project. SIPs are mostly developed by small groups of actors (3-6 persons) and their function is very often to fund the project and to provide idea development for the project. The SIPs in employment are most often embedded in a (public) policy program (except for WPI);
- Four out of ten cases from the sample of SIPs of employment have developed solutions that have been transferred to other local, regional or national territories; often the project partners played a role in the transfer of these solutions. Most SIPs scale-up over time in either reaching a larger share of their target groups, in organisational growth, or in extending their network of project partners. However, we should not forget that our sample of (136) cases are forerunners in their policy field, which may explain why so many of them are successful in scaling up. Other literature shows that many social innovation initiatives do not survive the start-up phase. Our sample of cases further shows that the most mentioned outcome of their SIP is increased employability of their target groups. Other outcomes are that the SIP improves the situation of beneficiaries (i.e. their target groups) and that it contributes to integration and social inclusion.

The theoretical point of departure of SI-DRIVE is to prevent becoming normative about social innovation, and thus, is to stick to the notion that any social innovation can be beneficial to society. While this idea is still valid for the project, it is also true that desired directions of social change cannot do without normative socio-political and ideological viewpoints. Theorising about the study's findings on how social innovation might affect social change in the domain of employment, it seems plausible to state that cooperation or collaboration between relevant stakeholders and partners is a key condition. SIPs in YU and SE have a need of resources (funding, knowledge, support, etc.) and this issue is largely solved through bringing together relevant agents and stakeholders. For WPI it is shown that collaboration between partners inside the organisation is crucial as a precondition, i.e., between management and employees and employee representatives.

The studied examples seem to indicate that the social change that is strived after in Europe consists of the enhancement of social and public values, namely participation in society, and reduced dependency on state facilitations related to social security arrangements, alongside with a stronger resilience for civilians (in YU and

SE), and more innovative capability for firms (WPI). The mechanisms to drive these changes are not per se new forms of governance in the studied cases. In YU and SE, governments still have a stronghold, but, more and more, there are growing networks and partnerships with NGOs, NPOs and private companies to develop solutions; in the practice field of WPI, however, companies are in the lead of change and public bodies play a limited role. Another element, relevant from a theoretical perspective, is the presence of leadership and entrepreneurship to make SIPs successful. In some YU and SE-cases the initiators were charismatic persons, driven by their ideals. Pursuing goals like social and public values, i.e. enhancing social cohesion through participation, thus asks for collaboration with relevant stakeholders and partners and leadership.

From a policy perspective how to further stimulate social innovation in employment with the aim to boost social change it can be observed that:

- Policymakers make too little use of social innovation to solve social issues, mainly because they are unfamiliar with the possible benefits and results of social innovations;
- Compared to ecosystems in business and technological innovation it seems that universities and knowledge institutes are underrepresented in social innovation ecosystems. This situation implies a needed action from the side of policymakers to attract such institutions to engage more with social innovation; policymakers could further be motivated to consider how to build solid infrastructures for sustainable institutionalisation of social innovations in order to ensure sustainable social change;
- The field of employment is intertwined with other policy fields such as education, poverty, health and social care; this requires a rethinking of 'silo-policy making' and a transition to more integration of policy fields when making new policy;
- In the employment domain, especially in YU and SE, the SIPs are to a considerable extent dominated by governmental and public bodies, while social innovation is a movement that wishes to unleash the full potential of people and communities; therefore a rethinking of governance modes is needed to best align with stimulating social innovation and to make it sustainable for the future;
- There are several policymakers acting on employment issues at different levels (EU, national, regional, local) which requires that to gear policy actions to one another, these policy levels must communicate and be clear about each others responsibilities. A serious risk is that represettaives of the different levels get bogged down in endless discussions and use this outcome as a legitimation not to do anything at all.

2 Theoretical framework and methodology

2.1 Theoretical framework

SI-DRIVE extends knowledge about Social Innovation in three major directions:

- Integrating theories and research methodologies to advance understanding of SI leading to a comprehensive new paradigm of innovation;
- Undertaking European and global mapping of social innovation, thereby addressing different social, economic, cultural and historical contexts in eight 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.

Based on these three pillars SI-DRIVE contributes to a deeper understanding of social innovations. Founded on a comprehensive definition of Social Innovation and a theoretical framework for understanding social innovations empirical knowledge generated through global mapping and case studies will help to understand the role of social innovations for transformative changes in Employment (policy and practices).

The SI-DRIVE project started from the **working definition** which describes **social innovation** *"…as a new combination or figuration of practices in areas of social action, prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors with the goal of better coping with needs and problems than is possible by use of existing practices. An innovation is therefore social to the extent that it varies social action, and is socially accepted and diffused in society (be it throughout society, larger parts, or only in certain societal sub-areas affected)."* (Butzin et al., 2015, p. 151).

The empirical research of SI-DRIVE is based on a global survey of social innovations mapping the "World of Social Innovation", combining the regional perspective with the selected policy areas. Additionally, the fieldwork was designed by the developed main theoretical strands: taking the comprehensive definition of social innovation as a basis, combining **initiatives and projects** to **practice fields**, looking at the improved key **dimensions of social innovation and social change** and its related **cross-cutting themes**; focusing on **seven policy fields**[1], and integrating different contextual facets of cultural backgrounds.

The comparable structure of all SI-DRIVE research **instruments** (for the qualitative reviews and the quantitative mapping) is based on the working definition of social innovation and the five **key dimensions**, as described below. SI-DRIVE studies **each new social practice defined as**:

- A new combination or new configuration of social practices;
- In certain areas of action or social contexts;
- Prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors;
- In an intentional targeted manner with the goal of better satisfying or answering needs and problems than is possible on the basis of established practices;
- Socially accepted and diffused (partly or widely) throughout society or in certain societal sub-areas, and
- Finally established and institutionalised as a new social practices.

This working definition of social innovation and social practice also foresees that, depending on circumstances of social change, interests, policies and power, successfully implemented social innovations may be transformed, established in a wider societal context and ultimately institutionalised as regular social practice or made routine.

Based on this definition SI-DRIVE is differentiating between the **macro level of policy fields** the **micro** and **meso level** of **"practice fields"** or social practices and related **"projects/initiatives"**:

- "**Practice field**" is a general type or "summary" of projects and expresses general characteristics common to different projects (e.g. Micro-credit systems, car sharing);
- "**Project/initiative**" is a single and concrete implementation of a solution to respond to social demands, societal challenges or systemic change (e.g. Muhammed Yunus' Grameen bank which lends micro-credits to poor farmers for improving their economic condition, different car sharing projects or activities at the regional-local level).

In this report a 'case' refers to 'project/initiative' or 'Social Innovation Project' (in short SIP). A 'practice field' then is a cluster of SIPs that share certain characteristics.

[1] Education and Lifelong Learning, Employment, Environment & Climate Change, Energy Supply, Transport & Mobility, Health and Social Care, Poverty & Sustainable Development.

Main theoretical portfolio of the mapping and analysis of social innovation cases and the reporting are the five key dimensions. This means, the review and mapping of social innovation practices (Figure 2.1 below):

- Describe concepts and understanding (analytical concept: social practice);
- Are based on and addressed to social demands, societal challenges (and systemic changes, if feasible);
- Describe resources, capabilities and constraints including capacity building, empowerment and conflict;
- Embed governance, networking and actors (functions, roles and sectors) for social change and development;
- Document the different phases of the process dynamics (mainly: mechanisms of diffusion: imitation, social learning; relationship to social change.

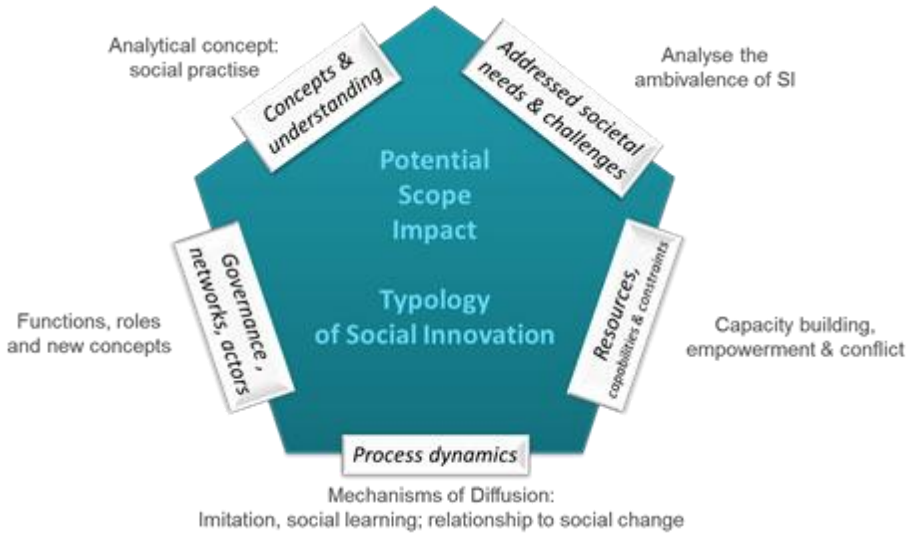

Figure 2.1: Key dimensions of Social Innovation ('Pentagon' of social innovation - Butzin et al., 2014)

Next to the definition of social innovation and the five key dimensions, **additional research dimensions** are:

- **Policy Fields**: (1) education, (2) employment, (3) environment and climate change,
- energy, (5) transport and mobility, (6) health and social care, (7) poverty reduction and sustainable development
- **Cross-cutting themes**: (1) Information and communication technologies (ICT) and social media; (2) social entrepreneurship and social economy, social enterprises; (3) gender, equality and diversity; (4) demographic change; (5) migration; (6) empowerment; (7) human resources, knowledge; (8) governance and (9) other
- **Sectors of society**: public, private business, and civil society (including NGOs and NPOs)
- **World Regions** (Cultural Background):
  - Europe (North, West, East, South)
  - Other world regions: Russia, North and Latin America, Australia/New Zealand, South-Eastern Asia, Western Asia (Near and Middle East), (Sub- Saharan and Northern) Africa.

From another perspective the process of social innovations are characterised by **mechanisms of social change** (Howaldt and Schwarz, 2016: 59f, based on Wilterdink, 2014): learning, variation, selection, conflict, competition, cooperation, tension and adaption, diffusion, planning and institutionalisation of change. To illustrate some of these mechanisms, *learning* is e.g. illustrating the mechanisms of cumulative knowledge improvement, capacity building and empowerment: Within mutual learning processes social innovators and other actors of the initiatives realise mistakes, apply new ideas and engage in processes of learning, leading to tacit and codified new knowledge. *Selection* incorporates processes of adoption, diffusion and imitation, but also processes of decline and death of initiatives. *Institutionalisation* could be a planned or unplanned or even a not intended process, in congruence or in difference with existing institutions, interfered by unforeseen events.

For further information about the theoretical underpinnings of SI-DRIVE we refer to the critical literature review of theoretical approaches to social innovation (Howaldt et al., 2014; see also Howaldt and Oeij, 2016; and Howaldt and Schwarz, April 2016).

2.2 State-of-the-art report and methodology

This 'Policy Field Summary Report' of social innovation in Employment is based on the research in the years 2014-2017, which firstly covered the making of an internal report about (1) the 'State of the art: social innovation in employment' (van der Torre et al., 2015), which consisted of a limited literature review and a search of Internet sources; that internal report also included 'national reports' produced by each SI-DRIVE partner in this work package of Employment. Secondly, a collection of 136 cases of social innovation of employment, known as Mapping 1 (Howaldt et al., 2016). And thirdly a description and analyses of ten of those cases in-depth in 'Social innovation in employment: case study results', known as Mapping 2 (Oeij et al., 2017). Further, two 'Foresight and Policy Workshops' were held with experts about options for policymakers how to apply and support social innovation of employment in the combat of employment issues, resulting in two 'Policy Briefs of Employment' (Oeij and van der Torre, 2016; Oeij, van der Torre and Enciso Santocildes, 2017).

This report pursues to update and summarise the state-of-the art of Social Innovation in Employment. We shortly describe the applied methodology below. The first State-of-the-art report (van der Torre et al., 2015) consisted of a limited literature review and a search of Internet sources. The case study collection and the in-depth analyses of ten of them was called respectively Mapping 1 and Mapping 2 (see Figure 2.2).

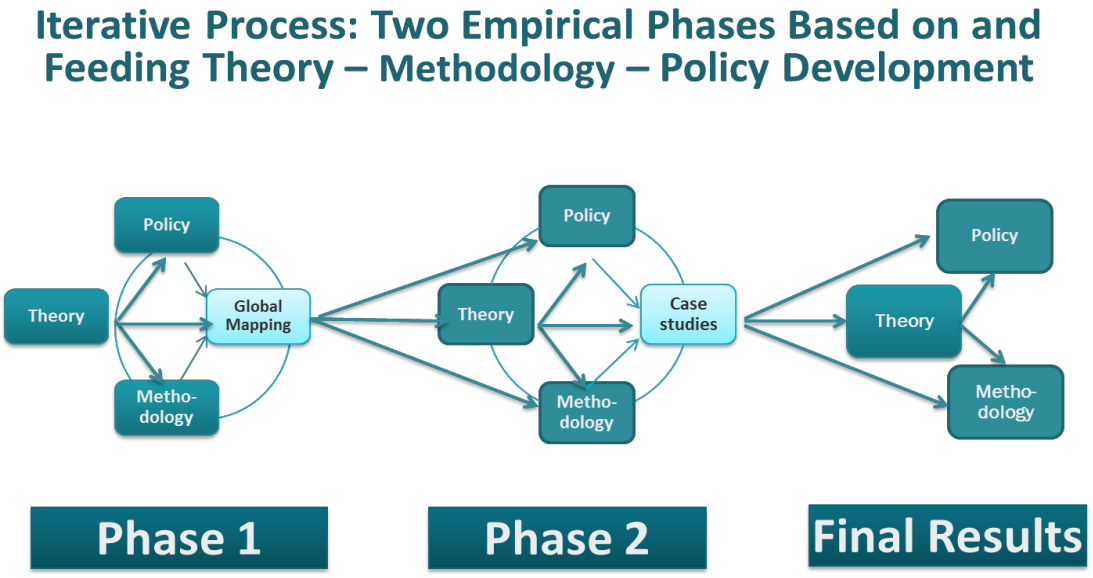

Figure 2.2: Continuously updated research cycle (Howaldt et al., 2016)

SI-DRIVE uses a *cyclical approach* in the form of a *double iteration loop* improving theory, methodology and policy after two empirical stages. Accordingly, significant parts of establishing an integrated theory of social innovation will be delivered through *inductive* appraisal and improvement of empirically obtained data. SI-DRIVE is not informed by existing theories in a top-down manner only, and it is lacking a predefined sound theoretically based concept and framework. While the theoretical elements will be discussed elsewhere, this report mainly discusses the empirical results for the domain of Employment. Additionally, some theoretical remarks related to social innovation of employment will be made as well.

2.3 Mapping 1, 2 and the policy and foresights workshops

The iterative research process is characterised by two empirical phases based on and feeding the three research pillars: theory, methodology and policy. Starting with a first theoretical and methodological framework, as well as a first policy and foresight framework, this previous work laid the ground for the contents and methods of the first empirical phase: the global mapping (Mapping 1). The empirical results fed in the improvement of these three pillars, laying the ground for the second empirical phase: the in-depth case studies (Mapping 2). In the end (by December 2017), the results of both empirical phases will lead to the final theory, methodology and policy and foresight recommendations of SI-DRIVE. For the SI-DRIVE project as a whole more than 1.000 cases were col-

lected in Mapping 1 (Howaldt et al., 2016) (of which 136 related to Employment); and for SI-DRIVE as a whole 82 cases were selected for in-depth study (Ecker et al., 2017) (of which 10 in the field of Employment).

Thus, the chosen triangulation and combination of quantitative and qualitative methods has also a sequential aspect: While the quantitative approach is more appropriate for the analysis of 1.000+ ('1000-plus') social innovation cases, the qualitative methodology is more relevant for the in-depth case studies (Mapping 2 - which is based on the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the first empirical phase). The 1000+ cases refer to the project as a whole, covering all seven policy domains, employment being one of them, covering about 136 cases; for Mapping 2 about 80 cases out of those 1000+ were selected for in-depth study, of which ten are in the Employment policy domain.

The first empirical phase (Mapping 1) was guided by the theoretical analysis of SI-DRIVE (cf. Critical Literature Review, Howaldt et. al. 2014) providing a multidisciplinary literature review of existing theoretical and conceptual strands related to social innovation and its relationship to social change. This laid the foundation for a theoretically sound checklist/questionnaire as the guideline for gathering the cases and to describe their data (see the Comparative Analysis Report, Howaldt et al., 2016). For each of the seven policy fields, the practice fields identified in the first state-of-the-art report could be refined and filled with examples of clear and tangible social initiatives, i.e., social innovation projects (SIPs). Guided by the five key dimensions of social innovation - "Concepts and Understanding", "Societal Needs and Challenges", "Resources", "Actors, Networks and Governance", "Process Dynamics" -, also defined in the Critical Literature Review (Howaldt et al., 2014) the empirical research structured the findings of the global mapping (Mapping 1), as reported in the comparative analysis report (Howaldt et al., 2016).

The second empirical phase (Mapping 2) used the same guidelines but looked more in-depth into a selection of cases; as said about 80 for all seven policy fields and, of them, 10 cases for Employment. While the first phase was mainly using an online questionnaire to gather the data, the second phase was mainly founded on face-to-face and telephonic interviews and making in addition use of Internet sources and documents.

Two Foresight and Policy Workshops were held with experts to assess policy recommendations in the field of employment by making better use of social innovation[2]. In each workshop about 8-10 (external) experts participated and 5-10 (internal) project team members. The first workshop was held after Mapping 1 and the second one after Mapping 2.

This report includes the step of 'final results' (see Figure 2.2), as it summarizes the findings of phase 1 and 2 (i.e. Mapping 1 and 2) and draws conclusions and formulates recommendations about the 'completed cycle' of the research into social innovation of employment during SI-DRIVE.

2.4 Contents of the report

Following the Executive Summary and the Theoretical framework and Methodology in Chapter 1 and this Chapter 2, the following Chapter 3 describes the Employment Landscape. Some general statistics about employment issues are presented and main needs and challenges are discussed as a general background. A few global and regional differences regards employment issues are mentioned as well. Chapter 4 continues with describing the Social Innovation landscape, where the three distinguished practice fields will be presented, namely Youth unemployment, Social entrepreneurship and Workplace innovation. Definitions and conceptualisations of social innovation of Employment are briefly evaluated too. Chapter 5 follows with a description of the Policy context of social innovation of employment at the EU level. This gives an impression of the present policy support and helps to identify gaps. We then move on with the empirical chapters of the report. These chapters follow the logic of the 'pentagon model' of key dimensions of social innovation. Chapter 6 deals with Resources, capabilities and constraints and has a focus on funding, drivers and barriers of SI of Employment. Chapter 7 about Governance, networks and actors looks at the people involved in SI and the governance framework in which their Social Innovation Projects (SIPs) are positioned. Chapter 8 handles the topic process dynamics. Here we look at growth, diffusion, institutionalisation and scaling on the one hand, and at the mechanisms of social change on the other. Chapter 9 closes the report with a Summary, conclusions and recommendations, while references are listed at the end.

[2] This took place for every Policy Field in a first round in 2015 and a second round in 2017; each round was ended with an International Round Table covering all policy fields in one Workshop (WP11 Policy). WP11 is the work package that deals with policy analysis and policy recommendations (see www.si-drive.eu; https://www.si-drive.eu/?page_id=131).

3 The employment landscape: needs and challenges

3.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at needs and challenges in the employment landscape by making an inventory of main issues. Subsequently some labour market statistics and insights are presented about unemployment rates and skills. Finally some important global and regional differences are highlighted. The purpose of this chapter is to set the stage for social innovation as a background against which SIPs can be seen to alleviate the social needs of people and society.

3.2 Needs and challenges

In the EU the main challenges regards employment are pointing into the direction of combating unemployment and developing new skills for the future. Unemployment in the EU is still high and unevenly distributed among EU Member States - high unemployment in Southern and Eastern Europe - and labour market categories - high unemployment among youth in certain countries, the elderly, migrants, women and handicapped persons.

Issues related to these two challenges are the wish to improve labour market participation and the performance of public employment services in general, to reduce gender inequality and discrimination. Moreover, several labour market related programmes and projects aim to foster education and lifelong learning, investment in knowledge, technology and innovation and stimulating workplace innovation and entrepreneurship. Further, there is a link between combating unemployment and programmes to diminish poverty and social exclusion (Van der Torre et al., 2015). Fighting unemployment, therefore, is related to improving economic progress and social participation. So far, nothing new, despite the economic recovery since 2014. Or it must be that, especially, in the advanced economies shortages of scarce resources are reappearing, in technology, ICT and health and care workers. Some of those problems can be alleviated by digitisation and robotization for example (technology can replace people), while others need skilled employees to make full use of new technology (technology requires people).

Inventory of challenges

In the beginning of the project we asked the partners within WP5 Employment to list and rank the main challenges in employment at national level (in their own country) and for the EU as a whole (van der Torre et al., 2015)[3]. The result was the overview in the next table, from where it can be seen that the mentioned challenges are in agreement with those identified in the major EU programmes, such as the European Employment Strategy (EES), the European Structural Fund (ESF) and the Employment and Social Innovation (EaSI) program. In these programs youth unemployment, vulnerable groups, institutional employment organisations, and activation and inclusion policies are seen as most urgent (van der Torre et al., 2015).

Table 3.1 Challenges in the field of Employment (according to WP-partners)

Priorities National Challenges	Priorities EU Challenges
1. Address the high youth unemployment	1. Improve labour market for youth - education & training
2. Improve labour market for youth - education & training	2. Address the high youth unemployment
3. Combat youth unemployment - employers to create more jobs	3. Combat youth unemployment - employers to create more jobs
4. Active labour market policy	4. Tackle the growing divergence in employment and social outcomes between Member States
5. Education and training	5. Improve labour market for school leavers and graduates - internships

[3] See the national reports in this publication of Germany, the Netherlands, Denmark, United Kingdom, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Baltic states, Western Balkans, Turkey, China and Russia. Only the summary of the Policy Field Report of Employment can be found on the SI-DRIVE website (each policy, see: https://www.si-drive.eu/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/D5_1-Policy-Field-Report-Employment-2015-Summary.pdf).

Priorities National Challenges	Priorities EU Challenges
6. Workplace innovation	6. Maintaining the employability of the labour force including the long term unemployed and the most vulnerable groups
7. Poverty and social inclusion	7. Labour market participation
8. Too low investments in new knowledge, technology, innovation	8. Active labour market policy
9. Integration of people with handicap - employers to create more jobs	9. Poverty and social inclusion
10. Lack of knowledge/skills in entrepreneurship, no entrepreneurial culture/low business activity	10. Improve labour market for socially vulnerable groups (low skilled, disabled, handicapped)
11. Labour market participation	11. Improve labour market for women - participation
12. Modernise public employment services	12. Address the impact of gender pay and activity gaps on women's pension entitlements
13. Address the growing risk of structural unemployment	13. Workplace innovation
14. Address the impact of gender pay and activity gaps on women's pension entitlements	14. Demography - ageing working force
15. Improve labour market for socially vulnerable groups (low skilled, disabled, handicapped)	15. Education and training
16. Maintaining the employability of the labour force including the long term unemployed and the most vulnerable groups	16. Integration of people with handicap - employers to create more jobs
17. Improve labour market for school leavers and graduates - internships	17. Labour market segmentation
18. Increasing quality of work - workplace innovation	18. Stronger involvement of social partners in the design and implementation of the policy response
19. Integration of immigrant labour - employers to create more jobs	-
20. Improve the performance of public employment services	-
21. Improve labour market for women - participation	-
22. Education system - to much focus on diplomas, not enough on practice	-
23. Labour market segmentation	

On the basis of this table we held discussions in the WP-team about the main challenges and whether or not these most important challenges could be linked to corresponding social innovation practices and practice fields. We return to this point in Chapter 4, where this resulted into the selection of three practice fields of employment. First we look at the main challenges that are related to unemployment issues and to the need of upgrading skills. We look at the situation in Europe, and then put our eyes on the global situation. One can observe that the the topic of demographic changes and elderly workers was not emphasized in the table, which was high on the agenda in the past ten years. Perhaps the issue of youth unemployment and incoming migration of refugees were experienced as more important than structural unemployment.

Unemployment in Europe

Employment figures[4] are becoming more positive after the economic crisis. At the first quarter of 2008, the EU-28 unemployment hit a low of a rate of 6.8% (16.2 million persons) before rising sharply in the wake of the economic crisis. Between the second quarter 2008 and mid-2010 the unemployment level went up, taking the rate up to 9.7%. After a deceptive temporary decline, since the second quarter 2011 and until the second quarter of 2013 unemployment steadily and markedly increased taking it to the record level of 11% (26.5 million). Since then the rate has started to decrease, reaching 9% at the end of 2015. The EU-28 unemployment rate was 8.0% in March 2017, whilst 8.7% a year before in March 2016.

Among the Member States, the lowest unemployment rates in March 2017 were recorded in the Czech Republic (3.2%), Germany (3.9%) and Malta (4.1%). The highest rates were observed in Greece (23.5% in January 2017) and Spain (18.2%).

Youth unemployment rates are generally much higher, even double or more than double, compared to unemployment rates for all ages. As for the rate of the total population, the youth unemployment rate in the EU-28 sharply declined between 2005 and 2007, reaching its minimum value (15.1%) in the first quarter 2008. The economic crisis, however, severely hit the young. From the second quarter of 2008, the youth unemployment rate has taken an upward trend peaking in 23.9% in the first quarter 2013, before receding to 19.7% at the end of 2015.

In March 2017, 3.883 million young persons (under 25) were unemployed in the EU28, of whom 2.727 million were in the euro area. Compared with March 2016, youth unemployment decreased by 439,000 in the EU28. In March 2017, the youth unemployment rate was 17.2% in the EU28, compared with 19.1% respectively in March 2016. The lowest rate was observed in Germany (6.7%), while the highest were recorded in Greece (48.0% in January 2017), Spain (40.5%) and Italy (34.1%).

While many countries around the world are opening their borders and are introducing more flexible and liberal migration policies, many EU-members are not following the trend. This seems to be leading to the paradoxical problem of labour shortages in crucial sectors - like IT - at a time of very high youth unemployment. In other words, issues of unemployment, education, demographic changes, and migrant issues come together, posing new challenges of combined issues that surpass the employment domain.

The NEETs indicator presents the share of young people who are not in employment, education or training (NEET), as a percentage of the total number of young people in the corresponding age group, by gender. The NEET rate for young people is closely linked to economic performance and the business cycle. An analysis over time for young people aged 20-34 shows that the share of NEETs in the EU-28 fell from 18.7% in 2005 to a relative low of 16.5% by 2008, but then jumped to 18.5% the following year, after the onset of the global financial and economic crisis. The rate then rose at a more modest pace through to 2013, when it reached 20.1%, before decreasing to 18.9% in 2015[5]. While the NEET rate for young people in the EU-28 rose by 2.4 percentage points between 2008 and 2015, statistics show that over the same period there was a considerable reduction (-4.3 percentage points) in the proportion of young people who were employed and had completely left education or training. This was largely counterbalanced by an increase in the share of young people aged 20-34 who were in some form of education or training, including both those who spent their time exclusively in education and training and those who combined a job with education or training. This development may reflect a growing desire on the part of young people to obtain higher levels of qualification in the face of increased competition in labour markets, but may also reflect a lack of full-time employment opportunities during a period of economic downturn.

Research published in 2015 based on 2012 data indicates that NEET rates have not yet recovered from the crisis[6]. There are large differences in youth unemployment and inactivity across countries, and these differences were further exacerbated by the recession. Reducing NEET rates is a great challenge for governments, as youth who remain jobless for long periods typically come from more disadvantaged backgrounds, have low levels of educational attainment, and are in many cases inactive. There is substantial evidence, however, that even the most disadvantaged youth can benefit from a variety of targeted interventions, including for instance special education programmes and mentoring. But all in all the situation for NEETs requires more than average attention.[7]

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4 http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Unemployment_statistics

5 http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Statistics_on_young_people_neither_in_employment_nor_in_education_or_training

6 Carcillo, S. et al. (2015), "NEET Youth in the Aftermath of the Crisis: Challenges and Policies", OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers, No. 164, OECD Publishing, Paris. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5js6363503f6-en

7 In this section we did not discuss the labour market for elderly workers, because these are not among the chosen practice fields. Unemployment among elderly is, however, rising significantly in the discussed period. They do not benefit much from the recent economic recovery

Some remarks about skills in Europe

Quantitative data on employment look promising, but qualitative demands on the labour market are still worrisome for certain categories of job seekers. The new Skills Agenda for Europe was communicated in Spring 2017[8]. The agenda launches a number of actions to ensure that the right training, the right skills and the right support is available to people in the European Union. It will aim at making better use of the skills that are available; equip people with the new skills that are needed - to help them find quality jobs and improve their life chances. The agenda is not only directed at unemployed persons, as it should also boost entrepreneurship and innovation among employed. But for unemployed persons it implies they should catch up with better digital skills.

The labour market is constantly evolving[9]. Skills, competences, and qualifications that people need change over time. To deal with these changes people need to be equipped with a variety of basic skills, including literacy, numeracy, foreign languages, science and digital skills. Studies into the relation between new technology and required skills or numbers of jobs seem to suggest that due to digitisation, automation, robotics and nanotechnology, on the one hand certain middle and low skilled jobs will disappear, whereas new jobs and skill requirements are being identified in future of work which are demanding ever higher skill levels. Both the working population and unemployed persons are confronted with an ongoing need to keep their qualifications at desired levels.

Transversal skills, such as the ability to learn and initiative-taking, will help people deal with today's varied and unpredictable career paths. Entrepreneurial skills will help contribute to employability of young people in particular, as well as supporting new business creation. Furthermore it is important to better identify and manage the availability of required skills, competences, and qualifications, and to help preventing skills gaps and mismatches. Effective communication between the labour market and the education and training sector is vital.

3.3 Global and regional differences

Economics and unemployment

The World Employment Social Outlook on Trends 2017[10] reports that the global GDP growth hit a six-year low in 2016, at 3.1 per cent. The forecasts for growth have continually been revised downwards over recent years. The rather disappointing economic performance raise concerns about the ability of the economy to (i) generate a sufficient number of jobs, (ii) improve the quality of employment for those with a job, and (iii) ensure that the gains of growth are shared in an inclusive manner.

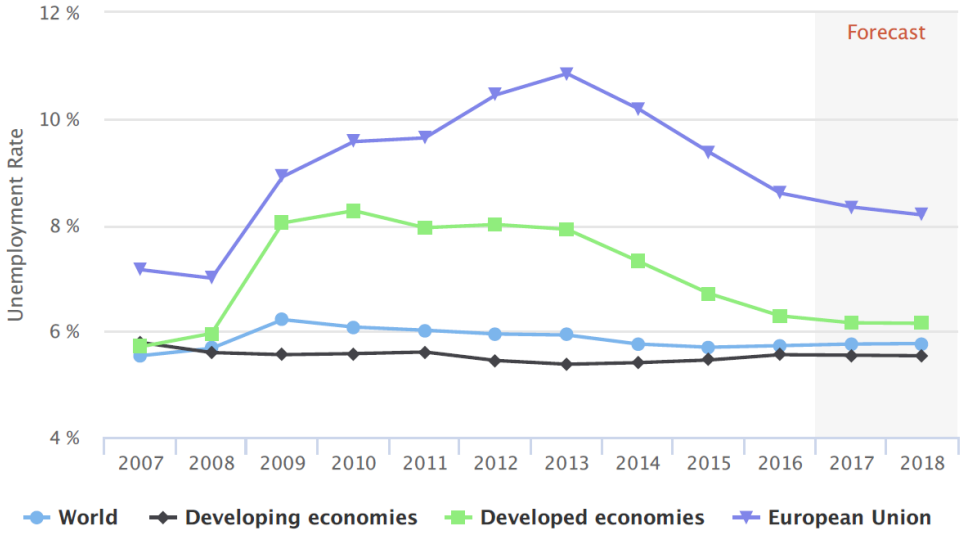

Figure 3.1 Unemployment trend and forecast (ILO, 2017[11])

8 http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1223

9 https://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework/skills-development_en

10 http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_540899.pdf

11 http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/multimedia/maps-and-charts/enhanced/WCMS_541401/lang--en/index.htm

Global unemployment levels and rates are expected to remain high, as the global labour force continues to grow. In particular, the global unemployment rate is expected to rise modestly in 2017, to 5.8 per cent (from 5.7 per cent in 2016) bringing total unemployment to just over 201 million in 2017. The pace of labour force growth (i.e. those in search of employment) will outstrip job creation, resulting in an additional 2.7 million unemployed people globally.

The number of unemployed people in emerging countries (such as Brazil, Russia, India and China) is expected to increase by approximately 3.6 million between 2016 and 2017 (during which time the unemployment rate in emerging countries is expected to climb to 5.7 per cent, compared with 5.6 per cent in 2016). Of notable concern are developments in Latin America and the Caribbean.

In contrast, unemployment is expected to fall in 2017 in developed countries (by 670,000), bringing the rate down to 6.2 per cent (from 6.3 per cent in 2016). In Europe, notably Northern, Southern and Western Europe, unemployment levels and rates are both expected to continue to fall. The same applies to Canada and the United States.

Unemployment levels in developing countries are also expected to increase in 2017 (by 450,000), with unemployment rates hovering at around 5.5 per cent in 2017 and 2018. For many developing and emerging countries, however, chronic poor-quality employment – as represented by high shares of own-account workers and contributing family workers (collectively classified as workers in vulnerable forms of employment - i.e. precarious employment) and working poverty (i.e. living on less than US$3.10 per day in purchasing power terms) - takes centre stage.

In their publication 'World Employment and Social Outlook 2016: Transforming jobs to end poverty'[12] the ILO sketches a gloomy picture of the employment situation of the poor. Over the past two decades, significant progress has been made in reducing poverty in the majority of countries, notably in emerging and developing countries. However, the gains have been uneven and fragile, particularly in developed countries where an increase in poverty has been recorded. While improvements have been significant in a number of countries, notably China and much of Latin America, the incidence of poverty remains stubbornly high in Africa and parts of Asia. But also an increase in poverty has been recorded in Europe. The gains have also been uneven across population groups. Poverty affects women disproportionately, and children to an even greater extent. Even where progress has been made, gains remain fragile. A significant proportion of those who moved out of poverty continue to live on just a few dollars per day, often with limited access to essential services and social protection which would allow them to exit precarious living conditions on a more permanent basis. The recent deterioration of economic prospects in Asia, Latin America, the Arab region has begun to expose the fragility of the recent employment and social advances.

A continuation of the uneven and fragile progress in reducing poverty threatens to compromise the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), i.e., to end poverty in all its forms and everywhere by 2030. Furthermore, the poor may completely miss out on the technological revolution which is transforming today's economies and societies. This may exacerbate socio-economic instability and erode support for pro-growth policies. A key finding of the ILO-study is that it will not be possible to reduce poverty in a lasting manner without decent work. In other words, decent work is a necessary (though not sufficient) condition for eradicating poverty. The ability of people to sustain themselves through good (paid) jobs will need to be enhanced. Almost one-third of the extreme and moderate poor in emerging and developing countries actually have a job. However, these jobs are vulnerable in nature: they are sometimes unpaid, concentrated in low-skilled occupations and, in the absence of social protection, the poor rely almost exclusively on labour income. Among developed countries, a greater number of workers have wage and salaried employment, but that does not prevent them from falling into poverty. Without an adequate supply of decent work opportunities, it will be difficult for the working poor to improve their working conditions, acquire a career and thus lift themselves and their families out of poverty. The ILO-report highlights the fact that a number of key structural obstacles are impeding quality employment creation and poverty reduction. Among them are a too narrow economic base to grow sustainably, a widening income inequality, and a weak institutional set-up to support vulnerable groups.

Summarising

Despite the economic recovery since 2016, not all regions and labour market categories benefit equally. In some regions the labour force grows faster than job creation. Or economic growth is too weak and fragile to guarantee sustainable improvement in employment over a longer span of years. Structural problems for specific labour market groups remain: large groups remain working poor. The problems of unemployment and poverty are intertwined. While these problems are severe in the emerging and developing economies, also the developed economies face

[12] http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_481534.pdf

substantial problems with growing numbers in vulnerable situations. Most problems are related to structural factors apart from demographic developments and economics, like new technology and institutional inadequacies, which suggests that social innovation alone will not be able to solve all issues. Both in and outside the EU the main challenge for social innovation in the employment domain is to combat unemployment and to upgrade the skills for the future. And in relation to this the improvement of employment service organisations and institutions. Poverty and economic instability, basic to being employed in paid jobs or not, remain, however, more demanding challenges outside the EU.

The challenge for policy thus evolves around general unemployment, specific target groups, the working poor, and bridging the skills gap and overcoming polarisation on the labour market. Obviously, social innovation alone cannot fully meet those demands, which requires ingenuity from the side of policy makers in transforming labour markets and work organisations. Feasible steps to success are perhaps to focus on a selection of practice fields, to design specific social innovation activities, and to align with recent developments like social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation, and overcoming the silo thinking of policies.

4 The social innovation landscape of employment

4.1 Introduction

First some definitions and concepts of social innovation and SI related to employment are discussed, followed by linking this to the three practice fields youth unemployment, social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation. At the end we will comment on the present and future definition of SI of employment. The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate what is the focus of social innovation in the employment landscape.

4.2 Definitions and concepts

As said in Chapter 2 SI-DRIVE is based on a comprehensive and analytical definition which describes social innovation "…as a new combination or figuration of practices in areas of social action, prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors with the goal of better coping with needs and problems than is possible by use of existing practices. An innovation is therefore social to the extent that it varies social action, and is socially accepted and diffused in society (be it throughout society, larger parts, or only in certain societal sub-areas affected)." (Butzin et al., 2014, pp. 151) This definition of social innovation allows integrating the many different (and sometimes conflicting) meanings of social innovation and offers a new perspective on the diversity of the concept of social innovation.

The starting point for the Employment policy field analysis was to study the social problems related to employment for which citizens and organizations develop social innovations. In the past, social renewal was mainly driven by social policy (Oeij, 1993). To understand what the social innovations are in fact doing, it was important to start with analysing how are the 'market' and 'public policy' functioning. The initial question was which issues are not solved by this dominant (policy, delivery and innovation) model, i.e. by traditional agents in the field of employment such as governmental, public and employment organizations.

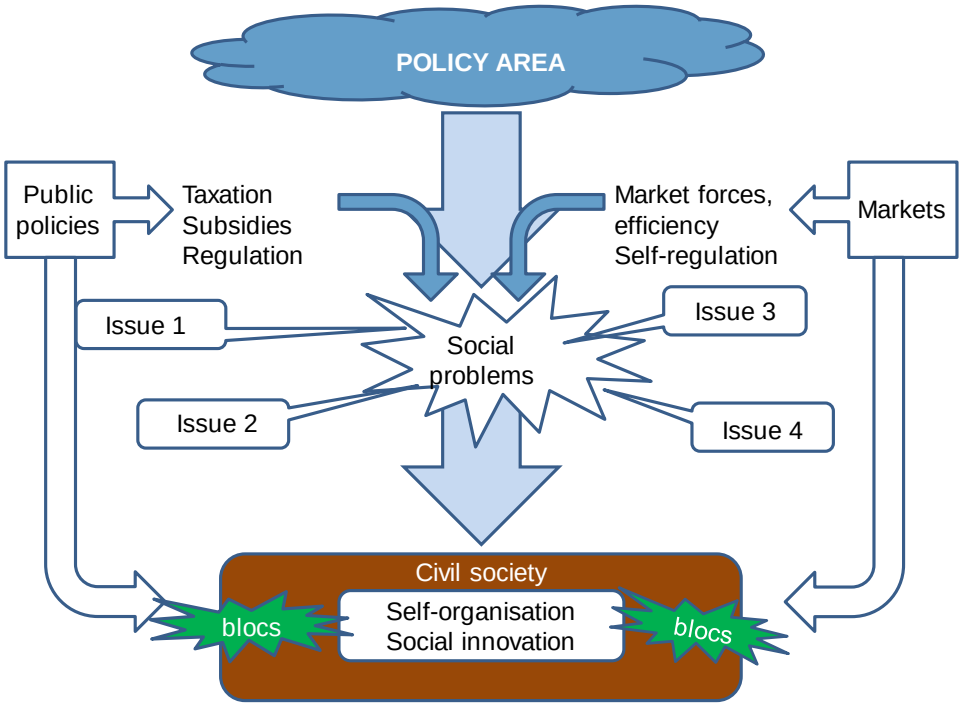

Figure 4.1 Policy, delivery and innovation model of social innovation

As we have seen in Policy Field Report of Employment (Van der Torre et al., 2015), most challenges in the field of employment seem to be on the agenda of governments and other traditional actors. Employment is a key factor for all societies and the policy field receives lots of attention from the traditional actors. By traditional actors we mean governmental organizations, public bodies, and other (commercial) organizations brought in on carrying out employment policies (like temporary work agencies, unions and employer organizations, educational and training

organizations). However, these traditional actors do not work on their own, they involve many different external partners in the policy area, including non-traditional actors and there might be some specific challenges which are addressed by civic society alone. One could even assume that for social innovation in employment the role of public bodies is indispensable. Social innovation in the domain of employment across the Member States, thus, is very much linked to traditional employment policies and to the usual agents as involved actors. The question how social innovation can best be defined in the policy field of employment, seems to be to not strictly stick to a definition that rules out government and other traditional actors, as we might miss an interesting group of innovations. Figure 4.1, namely suggests that SI in employment should include partners form civil society and the 'market', and that it should not be carried out solely by public bodies. But the practice learns us that such desired public-private partnerships are very common in the field of Employment, and that many SI activities are governed and stimulated by public bodies, often public bodies on their own. We therefore included social innovations by the traditional actors, as long as these projects contribute significantly to solving employment challenges (i.e., better than the solutions in the past). Apart from the inclination of public authorities to govern, there is also the observation that governmental actors give leeway to social innovators and market forces. In the Netherlands employment stimulation for example is partly shifting from public employment organisations to temp(in) agencies, and self-employment as a flexible labour market position is also promoted. These examples signify a retreat of public government in directing the labour market and social security and to let the market do its own work.

A broader perspective than a focus on existing social policy is needed to find innovative examples. There are for example many initiatives that people and organizations undertake as new economic activities, which may not be seen as social innovations of employment in the first place, but as examples of entrepreneurship and self-employment. Several of such initiatives, for instance, starting internet/web shops, taking up urban agriculture, the exchange of economic activities and services, economic autarky initiatives and share-economy activities, all fill a social void. We may perhaps not associate them with employment policies because the involved actors do not regard themselves as part of an 'unemployed' target group. They see themselves as successful entrepreneurs or self-employed persons. Looking closer at what people do, we noticed better how they prevent becoming inactive by being innovative. For example, many young people are active with social media and IT applications (web shops), while others develop activities related to sustainability, new ways of using transport and energy, and working in urban gardening. Youth employment from this perspective, is not merely a matter of creating jobs, but all the more of upgrading their own skills exploring new roads in undertaking innovative economic activities. Such activities are organized rather differently than in today's traditional organizations and factories, namely in networks, in communities, on internet platforms, as self-employed persons, and via virtual communities in differing global time zones. As stated by Van der Torre et al., (2015: 37), by definition, social innovation for employment cannot be limited to the domain of employment and unemployment. A broader perspective on employment requires to be aware of the overlap with other policy fields, notably education and poverty, and business and entrepreneurship. The inventory of practice fields proves that fact.

4.3 Practice fields of social innovation of employment

As has been emphasized in the Critical Literature Review (Butzin et al., 2014, p. 154) to better understand the relationship between social innovation and social change we have to analyse the social embeddedness of any innovation in a dense network of innovation streams. In the SI-DRIVE project we have developed the concept of the *practice field* as a general type of different projects within one thematic area. Only by taking the broader perspective of a practice field we will be able to get deeper insights into upcoming trends and emerging areas for social innovation and their impact on social change. A practice field is an area of social practice in which social innovation initiatives or projects (SIPs) can be identified that are combating more or less similar social issues.

In Chapter 3 we identified some main challenges. Originally we made a longlist of challenges with 23 national and 18 EU challenges, presented in Table 3.1. In this next step, and in discussion with the partners of WP5 Employment, we reduced the longlist into a combined overview of challenges related to practice fields (Van der Torre et al., 2015) (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Overview challenges and practice fields

Challenges	Practice fields
1. Unemployment (and job creation) • Youth unemployment & NEETS • Long term unemployment • (Other) vulnerable groups of unemployed (disabled, immigrants, low skilled)	• Job search support & matching • Training & education • Social entrepreneurship/enterprise • Working conditions and environment

Challenges	Practice fields
2. Labour Force Participation (elderly, woman, disabled)	• Working conditions and environment • Social entrepreneurship • Job search support & matching
3. Modernize and improve the performance of public employment services	Workplace innovation
4. Quality of work & innovation capacity	• Workplace innovation • Social entrepreneurship
5. Inequality between genders	Working conditions and environment

From the national country inventories (Van der Torre et al., 2015) it was observed that some particular challenges and practice fields are closely linked to each other (Table 4.1). The practice fields are addressing the supply of labour, the matching between supply and demand, the demand for labour as well as the way work is organized. The practice fields of social innovation in the policy field of employment mainly focusses on the implementation of employment policies and the initiatives in the private sector and civil society. Policy development and adapting legislation seem to be very important, but these are often more a political choice than an innovative solution. This implies that this cannot be a social innovation, unless one sees legislation as a social innovation. Furthermore, the Employment domain is dominated by what governments and NGO/NPOs are doing, and to a lesser extent coloured by social innovation practices not taken up by governments nor markets, i.e. emerging from activities initiated by communities, and citizens. However, since the responsibility of governments makes it impossible to not being active in this policy field, practice fields (exclusively) related to governmental activities had to be included.

In general, five broad practice fields were distinguished from the projects mapped in the countries we studied (Oeij et al., 2017; Van der Torre et al., 2015):

- *Job search support and matching* includes matching of supply and demand via internet applications for example, practical support for job seekers and mediation between employers and job seekers (including subsidizing employers to hire vulnerable groups). It also includes support for unemployed to start as entrepreneur, for example administrative assistance and financing and training;
- *Training and education* includes lifelong learning, (practical) training which bridges the gap between what is being thought in regular educational systems and what is demanded by employers/society, initiatives in which (young) persons acquire work experience and teaching (social) entrepreneurial skills;
- *Social entrepreneurship/enterprise* which for example provides work for vulnerable groups. This practice field also covers governments stimulating social entrepreneurship and corporate social responsibility;
- *Working conditions and work environment*, like flexible working times, child care, adapting the working environment for an ageing workforce or disabled persons;
- *Workplace innovation* to increase the quality of work and innovation capacity of organisations. These initiatives include for example creating learning organisations, professional development of employees, self-managing teams, employee participation and employee driven innovation. In addition, public sector innovation also sets a good example of how public organisations can stimulate workplace innovation by striving after the combination of better performance (efficiency-driven) and enhancing professionalism (employee driven innovation) with increasing the public value (satisfied civilians).

This division was used as a guiding framework for the gathering of cases of social innovation of employment which resulted in 136 employment cases out of the total of 1005 cases of social innovation in the seven policy domains (Howaldt et al., 2016; Mapping 1 phase). In a subsequent step we analysed the cases and the practice fields and decided to combine some practice fields based on their overlap and resemblance. Table 4.2 shows the 136 cases divided across the five main practice fields of Employment, and how they were compressed into three practice fields, namely ‘Youth unemployment and other vulnerable groups’ (elderly, women, minorities - comprises 1 and 2, and partly 5; approximately 55 to 65% of the cases), ‘Social entrepreneurship & self-creating opportunities’ - consisting mainly of 5 (19%), and ‘Workplace innovation & working conditions comprises’ (made out of 3 and 4 - 27%).

Table 4.2 The 136 cases of Employment from Mapping 1

Project practice field	Absolute number	Percent	Compressed practice fields
1. Job search support & matching	43	31.6	1. Youth unemployment & vulnerable groups 74 cases; 54.4%
2. Training & education	31	22.8	
3. Workplace innovation & organisational innovation	20	14.7	2. Workplace innovation & working conditions 36 cases; 26,5%
4. Working conditions	16	11.8	
5. Social entrepreneurship	26	19.1	3. Social entrepreneurship & self-creating opportunities 26 cases; 19.1%
Total	**136**	**100.0**	

The compressed practice fields are a reduction in the number of practice fields, and are described as follows (Oeij et al., 2017):

- **Youth unemployment and other vulnerable groups (elderly, women, minorities)**: This is an important issue around the world and especially in Europe since the economic crisis 2008. It is a heterogeneous field, characterized by a high variety and diversity in activities. The practice field evolves around labour market participation, training and education and discrimination/inequality issues. The purpose is to improve individual competencies and to institutionalize equal opportunities. A special focus is on reduction of youth unemployment;
- **Social entrepreneurship & self-creating opportunities**: This is a field of growing importance and with specific differentiation. It concerns entrepreneurship with limited profit goals but focus on participation of groups with limited opportunities and resources; and self-organizing initiatives of businesses (including self-employed persons) that create jobs in niches with low and irregular income and job security and much flexibility (risks). SE can help provide experience and building up skills and create 'sheltered' (subsidized) jobs;
- **Workplace innovation & working conditions**: This field is growing and varied as it differs across public and private sectors. Entrepreneurs and employers seek new ways of working and innovation through novel ways of employing persons, using talents, and organizing work processes, including application of new technology. This leads to changing of job (content), team formation, role differentiation and more dialogue and autonomy for employees. The purpose is to also improve deploying and developing human talent and sustainable employability (not per se with the same employer).

This division functioned as a guidance for the in-depth study of ten cases out of the 136 (Oeij et al., 2017). The practice fields that are not chosen are the ones related to topics such as 'traditional unemployment activities', 'public employment services', 'subsidized jobs' the activities in these practice fields are already broadly present and are not really social innovations (i.e., dominated by well-known governmental agents).

It should be mentioned that in the research (and this report) youth employment dominated practice field 1, social entrepreneurship dominated practice field 2, and workplace innovation dominated practice field 3. This enabled us to provide a more coherent description per practice field[13].

Updating the definition of social innovation of employment

Social innovation in the realm of employment embraces non-economic, social, goals (e.g., combating unemployment and enhancing social cohesion for vulnerable groups) and economic, business goals (e.g., accepting profit but not short-term profit maximisation per se in social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation). When social innovation combines such public value and economic value purposes (i.e. shared values, or 'balancing' as it is

[13] In the discussion among the WP partners it was uttered that combining certain projects made it questionable if one could really speak of a coherent practice field. For example social entrepreneurship and self-creating opportunities share the entrepreneurial aspect, but differ in being social or individualistic; and workplace innovation and working conditions share the improvement of the working environment for employees, but differ in the respect to which this is achieved bottom up or top down/by legislation.

called in the SIMPACT project[14]), it comes as a necessity to closer define what is meant by 'social'. Social innovation should, from a normative perspective, be rooted in good intentions and produce good consequences for stakeholders and agents in (the wider) society; it should not be limited to economic gain and it should not be restricted to beneficiaries in excluding others (on the labour market); this implies that the perverted effects and negative externalities ought to be limited as well. From viewpoints like these Martinez et al. (2017) propose a definition of social innovation that is based on the notion of 'socially responsible innovation' – which better described 'social' according to them - namely "as either an innovation motivated at root by a good intention; or one which produces good consequences benefitting a range of stakeholders in the wider society. (…) a socially responsible innovation - product or process - is one that will consider its impact on the wider society with a view to promoting human well-being and so, in some sense, social progress" (…) "that is to say a concept of social innovation as an innovative activity that is intended by the individuals involved to bring clear social benefits or to help to address clearly identified social problems" Martinez et al., 2017: 691-693). In this definition the practice fields of youth and vulnerable groups, social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation can be incorporated into the notion of social innovation of employment.

Summarising

This chapter showed how our approach of social innovation of employment lead to the focussing of the SI definition on shared values (public/social and business/economic goals), and to the compression of social innovative practices in employment into three practice fields, namely youth unemployment, social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation. On this basis we were able to study policy making and the empirical SI practices.

[14] http://www.simpact-project.eu/

5 Policy and context

5.1 Introduction

In this short chapter we try to capture policy making on the combined notion of 'social innovation of employment' rather than on separate policy making on 'social innovation' and 'employment' of which there is obviously a lot. But, as we shall see, there is little for the combined notion at EU level.[15] The purpose is to describe what is currently happening, which can help to identify possible present policy gaps.

5.2 EU policy in support of social innovation

Main objective of EaSI

The main EU policy instrument about social innovation and employment in place at this moment is The Employment and Social Innovation (EaSI)[16] programme, which started in 2014. The Employment and Social Innovation (EaSI) programme is a financing instrument at EU level to promote a high level of quality and sustainable employment, guaranteeing adequate and decent social protection, combating social exclusion and poverty and improving working conditions. In terms of structure and funding EaSI is managed directly by the European Commission. It brings together three EU programmes managed separately between 2007 and 2013: PROGRESS, EURES and Progress Microfinance. As of January 2014, these programmes form the three axes of EaSI. They support:

- The modernisation of employment and social policies with the PROGRESS axis (61% of the total budget);
- Job mobility with the EURES axis (18% of the total budget);
- Access to micro-finance and social entrepreneurship with the Microfinance and Social Entrepreneurship axis (21% of the total budget).

The total budget for 2014-2020 is EUR 919 million (in 2013 prices).

The objectives of EaSI are the following five:

- Strengthen ownership of EU objectives and coordination of action at EU and national level in the areas of employment, social affairs and inclusion;
- Support the development of adequate social protection systems and labour market policies;
- Modernise EU legislation and ensure its effective application;
- Promote geographical mobility and boost employment opportunities by developing an open labour market;
- Increase the availability and accessibility of microfinance for vulnerable groups and micro-enterprises, and increase access to finance for social enterprises.

In pursuing these objectives, EaSI intends to:

- Pay particular attention to vulnerable groups, such as young people,
- Promote equality between women and men,
- Combat discriminations,
- Promote a high level of quality and sustainable employment,
- Guarantee adequate and decent social protection,
- Combat long-term unemployment,
- Fight against poverty and social exclusion.

EaSI and social innovation

EaSI is broader than just social innovation as it covers many topics that were previously headed under employment and active participation. One can observe that EaSI is largely focussed on traditional employment policy issues agreed upon by the traditional social partners, ensuring traditional social security perspectives. In itself it is not very innovative. But how does EaSI relate to social innovation?

[15] National policy contexts have been described in the state-of-the-art report of the policy field of employment (van der Torre et al., 2015).

[16] http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1081

"EaSI funding is used to test ideas for reform out on the ground, evaluate them and then upscale the best ones across Member States. The concept of social innovation, which has a special focus on youth, is at the heart of EaSI. The programme will provide €10-14 million a year for social innovation activities." (p. 7)

EaSI supports social innovation in three ways: experiments, social entrepreneurship, focus of youth.

1. Experiments
   In its manuscript 'EaSI. New EU umbrella programme for employment and social policy' (EC, 2013)[17] the pillar PROGRESS has a section on 'social policy experimentation': "PROGRESS will increase its support to test social and labour market policy innovations and experimentation, looking at methodology (a more rigorously scientific approach) and finance (a commitment to spend between €10 and 14 million a year). The support to social policy experimentation will aim to scale up social innovations that offer innovative responses to social needs at Member States level. It will support the gathering of evidence on the feasibility of labour and social innovations that offer innovative policy responses to social needs, prior to being repeated on a larger scale, if the results prove convincing.(…) PROGRESS will also use its dedicated budget for social policy experimentation to further develop the potential for employment and social innovation." (pp. 12-13).
2. Social entrepreneurship
   In the EURES pillar the EaSI programme is funding microfinance and social entrepreneurship. It will facilitate access to microfinance for individuals and microenterprises, while adding capacity-building for micro-credit providers, and it aims support for social entrepreneurship, i.e. businesses whose main purpose is social, rather than the maximising of profit distribution to private owners or shareholders. Financing social entrepreneurship is a first priority for the European Commission. Funds will be used to help social enterprises take root and develop, or will be available for upscaling good ideas and best practices. In terms of self-employment and job creation, Microfinance has supported almost 9 000 entrepreneurs with microloans totalling more than €80 million. These entrepreneurs included members of disadvantaged groups, especially women, young people, minorities and low-skilled workers. By supporting a high percentage of people who were previously unemployed, PROGRESS Microfinance has to date significantly contributed to job creation (p. 19-20).
3. Youth
   The document states that EaSI has a special focus on youth, because "The concept of social innovation, which has a special focus on youth, is at the heart of EaSI". While there is no special section on youth the whole document is breathing an atmosphere of combating youth employment in various ways.

While there is reporting about how the money was spent, there is, to our knowledge, not yet an evaluation available about the effects and results. One relevant question in such an evaluation would be whether EaSI, as a building block within the European Social Fund, can contribute to inclusive growth, or that social innovation remains in a niche, i.e. too isolated to have a significant contribution to inclusive growth.

Social innovation and workplace innovation: policy in Europe

Workplace innovation, that we regard as an example of SI of employment (Oeij et al., 2016; Oeij & Lin, 2016), is usually not included in present definitions of social innovation, but more often related to innovation of work and organisation. According to the European Commission[18] workplace innovation can mean many things such as a change in business structure, Human Resources management, relationships with clients and suppliers, or in the work environment itself. It improves motivation and working conditions for employees, which leads to increased labour productivity, innovation capability, market resilience, and overall business competitiveness. Workplace innovation (WPI) has a simultaneous focus on quality of work and quality of performance in order to improve the innovative capability of organisations (Oeij, Ziauberyte-Jakstiene, Dhondt, Corral, Totterdill & Preenen, 2015). The link with social innovation is most clear with improving the quality of work (Pot et al., 2012). For already employed persons WPI means employee engagement, employee involvement and job autonomy and the full use of talents. Social innovation means better jobs. The human perspective implies that employees are involved in organisational change processes and that a company feels responsibility for the health and safety of employees. Therefore, such organisations have humanised employee relations where social value is not made subservient to economic goals. For unemployed persons WPI means something else, and has a closer link with social entrepreneurship. Companies are, for example, willing to create employment, to offer schooling and training, internships and 'sheltered' jobs.

[17] "EaSI. New EU umbrella programme for employment and social policy" - European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion Manuscript completed in November 2013. Take notice of the subtle change in that in the title ‚social innovation' was replaced by ‚social policy'.

[18] https://ec.europa.eu/growth/industry/innovation/policy/workplace_nl

While the first category of companies has a link with employment relationships, this second category can be placed among companies striving at improved industrial relationships, as it helps to create better labour market opportunities for vulnerable groups. In this second case too, public value is deemed at least as important as economic value. In short, WPI as an example of social innovation of employment stresses sustainability, employability, empowerment and humanised relationships.

With regard to social innovation and employment policy, perhaps the clearest example of EU policymaking is the mentioned EaSI guideline. However, this does not deal with social innovation exclusively, as its goal is to support social participation and social cohesion through labour market related activities and funding. Apart from such labour market and participation policy making, there is also policy making at EU level on the topic of workplace innovation (Pot, Totterdill, & Dhondt, 2016 and 2017). The European Commission has initially been making policy that was relating innovation and new ways of working to the topic of (new) work organisations. The ECs aim was driven by socio-economic goals, namely to achieve higher productivity, more innovation capability, and more employment and better jobs simultaneously. The emphasis of work organisation policy making shifted over the years from productivity, to employment and in the last ten years towards innovation.

Policies on work organisation and workplace innovation, however, have remained fragmented. If we try to identify different 'blood groups' among policymakers at EU level, we see the following. The 'workplace innovation protagonists' refer to productivity, innovation, competitiveness and employment, but the 'productivity people', the 'innovation people', the 'competitiveness people' and the 'employment people' hardly ever refer to workplace innovation. But they operate largely in silos. The policies of DG GROW (the European Commission's DG Internal Market, Industry, Entrepreneurship and SMEs) and DG EMPL (Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities) clearly overlap although they have not been integrated. Policies of work organisation and workplace innovation have never resulted in legislation or regulations at EU level. The implementation of workplace innovation depends very much on the social dialogue at European, national, sectoral and organisation level. Moreover, there is a strong feeling among policymakers that they should not interfere in company policies. Perhaps this hinders policy making, not only at EU level, but also at national level. Further, policy makers are driven by trying to come to an agreement based on trade offs between negotiating social partners on labour and organisation related topics (like employment relations, training, working times, working conditions). But workplace innovation is not an apt topic for trade-offs. On the contrary, successful implementers of WPI interventions can perfectly do without any intermingling with social partners.

The idea of workplace innovation is nowadays actively disseminated in several separate EU countries at national level. In 2011, the European Commission's DG Enterprise & Industry (DG ENTR) organised the launch of workplace innovation which reflected a growing recognition that innovation has a clear social dimension, and that investing in this social dimension helps to generate innovation in companies. DG ENTR decided to support and fund a European Workplace Innovation Network (EUWIN) in 2012. According to DG GROW (the former DG ENTR) workplace innovation improves motivation and working conditions for employees, which leads to increased labour productivity, innovation capability, market resilience, and overall business competitiveness. The EUWIN initiative ended in 2016 and is continued as a private initiative by the EUWIN-network. Follow up policy initiatives have not emerged yet. "For the European Commission this is an opportunity to continue the policy of supporting workplace innovation. Workplace innovation could be easily integrated in EU policy agendas such as Innovation, New Skills, 'More and Better Jobs' and 'Social Dialogue'", contend Pot et al. (2017).

Summarising

In conclusion one can observe that EU policy is funding social innovation of employment with regard to vulnerable groups and social enterprises through the EaSI programme, and stimulating workplace innovation through knowledge dissemination in the EUWIN programme. But the development of more tangible and concrete measures for social innovation and workplace innovation is left to individual Member States. An integration of SI of employment as we see it, has not yet materialized at EU level. By this integration we mean that SI of employment at the level of the labour market and the level of organisations on the one hand, and SI of employment with respect to social and public goals versus economic and business goals on the other, are closely related and better aligned. At national level, however, there are more glimpses of integrating these viewpoints (notably in Nordic countries, followed by Germany, Belgium and Netherlands - see Pot et al., 2016 and 2017; Oeij, Rus and Pot, 2017).

6 Resources, capabilities and constraints

6.1 Introduction to Chapters 6, 7 and 8

Chapters 6 to 8 present empirical information gathered during the 2014-2017 period. We will present the information for the policy domain of employment and compare it with the 'total average' of all seven policy domains, where this is relevant. The information stems from the Comparative analysis report (Mapping 1) and its related dataset (Howaldt et al., 2016), the in-depth cases studies of employment (Mapping 2) (Oeij et al., 2017; Ecker et al., 2017) and the policy field report of employment (Van der Torre et al., 2015). Information from the Foresight and Policy Workshops (Oeij and van der Torre, 2016; Oeij, van der Torre and Enciso Santocildes, 2017) is used too.

Chapter 6 first looks at funding and capabilities as part of 'resources and capabilities' of the 'pentagon model', then at drivers, which are also part of 'resources', and finally at barriers, which belong to 'constraints'.

6.2 Funding and capabilities

The success of social innovations is largely based on their resources, capabilities, drivers and the coping abilities to overcome constraints. From analysing studies about the innovation process resources, capabilities and constraints, drivers and barriers are not only relevant for the invention and implementation but also for scaling and diffusion of successful innovations (Howaldt et al., 2016). These elements are important for future policy recommendations if we want to scale-up social innovations and to foster and support methods and means to realise the desired social change. Resources, capabilities and constraints are a relevant part of the SI-DRIVE pentagon (see Chapter 2). In the comparative analysis report – Mapping 1 (Howaldt et al., 2016), resources, capabilities and constraints of social innovations were operationalised by

- the number of persons directly supporting the implementation of the project (regularly paid employees, volunteers, external advisers or experts, and other),
- the yearly budget of the initiative and the funding sources, as well as
- the drivers and barriers faced by the initiative.

These indicators were mainly analysed by focusing on their relevance for diffusion and institutionalising of social innovations and the related conditions for these processes.

Persons supporting the SIP, budgets and funding

Social innovation initiatives or projects (SIPs) employ staff which indicates the professionalism of resources if one looks at what kind of staff is present. From all cases of which we have information about persons who are supporting the SIP (N=988 cases), the 'total average' (all seven policy domains together), 45% reports that they employ paid staff, 26% are supported by volunteers, 23% by external advisers and 7% reports 'other support'; for Employment the percentages (N=154 cases) are respectively 51%, 19%, 25% and 5%, which tells us that SIPs in Employment have relatively more paid staff and less volunteers compared to the total average. Employment seems slightly more professional in that sense; perhaps because it is more embedded in formal policy programs.

The available 'yearly average budget' of a SIP is another indicator of resources, which was 12.3 M Euros on average for all policy fields and 4.3 M Euros for Employment (Howaldt et al., 2016). But only for about a third of the cases an answer was provided in the survey. For Employment SIPs 34% have an average budget with a maximum of 1M Euros; over 50% of SIPs do not exceed 100 K Euros; and 12% of the SIPs have 10 K Euros as a maximum budget.

Sources for funding (Figure 6.1) are rather diverse, which may more reflect that SIPs search for any kind of funding available and that this is not an intended form of risk diversification (Howaldt et al., 2016). It is no surprise as funding is still a main challenge for any SIP (see barriers in next sections). Moreover, it is no surprise with the knowledge that systemic support for social innovation is still lacking (see previous chapter).

For the 'Total average' the main sources present in their SIPs are partner contributions, own contributions, national public funding, economic return and conations from private organisations. The sources for Employment differ, in that partner contributions and donations from private companies play a lesser role. Instead, EU public funding is

more important for Employment SIPs. In general one could observe that three forms of public funding (EU, national, regional) together are rather significant, although it is remarkable that much funding still appears to come from own and partner contributions and from economic returns. Anyway, public funding (especially EU funding) seems more important than private funding (foundations, private individuals and private companies) when Employment is compared to the total average.

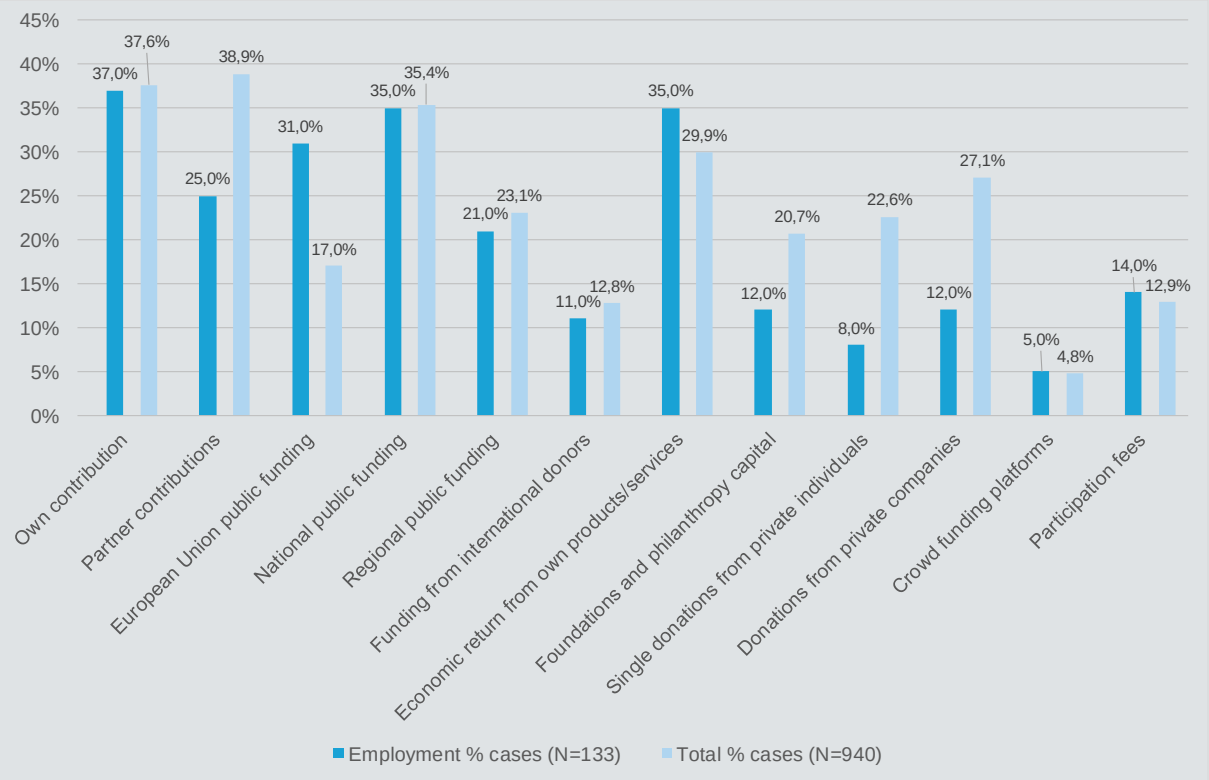

Figure 6.1: Funding sources

6.3 Drivers

Capabilities and constraints of social innovations are mainly influenced by faced drivers (including motivation and triggers) and barriers. Drivers can be seen as factors to overcome barriers. Based on the 'total average' of SIPs Howaldt et al. (2016: 85) draw the conclusion that "societal challenges and local social demands are by far being the main triggers and motivation to start a social innovation, driven mainly by individual persons, groups and networks. Therefore, social innovation initiatives and their sustainability are highly dependent on these actors, moreover because most of the social innovations are not embedded in public innovation programmes yet. An innovative environment (including overcoming legal restrictions, administrative and bureaucratic burdens), is also of relevance as taking advantage of new technologies. As funding is not a main driver of social innovation it is by far the main challenge to develop and institutionalise, followed by human resources barriers (personnel and knowledge)".

For assessing the capabilities the study investigated 'initial motivation and triggers' and a number of possible 'drivers'. We first look at the 'motivators' (Howaldt et al., 2016). While 'the need to respond to societal challenges' and 'to local social demands' are by far being the main motivation and triggers for more than 60% of the 'total average' of mapped social innovations (61% and 62% respectively), they are also most relevant for Employment (61% and 57%). Also 'an inspiring new idea or invention' and 'the possibility of taking advantage of new technologies for tackling social problems' is a motivator to many SPIs (respectively Total 28% and 23%; Employment 29% and 18%). Of less importance as a motivator to start a SIP are a 'social movement' and a 'policy incentive'(respectively, Total 15% and 18%; Employment 13% and 15%). While there are differences in the triggers for social innovations between the policy fields there are only rather minor disparities between the total average and Employment.

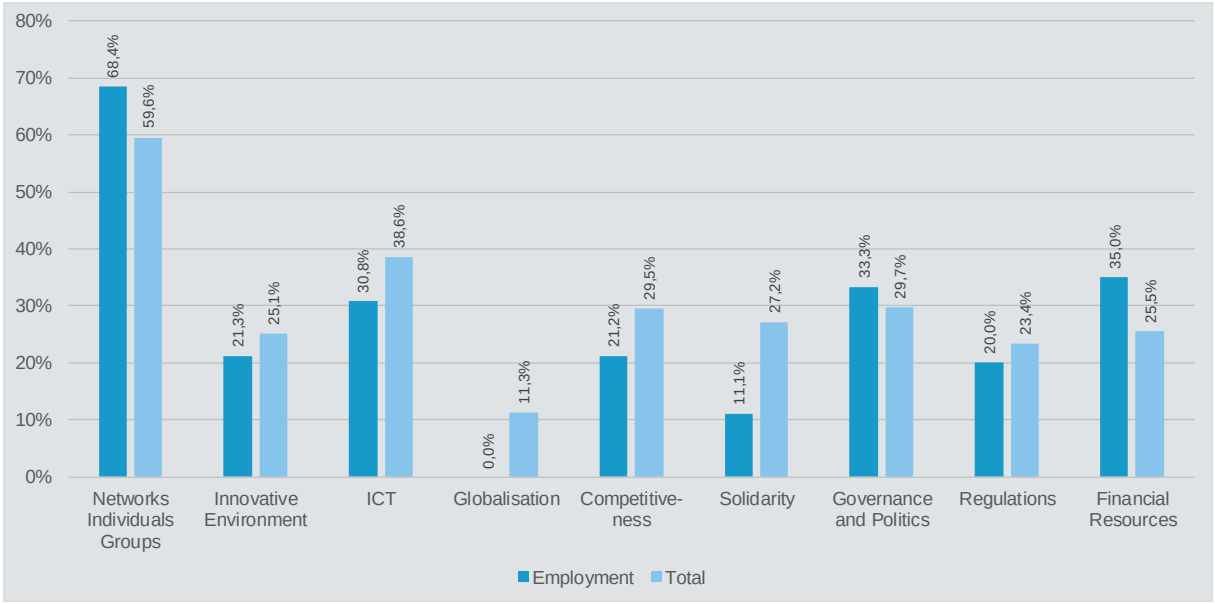

Figure 6.2: Main drivers (multiple responses)

Respondents were requested to rank concrete drivers for their SIP, and they could choose between "Networks, Individuals, Groups", "Innovative Environment", “ICT”, “Globalisation”, "Competitiveness", “Solidarity”, “Governance and Politics", “Regulations” and "Financial Resources" (Figure 6.2). The driver ‘networks, individuals and groups’ stands out as the most important for the Total average (in 60% of SPIs it is ranked number 1) as for Employment (68%). Other significant drivers for Employment are financial resources (35%), governance and politics (33%) and ICT (31%). Globalisation (0%) is fully irrelevant. The fact that financial resources are relatively of significant importance may indicate that the functioning of markets is insufficiently strong in Employment compared to other policy domains. (It is also high in Environment but that is based on a low number of cases, Howaldt et al., 2016).

Drivers were also discussed during the Policy and Foresight Workshops with external experts (Round 1 in 2015). In these discussions new and effective legislation; communication between government, companies and science; education in accordance with needs of companies; and technological possibilities (e.g. open source software) were identified as drivers for social innovation in Employment (Howaldt et al., 2016; Oeij and van der Torre, 2016).

From both information sources of relevant drivers (Mapping 1 and the Policy and Foresight Workshops) the impression is that they point to manpower (networks and people), funding, institutional support (governance, regulations and legislation), knowledge (education), and practical facilities (ICT, technology).

6.4 Barriers

Barriers to social innovation are often the opposite of drivers, i.e. the fact that those enablers are absent. Concrete barriers were specified for around a quarter of SIPs in both Employment (74%) and the Total average (for 77% of the cases barriers were named). Funding is an important barrier (financial resources mentioned above), and is by far the main challenge of the social innovations (Figure 6.3). More than half of the cases which named barriers are concerned by this (Howaldt et al., 2016).

Other barriers refer to institutional issues (legal restrictions, limited access to institutions, missing political support or facing political opposition) and human and knowledge factors. Given that empowerment, human resources, and knowledge are among the main crosscutting themes (Howaldt et al., 2016) the mentioned lack of personnel (around 20% for both Employment and the Total average) and knowledge gaps (around 20% for both) could be seen as relevant barriers, especially because the Critical Literature Review (Howaldt et al. 2014) saw the transfer of knowledge as a key component for the diffusion of social innovations.

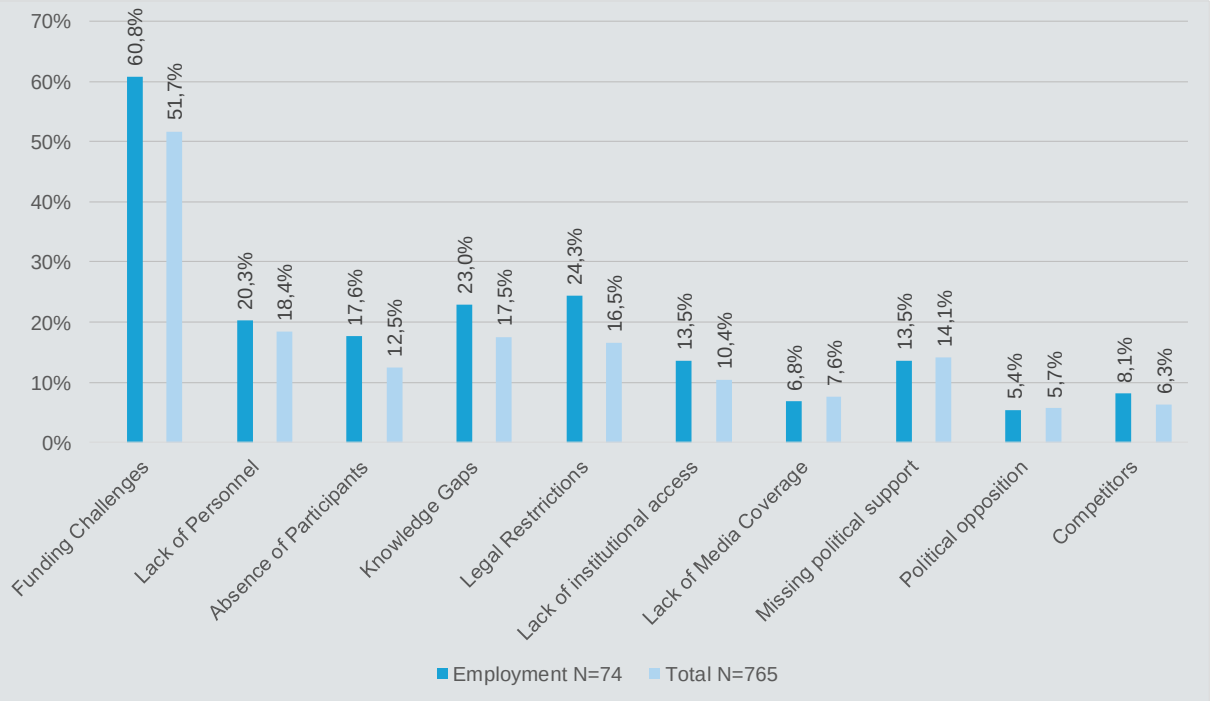

Figure 6.3: Barriers (multiple response based on approximately 75% of the cases)

As already mentioned for drivers the first Policy and Foresight Workshops (in 2015; Oeij and van der Torre, 2016) of SI-DRIVE conducted within the seven policy fields delivered also a comprehensive, additional and more detailed picture of the barriers in the domain of Employment. Those mentioned barriers were: differing views of politics, lack of authority and leadership, a regulating government, ever changing legislation and regulations; rigid, inflexible and traditional legislation; too strict regulations and complex procedures; entrepreneurship is not valued; resistance to change and risk aversion; too much and less funding, too high and low subsidies, too much and less taxes, too high and low taxes; ineffective education; technology, e.g. high speed development.

Howaldt et al. (2016) summarized for the total dataset of 1000-plus cases, that regulations and legal restrictions, public administration and bureaucracy are named by almost every policy field as barriers. For Employment this is much the same, although we should add funding challenges. One aspect, not particularly mentioned as a barrier, is the economic tide. The SI-Drive project (2014-2017) was executed in the aftermath of the financial and economic crisis (2008-2015), but what was measured were data about situations during which economic bad times and high unemployment rates were dominant. An obvious hidden barrier perhaps was the lack of job opportunities.

6.5 Drivers and barriers in the cases

Drivers and barriers were also investigated in the in-depth case studies report of Employment (Oeij et al., 2017). Three examples from each of the three practice field illustrate that qualified and helping people are an important driver and that funding and legislative issues are barriers that need to be overcome.

The first example is SSI Servicios Sociales Integrados (Integrated social services) from the practice field of Youth unemployment (Table 6.1). An initial driver was a push factor, namely the threat of high unemployment. Other drivers in this case were shared interest by target group members and the municipality to solve the unemployment issues from a financial perspective as well. In a later stage the fact that the SSI was able to broaden its role based on a solid business case became a driver too. Barriers were initially the fact that labour laws hindered the project to actually help the target group in getting a job. When the project, which evolved into a cooperation, became mature its main barrier was that it had to compete with other organisations for funding. A crucial driver both in the beginning and in later phases was the leverage factor of the presence of charismatic leaders that made the project successful.

Table 6.1 Case of youth unemployment

Youth unemployment & vulnerable groups	SSI Servicios Sociales Integrados S. Coop (Spain)
Goal	Cooperation: to make people self-employed in the realm of social care. Background: a task that could not be fulfilled by public body is replaced to this cooperation; otherwise 300 women would become jobless
Main drivers (push and pull)	High unemployment (also of the husbands of those women); conflict between Bilbao City Council and Bizkaia Provincial government (about workers and care); sharing interests of women workers and administration representatives; contracts awarded to SSI by the city of Bilbao (paid with capitalisation of unemployment subsidies); training to enhance employability; [later:] diversification and broadening of the scope and functions of the cooperation (scaling out and up)
Main barriers	Losing contracts in competition; newness of cooperatives; restrictive Spanish labour regulations
Role policy	SSI has strong relations with public entities; Public-private partnership (PPP) with Bilbao City Hall
Main impacts	Support for unemployed women, provide care clients, and cost-efficiency for the city council; imitation of cooperation across the country; stepping stone towards systemic change
Main leverage factor	Ms. Mendizabal, charismatic project leader, later Ms. Acedo; the need for survival created a new market (niche) with both economic and public value and growing competition over the contracts
Social change mechanisms	Solving two problems in one solution with a 'closed purse' (state care and unemployed women); it is a well imitable social business model
Effect on social change	Cooperations like SSI became a PPP example al across Spain

The second example is Xiezhi ('helping job seekers') Hotel in the practice field of social entrepreneurship. Again a main driver was a people factor. The initiator namely, observed that public employment organisations did not function properly to bring job seekers and companies together, and decided to develop a service by himself to carry out this matching. Other drivers in this case were the presence of demand for this service from companies and job seekers, but also that the initiator could run a profitable hotel business. This activity, improving job matching, did align well with what the government of the municipality strived after and was endorsed by them. Although the municipality did not fund the initiative, they did not create barriers to the project. The charisma of the initiator was a driving leverage factor here too, just as in the former case.

Table 6.2 Case of social entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship & self-creating opportunities	Xiezhi Hotel (China)
Goal	An organisation that helps university graduates to find employment and improve their labour market competencies; started to provide job seekers a cheap place to sleep (hotel). Background: owner Mr. Wen found out that public organisations to match employment do not work well; his driver was social responsibility/altruism.
Main drivers (push and pull)	Sustaining factors are the network of companies and the support of local public bodies (not with money) for social entrepreneurship that help resolve social issues; attention of mass media and winning prestigious prizes; the hotel owner can finance the activities from the earnings (sustainable business model)
Main barriers	Because the state supported this activity the biggest possible barrier was absent; no barriers

Social entrepreneurship & self-creating opportunities	Xiezhi Hotel (China)
Role policy	The state and local government support social innovation and social entrepreneurship; the general climate is supportive of innovation and combating unemployment; every activity that fits is promoted by media coverage, prizes and awards, lip service from officials; this stimulates others (like the companies involved) to step in.
Main impacts	Public service of employment has become a social entrepreneurship business model, but social entrepreneurship also became a practical value for alleviating social issues
Main leverage factor	The charismatic endeavours of Mr. Wen; the state supporting social innovation and social entrepreneurship (in China such support is more important than how the market operates); the timing was very good.
Social change mechanisms	Social responsible drive to help students and the drive of stakeholders (e.g. companies) to better match demand and supply of student graduates.
Effect on social change	Many students have been helped and many employers have been provided proper candidates in 8 years (8.000 students got jobs; 10.000 students were recruited for companies; partnerships were built with 300 companies; 30.000 students resided at the hotel).

The third example is a case of a Media company (from a newspaper group) in the practice field of workplace innovation. Pushed by bad economic circumstances the company had to cut costs, but in order to remain innovative, it sought a solution by improving the team work of the professionals. A driver was that employees, and their employee representatives (the union) wanted to be professional newsmakers and wanted to take responsibility in developing and implementing new ways of working and organizing to achieve that goal. Another driver was that at one moment in time a CEO was in place who was receptive to these ideas and cooperated with employees to make it real. In this way a business model innovation was combined with realising good quality jobs, a win-win. But the situation was not sustainable over time, as economic bad times eventually made external investors (venture capitalists) decide to give more leeway to cost efficiency measures, which was a barrier against the social innovation value for the personnel. The example however shows that even in competitive environments private and market organisations do have a choice to make economic goals subservient to social goals. Drivers and leverage factors were to a significant extent again people working together, namely management and employees.

Table 6.3 Case of workplace innovation

Workplace innovation & working conditions	MGL Media Group Limburg (Netherlands)
Goal	Goal: to redesign the work process into team work of good quality jobs and at the same times create a viable business model Background: MGL is a newspaper company with declining income and was forced to re-organise to remain competitive
Main drivers (push and pull)	Employee-driven innovation, meaning providing employees a role in the change process; good cooperation between management, union representatives/works council, and employees; bad business was a push factor; the city council and provincial authorities promoted the job security which was helpful
Main barriers	The owners are everchanging investment companies/venture capitalists with no long term vision and no strong sympathy for employee interests; there were several rounds of redundancies; a good business model was not developed (still is not); pressure coming top-down from the top of the holding
Role policy	Local and provincial policy officials support the preservation of work and company, but have limited influence (they offered a financial guarantee against bankruptcy)

Workplace innovation & working conditions	MGL Media Group Limburg (Netherlands)
Main impacts	Inside the company: many see worker engagement as crucial for success; regional effect: limited preservation of jobs/employment
Main leverage factor	Persistence of employees/woks council on quality; a charismatic CEO; a cost-driven need for change
Social change mechanisms	Market position is a driver; but also the role taken up by employees/works council and the 'progressive' CEO
Effect on social change	MGL is on the one hand an 'isolated case' of WPI; but it also is being described in the literature as an example of employee-driven innovation and what the risks are of top down investment policies; in that sense it has some impact on the relevance of WPI

Summarising

In summarising this chapter it can be observed that the resources, capabilities and constraints that really matter in social innovation of employment are linked to funding, regulations and laws, and to (charismatic) people. In terms of funding SIPs, mainly in youth employment and vulnerable groups, depend highly on public funding. Funding is both a barrier and a driver, because once the barrier has been overcome by being awarded financial resources, it becomes a driver. Networks, individuals and groups, people thus, are very important drivers. In the world of work and employment regulations and laws set boundaries for what is allowed or not, causing on the one hand rigidity for business solutions, while on the other hand guaranteeing security for vulnerable groups. As we shall see further on, people working together, or cooperation, is an important mechanism to achieve social change.

7 Governance, networks and actors

7.1 Introduction

This chapter focusses on actors, networks and governance of social innovation which is another dimension of SI-DRIVE's 'pentagon model' (Chapter 2, Figure 2.1). The intention is to learn more about the actors engaged in social innovation initiatives and to develop an integrated understanding of the role of various actors in social innovation (Howaldt et al., 2016). Actors engaging in social innovation come from public, private and civil society sectors; they can either play the role of individual or of collective actors in developing social innovation. These roles are developers (often initiators), promoters (like partners), supporter (such as disseminators and lobbyists) and knowledge providers (e.g., research and knowledge institutes, designers, users, advisors).

Actors and networks are governed by the modes of interaction and the institutional frame they are embedded in, i.e. the governance system or, from a broader viewpoint, the ecosystem. Modes of governance describe how decision-making, leadership and ownership are managed in social innovation. They are related to policy-making, self-regulation and co-creation of quadruple helix actors (the cooperating partners in an ecosystem like investors, policymakers, scientists, and companies). To understand the modes of governance of social innovation, one focus should be on networks, and their actor constellations, modes of cooperation and communication channels (Butzin et al., 2014, p. 154).

In the following the results of our empirical analysis of actors, networks and governance are discussed. Issues covered comprise the type of actors, their functions and roles, the role of networks including their geographic spread, user involvement and alliances between actors. The policy field perspective of Employment is compared to the 'total average' perspective of all seven policy domains together.

7.2 Networks and actors

Presence of actors

For the social innovation projects (SIPs) it was investigated which partners were involved. For both the total average and Employment partners in their SIP are NGO/NPOs (non-governmental and non-profit organisations) (48 and 51% respectively), public bodies (46% and 48%) and private companies (37% and 33%). Markets (i.e. business partners) are relatively underrepresented in the SIPs of the domain of Employment. But still, combining private companies and social enterprises (approx. 49%), indicates a number of parties which would suggest that there might be a viable economic business case for a larger part of the SIPs in the Employment field.

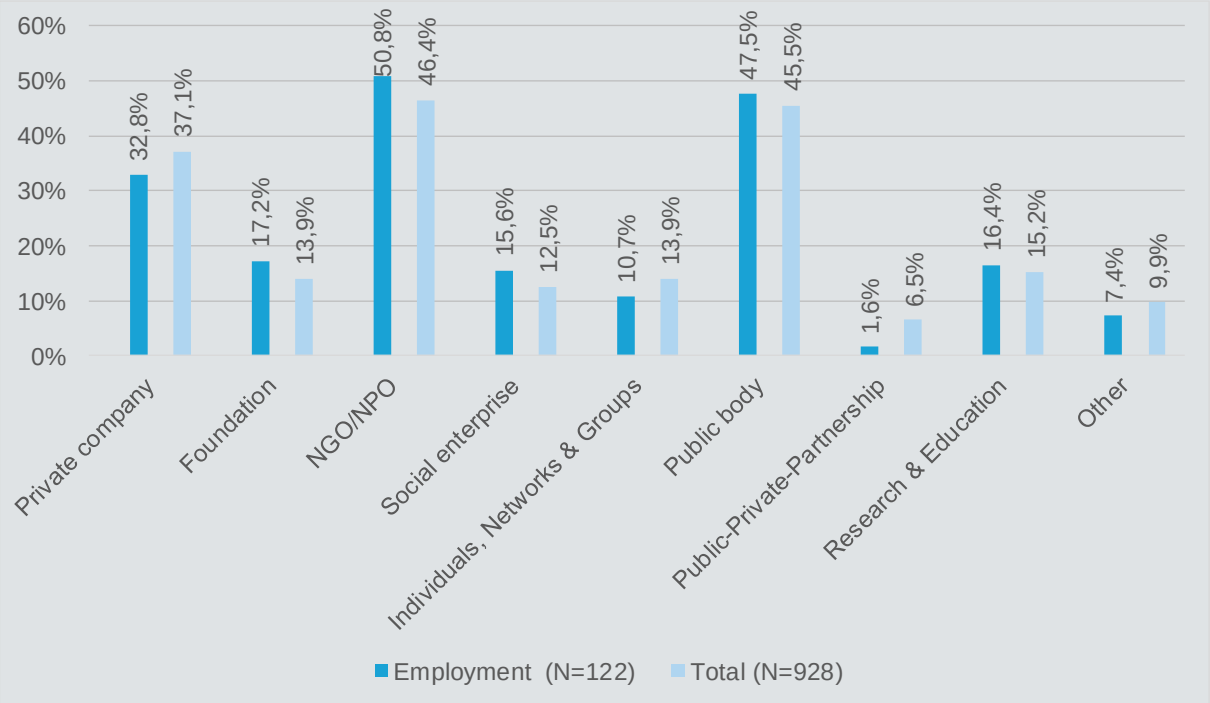

Figure 7.1: Type of partner engaged in SIPs (multiple responses)

While individuals, networks and groups are main drivers of SIPs (see previous chapter), their involvement as partners seems to be quite limited. Maybe this explains partly why SIPs have difficulty to sustain and scale up. Although a substantial part of them are companies with perhaps sufficient funds. It can further be observed that public-private partnerships are hardly ever present as partners, and that foundations and social enterprises are relatively more present in Employment than in general (total average), as could be expected. According to Howaldt et al. (2016) these quantitative results reflect the substantial role in social innovation initiatives ascribed to civil society organisations such as NPOs and NGOs as well as the large share of public sector bodies, which was underpinned by the compiling policy field report earlier (Scopetta, 2015, p. 15).

Against the observation that private companies play a larger role than expected, the reverse could be said about research and education (16% in both groups). Other than in technological and business innovation and in the context of ecosystems or (triple and quadruple) helix models, social innovation is probably much more a bottom up emergence of initiatives from either people, communities or bodies who are more outside innovation research communities. Likewise social enterprises (involved in 16% if SIPs in Employment and in 12% of the total average), who are attributed a central role in social innovation theory (see in Howaldt et al., 2014), seem to play a minor role. This might be due to the fact that the sampling of cases included initiatives that could fall under a very broad definition of social innovation (Howaldt et al., 2016).[19]

In general, however, it can be stated that Employment is a field mostly dominated by actors from NPO/NGOs and public bodies. Referring to the compilation report of the policy field reports (Scopetta, 2015), Howaldt et al. (2016, p. 95) cite what has been said about actors in the EU regards Employment: “A large number of government actors, social partners, NGOs and other private actors are involved, which, besides commonalities, all may have different interests at certain times. (…) the challenges in the field of employment are quite similar in different countries (…). In the policy field of employment, the government actors play an important role, not only in the formulation of policies and regulations, but also in the implementation of these policies. In the selected social innovative projects this dominant position of government actors is reflected.” The Employment field is hard to imagine without these traditional agents. In other words social innovations in employment without public bodies as a partner will be rather rare.

From the comparative overall analysis (Howaldt et al., 2017) 44% of all 1000-plus cases provided information of alliances, of which 3% of them have an alliance comprising only a single type of actors (NGOs/NPOs, public bod-

[19] It should be stressed that our samples of the 1005 cases in Howaldt et al. (2016) and the 136 in the subsample of Employment are not representative for the social innovations in general nor in employment.

ies or private companies only), while 91% of the initiatives comprise alliances involving at least two distinct types of partners, thus underpinning the cross-sectoral nature of social innovations. From this remaining group of 439 cases it can be observed that:

- Type 1 alliance represents 20% alliances, comprising public bodies, NGOs/NPOs and other partners except for private companies;
- Type 2 alliances represents 15% of alliances, networks of the three major actors, namely private companies, NGOs/NPOs and public bodies;
- Type 3 alliances represents 13% of alliances, comprising collaborations between public bodies, NGOs/NPOs and other partners except for private companies;
- The proportions of networks comprising one of the three major actors plus other actors range from 8 to 10%, whereas alliances of public bodies with other partners excluding NGOs/NPOs and private companies present 4%.

Role of actors

The research also gathered in what kind of role the actors were involved in the development of the SIPs. User involvement means that users or beneficiaries are involved in developing or improving the SIP. This was the case in 46% (N=442) of all cases. Users could have one or more specific roles. For the Total group of 442 cases (Howaldt et al., 2016: 98):

- 40% was knowledge provider (contribute in the form of dialogue, feedback, testing and experimentation, suggestions for improvement, tutoring);
- 26% was solution provider;
- 15% was co-creator (users as helpers to improve the SIP);
- 13% users as innovators (initiators and core developers of the SIP);
- 10% users as adapters (i.e. personalisation of readily available solutions);
- 2% users as funders.

By analysing the user involvement at the level of the outlined categories in the distinct policy fields in a next step, Howaldt et al. (2016, pp. 98-101) could reveal some marked differences across the policy fields (Figure 7.2). Users as ‘knowledge provider’ play a crucial role in all policy fields, particularly in Health & Social Care (51%), Poverty Reduction & Sustainable Development (47%) and Employment (47%). The high relevance of users as knowledge providers may be the result of the governance structures in those three policy fields. According to the compilation report they all fall into the cluster of “government dependent social innovation” that are foremost driven by central government and strongly depend on laws and regulation (Scopetta, 2015, p. 29f.). Less important than, for example, in Transport & Mobility (55%), users as solution providers is a substantive group in Employment (23%), and so is, perhaps surprisingly, involvement of users as adapters in Employment (21%). Howaldt et al. (2016) reason that a possible explanation might be the extensive use of ICTs in job seeking which allow for personalisation of applications. In this regard, “the policy field employment informs that ICT enables a better matching of supply and demand on the labour market (online vacancies or ‘market places’ for self-employed) and creates possibilities for (cheaper) online education and training and online applications and job interviews.” (Scopetta 2015, p. 24). Another explanation could be that many of the SIPs are about creating jobs through copying an existing solution from which the user, who acquires a job, benefits immediately - imitation in Tarde’s terminology (Howaldt et al., 2014). Finally, users as co-creators, at the core in the policy field of Energy Supply (40%), appears to play a negligible role in Employment (2%) as does the participation of user as innovator (2%) and funder (0%).

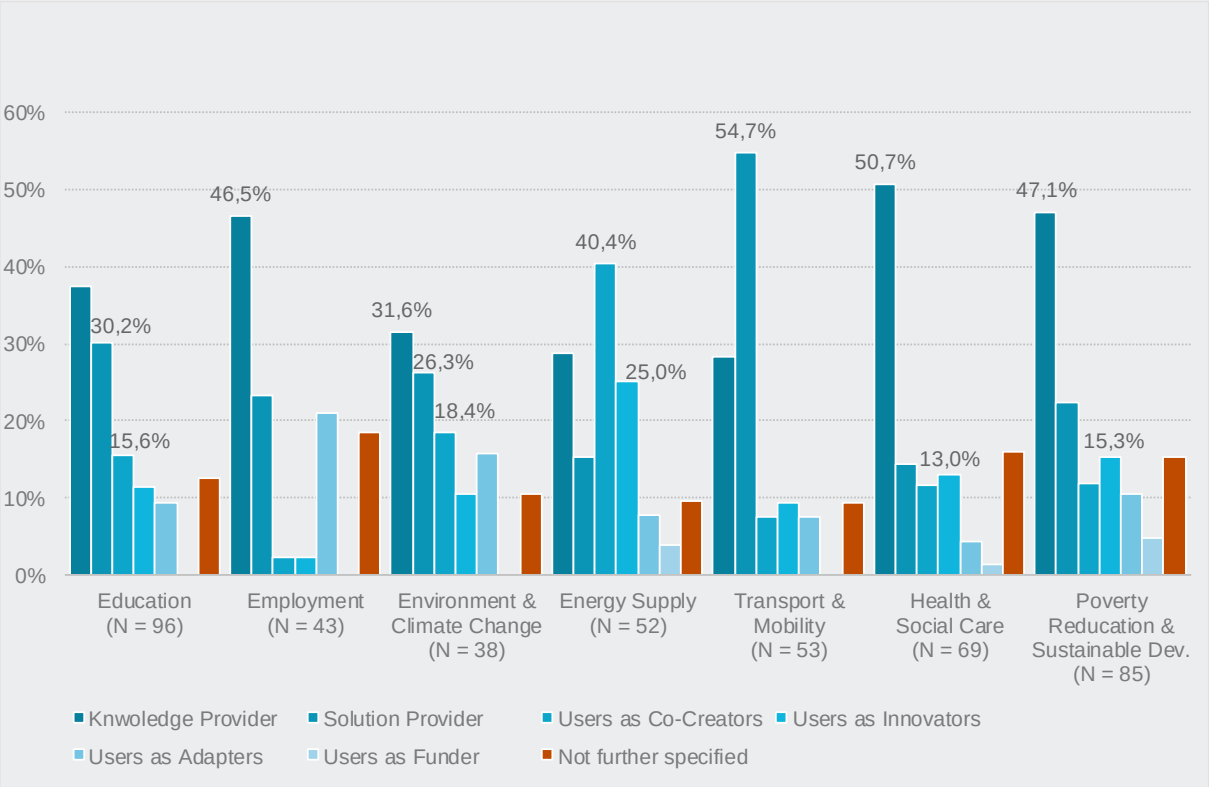

Figure 7.2: Forms of user involvement by Policy Field (% of cases within policy field) (Howaldt et al., 2016, p. 100; not all percentages were indicated)

From the comparative overall analysis (Howaldt et al., 2017) we know that the majority of social innovations were developed by rather small networks of 3 to 6 actors (38%), whereas additional 9% of initiatives elaborated solutions in a network consisting of 7 to 11 actors. Larger networks of 12 to 19 partners are rather an exception (2%). Half of all SIPs (51%) are initiatives developed and implemented by one person alone (35%) or with one additional partner (16%).

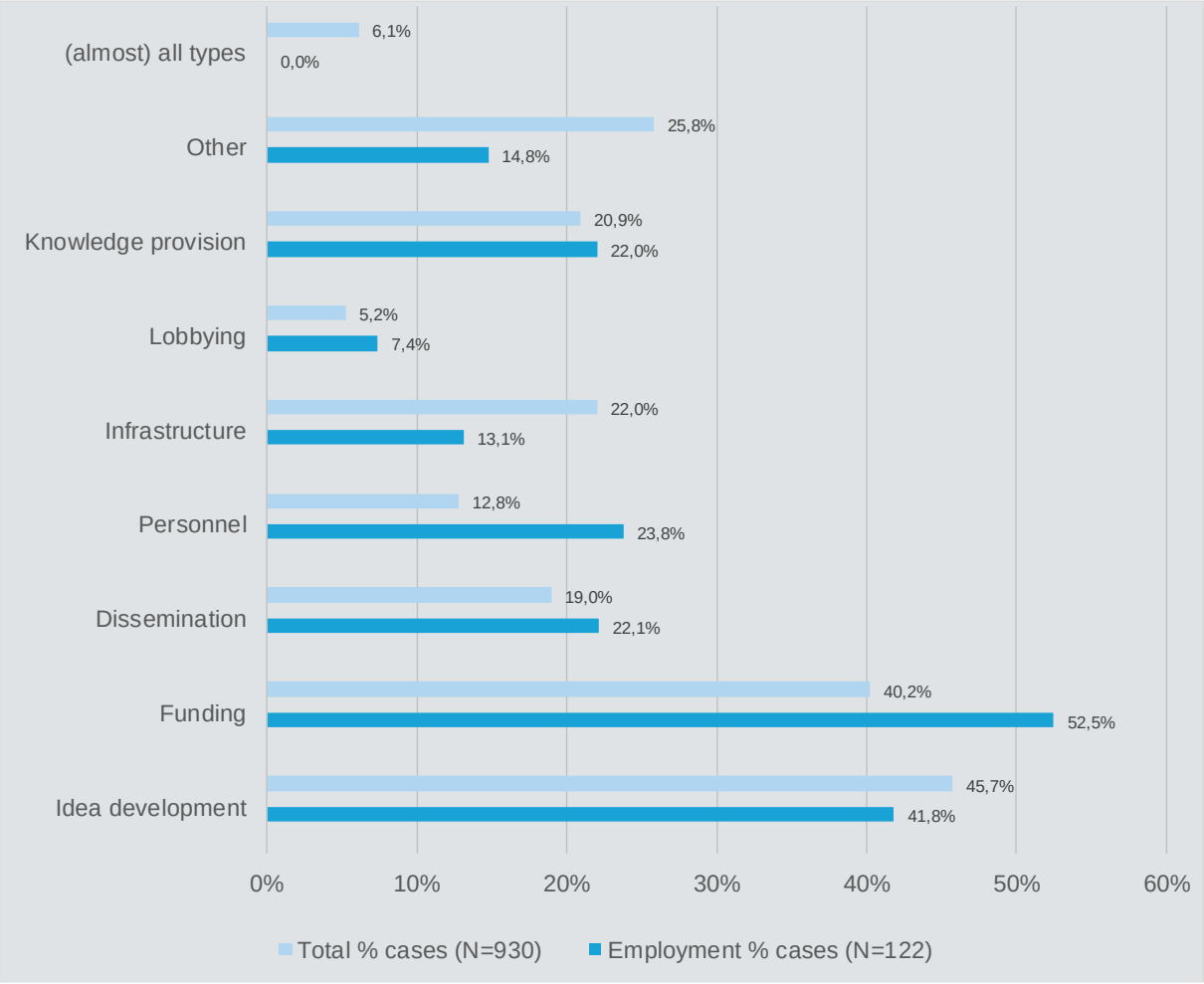

Figure 7.3: Actor's functions in the SIP (multiple responses)

The depicted Figure 7.3 above illustrates the actor's function within the social innovation initiative, that is, the type of support provided by the partners. While the actor's main function for the total average is idea development (46% against 42% for Employment), for Employment it is funding (53% against 40% for total average). Employment further differs from the Total average regards the fact that actors are relatively more often fulfilling a role regards personnel (supply), and less often with respect to infrastructure, 'other' and '(almost) all types' [of functions].

7.3 Governance

Social innovation is embedded in a certain 'governance system'. The embeddedness of a SI in governance is another part of the pentagon-model (Figure 2.1). In this respect we distinguish between two dimensions: First, governance as a framework, i.e. social innovations emerge in given governance schemes which are foremost shaped by the European, national and regional governance system, but also by the policy field. Second, governance as a process, i.e. the social innovation initiative itself and whether (self-)governance is practiced.

For governance as a framework four distinct types of governance frames have been identified (see Figure 7.4) by Howaldt et al. (2016), namely policy programmes, networks, umbrella organisations and social movements.[20] As Figure 7.4 illustrates for the total average, 42% of the initiatives is related to a policy programme, 37% to a network, 34% to an umbrella organisation, and 27% to a social movement. For Employment, however, the dominant framework are policy programmes (62%), which may indicate its substantial dependency on initiatives shaped by public bodies. But such programmes are also the most common framework for the majority of other policy fields. According to Howaldt et al. (2016) the empirical results underpin the conclusion from the Compilation Policy Fields

[20] It is likely that policy programmes actually mirror the framework as the present 'welfare' of 'labour market' system.

Reports that (a) the dominance of centralised and often hierarchically organised governance systems and (b) the importance of governmental actors are common characteristics across policy fields (Scopetta, 2015).

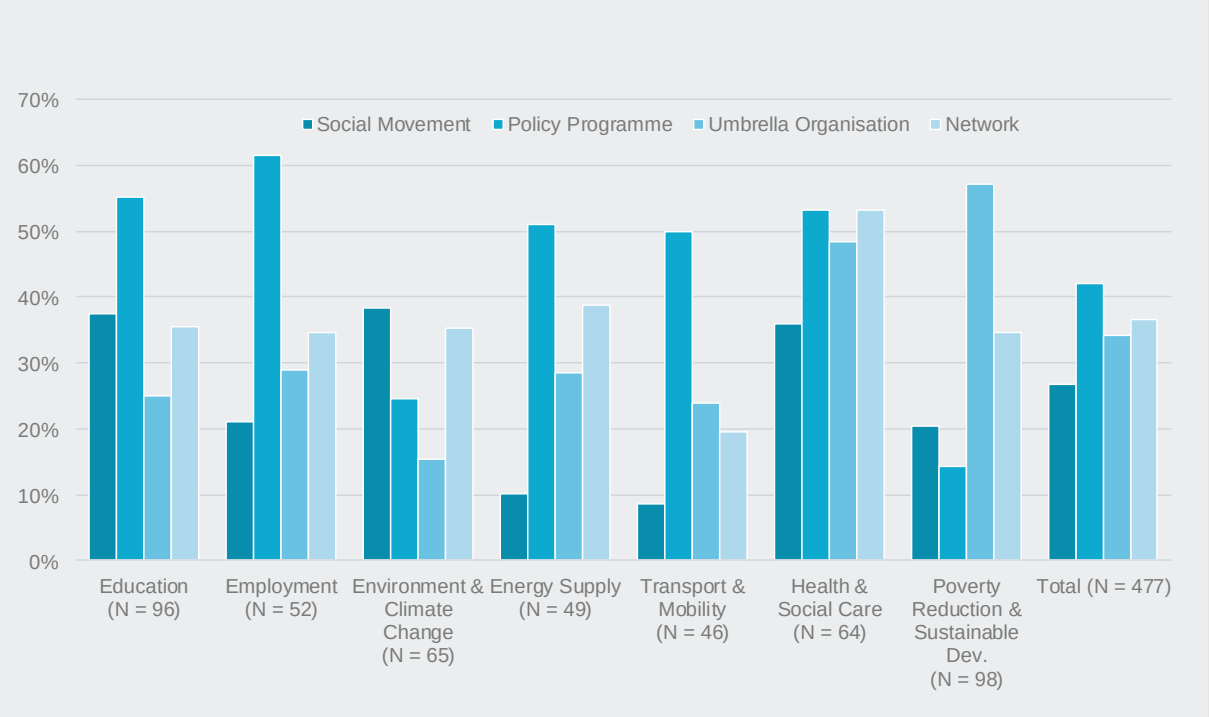

Figure 7.4: Governance Frameworks related to SIPs by Policy Fields (% of cases within the policy field) and Total (Howaldt et al., 2016, p. 112; no percentages were indicated)

To advance our understanding in how social innovation initiatives are governed, qualitative answers on the structure and methods of coordination and management have been coded, categorised and quantified. The identified levels of governance comprise the strategic and operational management, the implementation structure as well as the organisational background (Howaldt et al., 2016). The main picture tells us that social innovation initiatives' governance is characterised by rather formalised structures of strategic management, networks as implementing structures prevail with public entities taking the lead. Concerning the strategic management 'executive boards' emerge as most frequent mode of governance (24%), followed by governance by 'executive directors' (20%). On the other hand, participatory modes of governance - 'steering committees, advisory boards, general assemblies' - are of minor relevance. In terms of 'operational management governance' the SIPs foremost reflect their project character: 'project and task management' show to be the most frequent modes of governance, while 'coordination and district management' lag considerably behind. With regard to the 'implementation structure', 'network and democratic structures' appear as dominant forms of governance, applying to 11% and 10% of the mapped in initiatives. Although many social innovations emerge as grassroots initiatives, surprisingly the data suggest that 'informal structures' and 'division of labour' as modes of governance are negligible (3% and 2%). In relation to the 'organisational background', the proportion of 'public entities' (16%) in charge of governance is approximately twice as high as that of 'private entities, umbrella organisations and civil society entities' (approx. 7 to 8%); with 3% 'co-operatives' play a marginal role.

Summarising

Summarising the above shows that, although networks, actors and governance reflect variety and diversity, the SIPs in the field of Employment seem to be dominated by governmental bodies and NGO/NPOs and by a dependency on governmental programmes. In other words, SIPs in Employment thrive more in non-market than market contexts. Although it must be said that substantial private actors do participate in SIPs, therefore, we assume that there certainly are attractive enough business cases for SIPs in Employment for private partners and social enterprises to partake in these endeavours. However, when we also take other policy fields into account, the picture of governance shows a strong dominance of the governmental and public bodies in the landscape of social innova-

tions. This would perhaps suggest that Employment is not the only field where social innovation is dominated by governmental participation and this might make it questionable whether social innovation in general can really become more driven by private partners and by public-private partnerships than it is today. Of course such a conclusion would be premature as social innovation is a relatively young phenomenon. The future will learn how social innovation evolves as drivers for social change.

8 Process dynamics

8.1 Introduction

Process dynamics is another dimension of SI-DRIVE's 'pentagon model' apparent in social innovation initiatives and informing on their development (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.1). In order to understand process dynamics three analytical approaches are used (Howaldt et al., 2016). The first approach concerns the role of the individual and collective actors (here after: actors), their motivations and strategies. Here we look at the motives to start a SIP over time. The second approach investigates the project stage on the dimension that starts with 'idea/inspiration' and moves along with subsequent stages 'invention', 'testing', 'implementation' and 'impact'. We further look at diffusion and scaling of the SIP as a form of stagewise development. The third approach is to assess results of the SIP. Outcomes are the tangible process results.

After this first section on growth, diffusion, institutionalisation and scaling we turn our attention to the mechanisms of change that can be observed from the SIPs. Although the process dynamics are part of these mechanisms, these mechanisms of social change together comprise a larger spectrum.

8.2 Growth, diffusion, institutionalisation and scaling

Social innovators' motivations, intentions and strategies

When we look at the available data of the total average of cases, process dynamics can be reflected in changes of social innovators' motives over time. Based on four five-year periods of SIPs between 1991 and 2015 'social demand' and 'societal challenges' have consistently been the most important motive to start a SIP. This is also the case for the field of Employment. Other motives like (starting) 'social movements', (following) 'policy incentives', (bring into practice) 'new ideas' and (making use of) 'new technology' have been of minor importance as a starting motive. Findings however indicate that the 'new technology' motive gained in importance in time. This is maybe attributable to the spread of digital technologies, and corresponds with the finding that technology as enabler of social innovation in general is gaining importance (Howaldt et al., 2016). In some countries social media and ICT are attractive to apply in order to gain a position less dependent on governmental control.

Current project stage: from idea to impact

A project can distinguish five stages. It starts with 'idea/inspiration' and the moves as it develops to subsequent stages of 'invention', 'testing', 'implementation' and 'impact'. Assessing the project stage of SIPs, data for the total average illustrates that 53% of the mapped projects state to already have reached the impact stage and another 36% are in the implementation phase; further, 6% are in the testing phase, 3% in the phase of invention, and 1% in the phase of ideation/inspiration. The picture for the Employment SIPs is in agreement with this overall view (Figure 8.1). It should be remarked that the data gathering of cases is influenced by cases who were best visible, i.e. cases that are mature and successful and thus likely to show successful implementation and impact. Cases that just had started or that failed to sustain are underrepresented in the data.

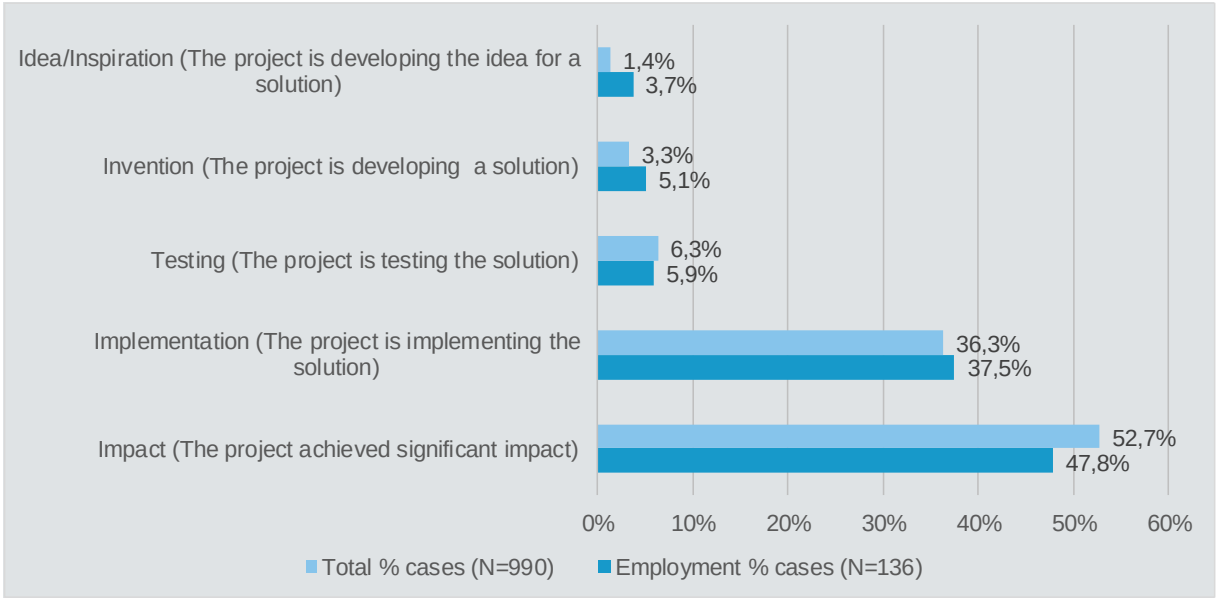

Figure 8.1: Current project stage

Diffusion and the process of scaling

Referring to Tarde's theory of imitation Howaldt et al. (2014, p. 15f.) emphasise that through diverse forms of imitation inventions are integrated into social practice. One indicator that could inform us about imitation or 'contagion' is the transfer, dissemination, and the scaling of SIPs. With regard to the novelty of social innovations it was shown that nearly 50% of the solutions have originally been developed by the project partners, while the remaining 50% have been adopted from other projects (Howaldt et al., 2016, p. 128). For the Total average 35% of cases (N=987) responded affirmative to the question if solutions have been transferred to other territories or contexts; for Employment the percentage is higher even 42% (N=137).

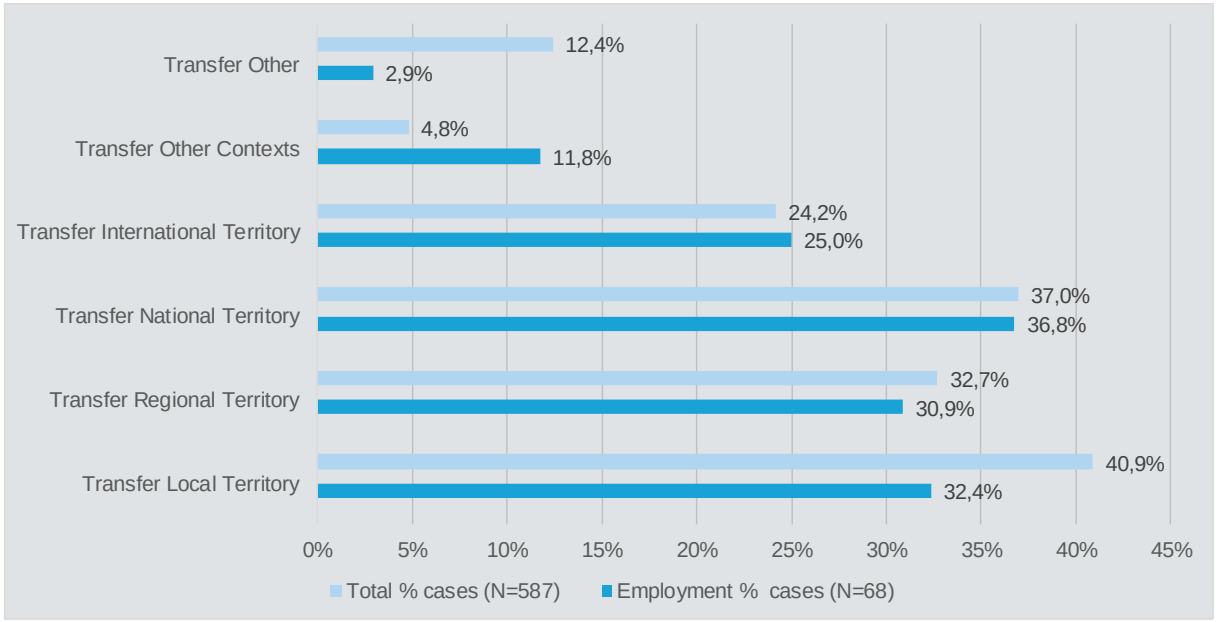

Figure 8.2: The transfer of the solution of the SIP to other territories/contexts

Figure 8.2 depicts that the majority of transfers of solutions of the SIPs took place at the national, regional and local level. Only a limited number of cases report transfer of the solution to 'other (contexts)', e.g., other policy

domains or other type or organisations. Apart from geographical transfer, we know how the transfer did take place (Figure 8.3). In more than half of the cases that did encounter transfer, the project partners transferred the project or solution, or part of it. But in more than one third of the cases, the project (or parts of it) has been adopted by new users (around 38% of the total average and Employment cases); and the project (or parts of it) was also adopted by external organizations (by 25% of the total average cases and by 19% of the Employment cases).

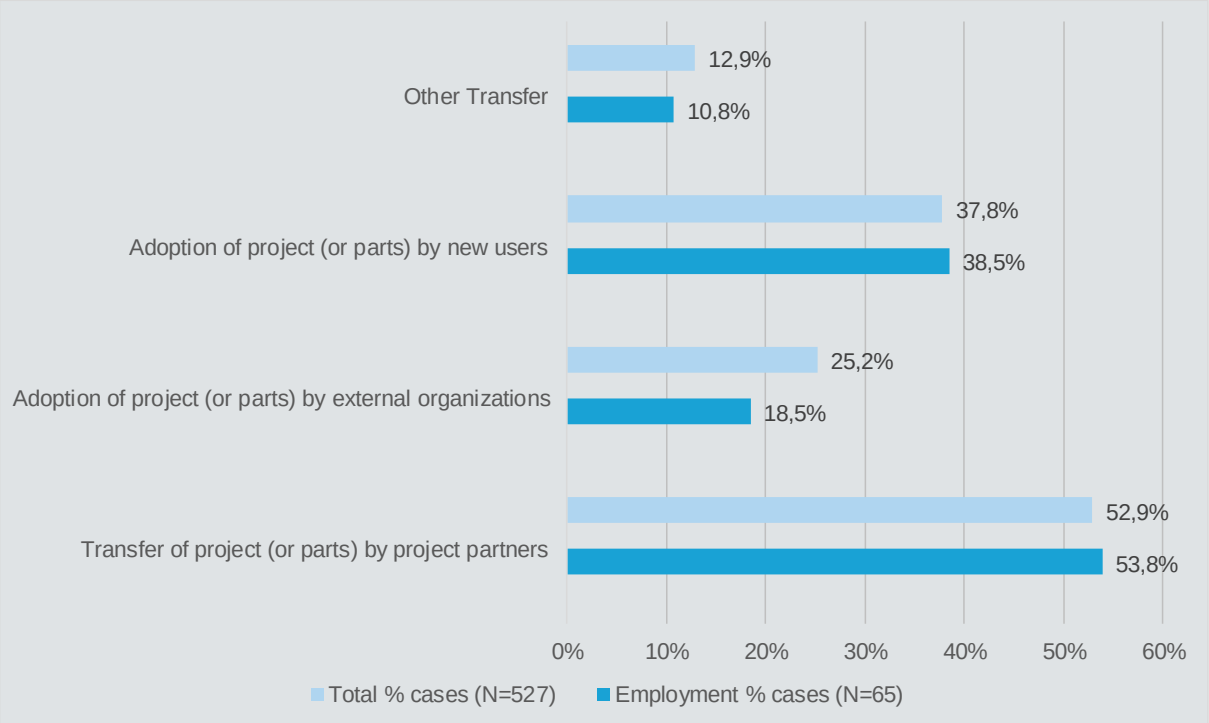

Figure 8.3: Transfer and adoption of the SIP

In general one could say that dissemination of solutions of the SIPs takes place quite significantly, which might indicate not only imitation, but perhaps a certain level of institutionalisation as well. Of course we are not certain about the relation between imitation and institutionalisation.

Another (weak) indicator for institutionalisation is scaling up or out. In total, 90% of the initiatives are scaling in one way or another, whereby increasing the (reach of the) target group is with a share of 70% by far the most applied scaling mechanism (Figure 8.4). For Employment the respective scores are 82% and 71%. At some distance network extension ranks second for the total average with a share of 49%, while organisational growth takes the second place for Employment with 46%. But scaling via networks is also important for Employment SIPs (38%). According to Howaldt et al. (2016) this result confirms that “upscaling of social innovations should follow the connection with the other helices” (Dhondt & Oeij, 2014, p.140), such as academia (first helix), industry (second helix), state (third helix) and civil society (fourth helix). Scaling in terms of institutionalisation is 17% and 12% for respectively the Total average and Employment. We cannot qualify this in terms of good or bad, because institutionalisation is related to mature social innovation on the one hand, and to innovations that have become institutions and, therefore, no longer can be observed as social innovations on the other. Further, institutionalisation takes time, so perhaps these modest percentages are ‘good’.

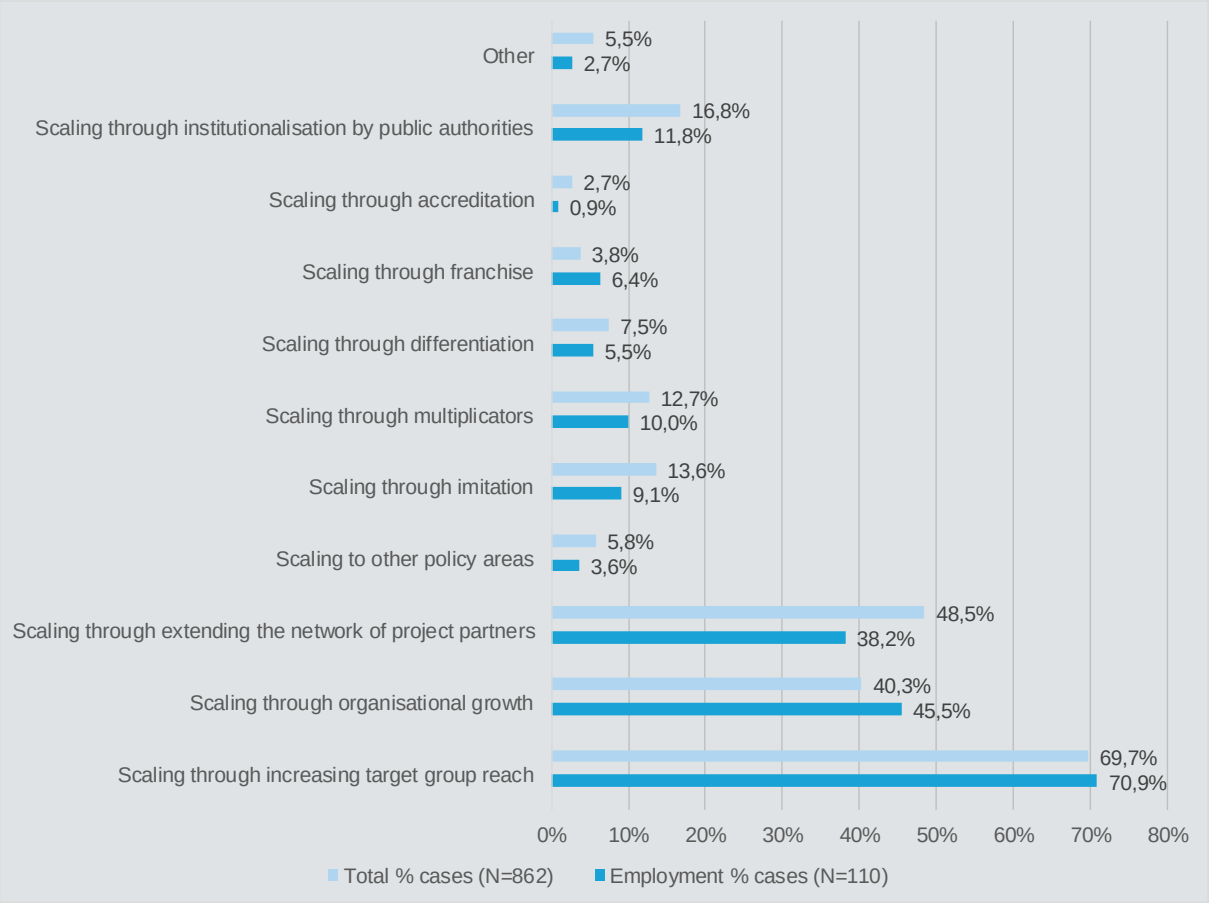

Figure 8.4: Scaling of social innovation by mechanism

Social innovation outcomes

An important process variable is the results of the SIPs. Accounting for the spread of possible outcomes, an open question was used to capture the related data (Howaldt et al., 2016). The received answers concern different levels:

- Some replies focus on the performance of the project itself and name outcomes such as company or project growth, efficiency of the services or cost reduction;
- Other responses centre on customers, beneficiaries or users of the solution claiming the number of beneficiaries/user/consumers, integration and inclusion, empowerment or increasing employability as outcomes, while the latter two are closely interwoven;
- A third block of answers groups around societal outcomes such as quality of life, social cohesion, social welfare, economic welfare, environmental improvements;
- The fourth group emphasises cultural or institutional modes of change (e.g. legitimation/recognition and attitude change).

The key impression is that a large number of the Total average of social innovation initiatives are directed at positive results for the beneficiaries/users and society when asked for outcomes of their solutions (Figure 8.5).

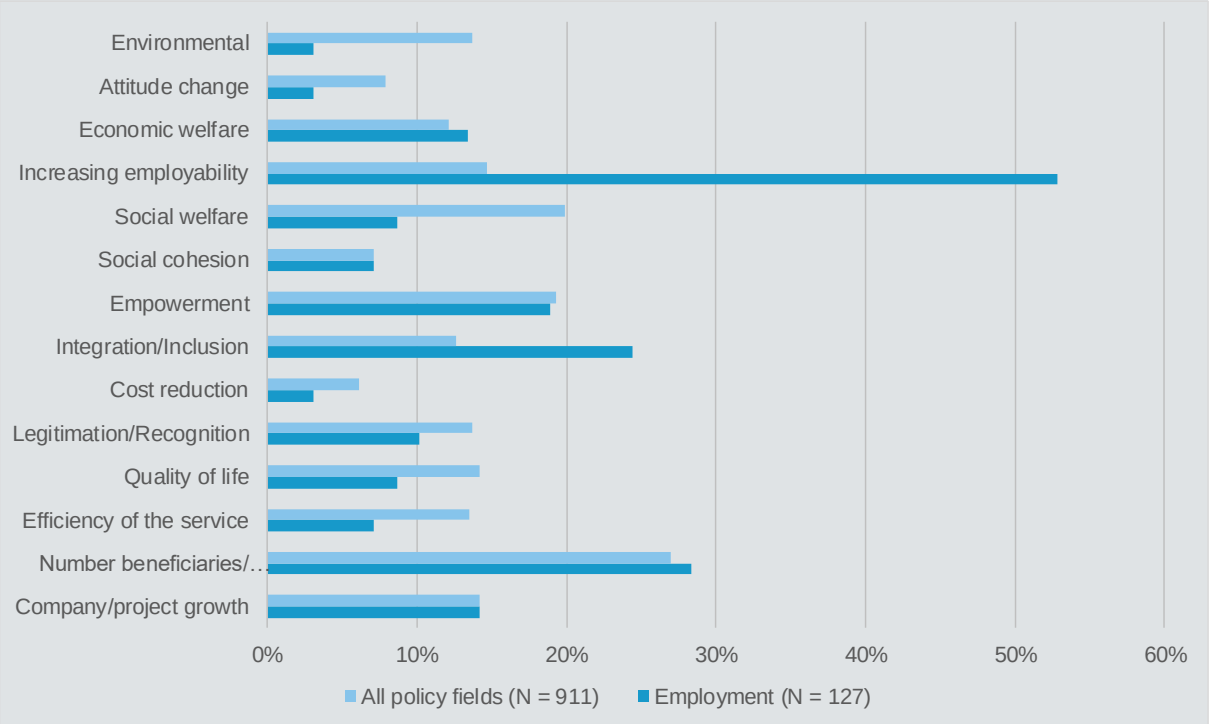

Figure 8.5: Social innovation outcomes (multiple responses)

The outcomes identified for SIPs of Employment are largely 'increasing employability' (53%), and further improve the situation of 'beneficiaries' (28%) and support 'integration/inclusion' (24%). Employment is obviously crucial for integration and social cohesion through work. The outcome 'company/project growth' (14% for both Employment and the total average) may indicate the relevance of workplace innovation as well or, more likely perhaps, the fact that the social innovation is a viable business case. Economic goals, like cost reduction, and broad societal goals, like environment, are in comparison to other outcomes of minor importance in the Employment domain. The fact that the changing of attitudes is rather modest raises questions about the emergence of new social practices and social change, for which we do not have an answer yet.

8.3 Mechanisms of social change

One main objective of SI DRIVE is to elaborate on the theory of social change regards social innovation. The background question is whether or not social innovation causes social change, and, if so, what are the mechanisms behind this change. For this purpose the work of Wilterdink[21] is used, who suggested a model of mechanisms of social change (Howaldt and Schwarz, April 2016). Although the mechanisms of social change are broader than process dynamics alone, the most significant mechanism proof to be related to the process of social innovation, like cooperation and leadership. Based mainly on the case studies, we have assessed the applicability of those mechanism to the Employment policy domain (Oeij et al., 2017). In our discussion we first describe the mechanism (according to Wilterdink) and then apply it to Employment. We will present the mechanisms for the three practice fields youth unemployment, social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation to be able to point out some differences and agreements across those practice fields.

Ecker et al. (2017) divided the mechanisms of social change into three groups:[22]

- **Input and start-up mechanisms** - these consist of the inputs and basic processes that social innovation needs to start and to effect social change: **learning (1), variation (2) and selection (3)**;

[21] Nico Wilterdink (1987), Social Structure and Social Change. In: Encyclopaedia Brittannica; Nico Wilterdink &William Form (2014): Social change. In: Encyclopædia Britannica (Ed.): Encyclopædia Britannica Online. Internet: http://www.britannica.com/topic/social-change [last accessed 11.02.2016].

[22] The first group was mentioned 'input and process mechanisms' but since every mechanism is process-related we changed the word process into start-up.

- **Driver mechanisms** - these consist of the drivers that social innovation needs to overcome possible barriers and effect social change: **conflict/tension (4/7), competition (5) and cooperation (6)**;
- **Outcome mechanisms** - these consist of the outcomes that social innovation needs and generates to effect (sustainable) social change: **diffusion (of technological) innovations/complementary innovation (8), planning/institutional change (9)**.

1. Learning: Evolutionary theories in social sciences stress the cumulative nature of human knowledge. Actors realize mistakes, apply new ideas and engage in processes of learning, which results in tacit and codified new knowledge
   Learning is crucial to innovation, as is, in general, the cumulation of knowledge. The three practice fields of employment differ in this respect. In the practice field youth employment, for instance, social innovation can stand on the 'shoulders of giants' because there is such a long history of traditional employment policies. They are capable of learning. As the innovation examples in all three practice fields are scattered and rather unconnected this particularly type of learning, however, affects social change only in a limited way. For practice field workplace innovation learning has another context. There is much knowledge about the topic but it is present in organisations that are - as competitors - not contributing to the cumulation of knowledge where everyone can go and get it. Many organizations reinvent the wheel perhaps. Therefore knowledge absorption, acquiring external knowledge from other companies, is less evident than learning from the general literature and from consultants.

2. Variation: Variation can range from 1) new (collective) ideas to 2) single innovation projects which introduce novelty and hence variation. Ad 1) Collective ideas are the cause and consequence of social change. The spread of beliefs, values, value systems, of fashions, of religions, of cultural symbols, of rules of behaviour. Ad 2) Single innovation projects are on the one hand incremental innovation projects that innovate along a given trajectory; on the other hand, radical innovations deviate from the trajectory and may lay the ground for a new trajectory.
   Variation can introduce novelty and thus change. In social innovation variation is a typical feature because most activities address individual problems. In several of the studied cases there is variation because every new client or participant requires another (personalized) approach, and over the years programs and trajectories get refined in ways that become more effective. Due to such successful examples social change is affected gradually over time. Variation can also come from collective ideas which then spread new values and beliefs, and subsequently become imitated and copied. Another type of variation comes from 'Neue Kombinationen' and these can for example be found among cases of workplace innovation: different combinations of organizational measures together (for example combining different HR, IT, financial, marketing and organizational elements) create new patterns and accumulate variations of patterns under which companies can perform better in combination with good quality jobs. Variation thus is a building block of social change.

3. Selection: This incorporates processes of adoption, diffusion and imitation, but also processes of decline and death of initiatives.
   Selection cannot be seen apart from learning and variation as good examples get imitated and diffused, and bad examples decline. Our database is of course biased by this selection effect as mostly 'good cases' got recorded in Mapping 1. A negative selection effect is observed of institutions that do not work, like the public employment offices in Spain and China for example. Social innovation initiatives in fact replace them partly, as they get better results. For that reason there is also resistance from existing public bodies, as they see newcomers as a threat to their position. Selection implies making choices about adoption, diffusion an imitation. A crucial role in this regard is (charismatic) leadership and personality. Many cases mention the importance of such leadership, and it would be right to state that leadership is often a strong leverage factor, for example when such leaders are in the role of entrepreneur, manager or politician. Most if not all social innovations require leadership that selects (i.e. grab opportunities), guides and motivates. Selection means that the best in adapting to circumstances will survive. Social innovation does that of course, when it is successful. In the employment domain that is no different, with the additional remark that cooperation and collaboration (co-innovation or open innovation if you prefer) is indispensable too: for example in youth employment and social entrepreneurship collaboration with existing public organisations, and in work innovation with branch associations. Selection thus requires some institutionalization that can effectuate such collaboration and support. Finally selection is also relevant from the perspective of 'who selects for who'. In youth employment 'others' help the unemployed, and sometimes the unemployed help themselves. For social entrepreneurs the same counts here to a certain extent, but market selection also plays a role and in some countries authoritarian governments may select which social innovations are to be supported. And in the case of workplace innovation the companies are the ones who select. Selection therefore is related to power relations as well.

4. Conflict: Group conflict has often been viewed as a basic mechanism for social change, these include revolutions, but also minor conflicts. Social change in this view, is the result of the struggle between a predominant class and a dominated class which strives for (radical) change.

Conflict in the world of work mainly concerns the classic divide between labour and capital, although lines may be blurry in different sectors and professions (i.e., there is also competition between employees and self-employed persons). Conflicts between stakeholders can stimulate social change. Regards employment issues and the labour market in general we see in the arena employees and employers, and their representing organizations and associations, as the main stakeholders who sometimes share interest (they also need each other) and sometimes differ in interests (acquiring income and security versus costs and risky investment in HR and employment relations). Regards employment issues changes evolve slowly along the lines of those conflicts with regard to, for example, labour law and regulations, employment and industrial relations, remuneration, and external factors that influence their relationship (competition, technology, economic ups and downs, etc.). Therefore, legal conflicts and decisions by courts are an interesting indicator for the strength of social innovations. In the case of workplace innovation not conflict but dialogue is a driver to engage workers and create trust; overt conflict (polarization) would make such innovations impossible. Conflict drives social change and containing conflicts leads to agreements on rules and regulations, and thus implies social progress, aiming to guarantee a certain level of well-being and welfare for all. As such conflict can both be positively and negatively related to the improvement of social needs.

5. Competition: This is seen as a powerful mechanism of change as competition makes it more likely to introduce innovations in order to have competitive advantages.
   Competition regards social innovation often concerns who is getting subsidized and which social innovation idea is awarded (scarce) funding. In social innovation cases competition runs the danger to hinder a broad knowledge flow. Once a social innovation project is accepted and installed, there is no competition (anymore) but a search for partners and knowledge to develop and execute the plans. The reverse can happen as well, as is shown by the case of the software network of IT companies that brought companies together who were originally competing each other over scarce IT-workers. But in general competition - even in the case on social entrepreneurship - seems to be made subservient to public and social value of employment issues. In the case of workplace innovation competition is more clearly than in other practice fields – youth unemployment and social entrepreneurship - a main driver. In fact workplace innovation should help companies to remain their competitive advantage. In workplace innovation economic competition is more natural than in the other two practice fields. Remember that social innovation should partly try to overcome the competition present on markets, by stressing its public and social value.

6. Cooperation: Although competition as a driver dominates theories that put individualism, individual utility at the fore, where social change is the result of individuals pursuing their self-interest, other strands of literature have shown that cooperation (e.g. literature on innovation systems, game theory) or altruism also lay the basis for human cooperative action.
   Cooperation contrasting individualism as a driver, can drive social change when actors work together (as the IT companies show, mentioned before) or when actors have (more) altruistic motives (see the examples of Xiezhi hotel, and SSI in Chapter 6). In many social innovation projects actors work together, help the initiator, and bundle forces to make a plan lift off. Often, public bodies and policymakers support social innovators, albeit not always financially, but by providing facilities and venues. Cooperation also comes from partners who have related interests, like educational organisations (much cooperation is with trainers and educational institutes who want to train unemployed persons). For social innovation as social change cooperation is indispensable and likely more effective than competition and conflict, as social innovation is less market driven than private initiatives for which competition and pricing are main drivers. Probably cooperation is the strongest mechanism for social change that moves social innovation and target groups forward. Cooperation regards workplace innovation differs from the other two practice fields. For successful workplace innovation cooperation is needed inside the organisation. But between (market) organisations there is most often competition.

7. Tension and adaptation: In structural functionalism social change is seen as an adaption to tension in the social system. For example, a gap between fast-changing technology and necessary associated institutional change of some type.
   There are examples of social change that can be seen as an adaptation to a social systems' tension. One is perhaps the embracing of social entrepreneurship in collective, mixed economies with central governance (like the Chinese case Xiexhi Hotel, and the Russian case Mama Works). This may become institutionalised, but it is not yet the case in these countries (although some policy making has been under way to support it). Social entrepreneurship contributes to social cohesions and can reduce social tension. Other examples are institutional renewal as an answer to poverty and lack of governmental vigour (like the emergence of cooperatives in the Spanish case) and building networks as a buffer against competition (like the cooperating IT companies in Germany and the platforms where designers and unemployed people were brought together in Croatia). In Western countries one could reason that the decline of the welfare state enabled social innovators to fill a void when social risks were shifted from the state to civilians. Social innovation, thus, is a social change itself, triggered by tensions caused by austerity politics. For workplace innovation it can be said that

companies must enhance their capacity to innovate in order to survive. Tension thus stimulates 'constructive destruction' (Schumpeter) as an impetus for renewal and survival.

8. Diffusion of (technological) innovations: Some social changes that resulted from innovations adopted in society, may be technological invention, scientific knowledge, but also new beliefs, ideas, values, religions.
   Technologies that affect social change in these practice fields of employment are notably the application of social media which are so widely adopted. These technologies are used by almost all cases we have studied, and these technologies helps them to make themselves visible and to communicate with target groups and others. In addition to such technologies other ICTs support relevant work processes, for instance databases and algorithms improve the matching of supply and demand on the labour market. But technology is never a decisive factor for success or sustainability in the studied cases, especially in youth unemployment and social entrepreneurship. This is however different in the context of workplace innovation, where technology affects competitive advantage, and where technological changes can urge companies to respond appropriately to hold their market positions. Not dealt with extensively in our study, but relevant to mention nonetheless, is the relation between new technology and how this affects employment, the job content, and the required qualifications. Obviously digitization and robotization have a strong impact on work in general.

9. Planning and institutionalisation of change: Social change may result from goal-directed large scale planning, by governments, bureaucracies, and other large scale organisations. The wider the scope, the more the competencies needed, the more difficult to reach goals and the more likely that unforeseen events interfere. Planning implies institutionalisation of change, but institutionalisation does not imply planning. Included here are changes in the organisation of the state, interstate relations, laws and directives, programmes, etc.

   In some countries in our study planned social change is observed regarding state policies to support social entrepreneurship, notably in China, but also in Russia and perhaps in Turkey as well. Here social innovation and social entrepreneurship are seen as opportunities to meet both social and economic needs, and this could lead to institutional change. Observe that Western and non-western welfare systems seem to converge in this perspective, but coming from opposite directions in terms of welfare (and political systems). "Arguably, in this case opportunities and pressures are hard to distinguish, and in some areas where alternatives are lacking, self-employment borders on precarity rather than entrepreneurship" (Ecker et al., 2017). To which we can add that the institutionalisation of shifting social security and labour market risks from organisations to individuals (as a consequence of austerity politics) is in fact exemplary for the 'de-institutionalisation' of the welfare state in western economies. Again for the practice field workplace innovation the picture is another one compared to youth unemployment and social entrepreneurship, as renewal is supposed to be realized in collaboration with employees and with an open mind for ideas emerging bottom-up (social dialogue). This requires the institutionalization of decision latitude at lower organizational levels. Goal-directed top-down planning in companies is inconsistent with this thinking. On the other hand, it must be said that sometimes top down planning does work for certain companies and branches, and certain types of organisations. In a broader perspective successful social innovation needs a fruitful interplay between bottom-up and top-down activities. There is 'no one way' to success.

We are summarising the mechanisms of social change in Table 8.1 (an elaboration of the version in Oeij et al., 2017, and in Ecker et al., 2017). It is concluded that the mechanism cooperation seems indispensable and that economic competition is not really driving social innovation very much, as social and public value are deemed more important in most SIPs, especially in the practice fields of youth unemployment and social entrepreneurship.

Table 8.1 is based on ten cases which do not allow for farfetching conclusions as those cases are not a statistically representative sample for SIPs in employment. The sample however can be seen as a group of forerunners, namely as cases that are good examples of successful social innovation, at the frontier of social change in employment through social innovation. Cooperation and combining public value with economic viability seem essential elements for the new social change. From society a new way of thinking about ideology and state formation is requested. Namely, to firstly consider how cooperative and public value driven social innovation can unfold in society and what is needed in terms of institutions, governance and financial investments; and secondly, how such social change can be aligned with existing values based on welfare capitalism, individualism, equality and liberty. In the third place, at EU level it is urgent to consider how such values fit in the European Employment Strategy, the EaSI policy framework, and the European Social Model as a whole.

Summarising

In summarising this chapter we saw that most SIPs in the study are in the phases of implementation or impact, which might be explained by the fact that gathering SIPs is characterised by the fact that what you encounter in practice are visible, successful and sustainable cases; failed SIPs or recent start-ups hardly get exposure. Four out of ten Employment SIPs get transferred or are being 'imitated' at, mostly, local and national level, which is carried out rather often by the project partners themselves. Scaling happens a lot, mostly regards the increasing reach of the target group of SIPs, followed by growth of the organisation and extending the network of project partners. Institutionalisation as a form of scaling remains limited. The main outcome or result on Employment SIPs is increasing employability, followed at a distance by reaching beneficiaries and integration/inclusion. The most crucial mechanisms of social change through these Employment SIPs are its ingredients of cooperation between actors and stakeholders and of leadership by individuals who are pulling the initiative forward, who are more driven by public and social value than by maximising profits.

Table 8.1 The mechanisms of social change in SIPs of Employment

Mechanisms of social change	Practice Field A Youth employment	Practice Field B Social entrepreneurship	Practice Field C Workplace innovation	Overall view (qualitative interpretation)
Input and start-up mechanisms				
Learning	Based on employment policy 'histories'; building on the past	Much reinventing the wheel (perhaps due to absence of 'history')	Knowledge not shared due to competition and 'isolated' company policies	Limited effect as change mechanism
Variation	Gradual built up of effective improved ways to solve social issues ('history')	There is some 'contagion' of ideas/idealist entrepreneurs	'Neue Kombinationen' are a feature of every WPI intervention (unique 'bundles of WPI measures' enable competitive advantage)	Mostly incremental innovation, hardly anything that is disruptive
Selection	Imitation and copy behaviour occur	Imitation and copy behaviour occur	Selection is based on economic survival goals (and on quality of work goals)	The behaviour of initiators of SI is a crucial selection moment
Driver mechanisms				
Conflict	The price of labour influences the supply of employees (SI supports e.g. sheltered jobs, subsidized work)	Social entrepreneurs create opportunities for jobs (they modestly relieve labour market tension)	Dialogue between management and employees is more fruitful than conflict	Classic conflict between employers and employees dominates change
Competition	Competition for funding plays a role (generally, there is limited funding to allocate resources to different SI initiatives)	Public value is more important than to compete (and than economic profit maximisation)	Competition is crucial for economic survival	Competition is not a significant driver for social innovation (except for WPI)
Cooperation	Actors support SI initiators (not per se financially); there is no resistance to SIPs	Altruism and social responsibility are often drivers	Organizational stakeholders cooperate; employee engagement is regarded as crucial for success	Cooperation is an indispensable driver for social innovation (probably the most important social change mechanism)
Tension and adaptation	Decline of welfare state and shifting risks stimulate SIPs	SE as institutional renewal to fill a void stimulate SIPs	'Constructive destruction' and market competition force innovation and adaptation	Social/Environmental change forces adaptation

Mechanisms of social change	Practice Field A Youth employment	Practice Field B Social entrepreneurship	Practice Field C Workplace innovation	Overall view (qualitative interpretation)
Outcome mechanisms				
Diffusion of (technological) innovations	Social media and ICT application are enablers of SIPs	Social media and ICT application are enablers of SIPs	Technology (digitisation, robotization, etc.) can be drivers of WPI	Mostly limited to (availability of) social media and information communication technology
Planning and institutionalisation	The absence of new institutions and governance modes may hinder SIPs	Supporting rules and regulations (e.g. in China, Russia) stimulate SE	Restricting labour regulations limit WPI, but (national/EU) policies could stimulate WPI	Undecided, it can work positive as well as negative (perhaps scaling and sustainability require institutionalisation)
Crucial leverage factor	People as resource and their cooperation	Individuals as entrepreneurs driven by social value	Dialogue and employee engagement in companies	Overall (charismatic) leadership and cooperation are needed to drive social change

9 Summary, conclusions and recommendations

9.1 Summary

State-of-the-art report (2015)

Labour markets are regulated systems not fully left over to market forces. Governments find it important to determine the preconditions. They to deal with market failures or other undesirable consequences. Therefore, governments play a dominant role in the policy field of employment. How dominant the government role is, also depends on the type of welfare state (with Anglo-Saxon and Nordic countries as extremes in Europe). The role the government plays largely determines the 'space' available for civic and private actors to operate in the policy field.

In the EU, employment is a central policy field where the European Employment Strategy and the Employment and Social Innovation programme (EaSI) are at the core of the employment policy, which are the context in which national regulations and policies are developed. The EU and national regulations and policies together are the context for the employers and employees as well as for government agencies (and other organizations) responsible for the implementation of employment policies and social innovations. The available funds on EU and national level are a stimulating factor for social innovation, but are limited in the specific field of social innovation of employment.

There are several social innovations in the field of employment in all countries, but the explicit attention for social innovation differs. Not in all countries, social innovation is an explicit topic in government policies, and a general accepted definition on social innovation, and thus how policy should deal with it, is often lacking.

Besides the policy context, there are many other developments influencing social innovations in the field of employment. The economy is obviously very important, as it affects employment policies and their budgets. Budget cuts as a result of the passed economic crisis immediately influence social innovation and become a barrier - or for others a new challenge. Technological innovations can be a driver and at the same time a barrier for employment as well. As a driver, technology creates new possibilities to develop and implement employment policies and it creates possibilities to develop new products and services, which creates new jobs. As a barrier technology can replace labour and can make employees redundant. Other possible drivers observed in the State-of-the-art report were a constructive attitude of employers' organisations and labour unions, the possibilities offered by public private partnerships, an active civil society, the demand for corporate social responsibility and political support for social innovation. Other expected barriers were bureaucracy in the government organization and complex employment laws, the lack of monitoring and evaluation of employment policies, a lack of vision on social innovation, and a too strong dependency of government funds (for the take up and continuity of SI projects).

The most important challenges at EU and national levels, that were in first instance identified, for social innovation of employment are:

- Unemployment, especially youth unemployment, long term unemployment, and unemployment among (other) vulnerable groups (disabled, immigrants, low skilled);
- Labour force participation/economic activity rate (e.g. elderly, woman, disabled);
- Modernize and improve the performance of public employment services;
- Improving the quality of work (and creating more innovative and learning organisations);
- Gender inequality.

In addition, a number of broader challenges were identified as priority in the context of employment policy:

- Investment in education and training and lifelong learning;
- Investments in knowledge, technology and innovation;
- Entrepreneurship (entrepreneurial skills, entrepreneurial culture, business activity);
- Poverty and social inclusion.

Several related challenges were regarded as important as well. These include: skills mismatch, skilled labour shortage, labour market segmentation (e.g. due to different sorts of employment relations), adapting organizations and labour markets to an ageing workforce, informal economy, 'bureaucratic' complex labour laws, migration and brain drain. The importance of these challenges differs among countries.

The challenges for social innovation of employment were listed, discussed and regrouped, and subsequently clustered into a selection of three practice fields. The practice fields are:

- Youth unemployment & vulnerable groups (including challenges like job support and matching of job seekers and training and education of job seekers);
- Social entrepreneurships & self-creating opportunities (including enterprises employing vulnerable groups);
- Workplace innovation & working conditions (including working environments).

Comparative analysis of Mapping 1 (2016)

The comparative analysis analysed more than 1,000 cases of which 136 are SIPs of Employment. Its main findings are summarised in Table 9.1 for all policy domains together (Howaldt et al., 2016, p. 1-2, 141f.) to which we added our interpretation for the Employment domain.

Table 9.1 Main results from the comparative analysis (Mapping 1)

Overall (all policy fields)	Policy field employment
1. Social needs and societal challenges are the focus, start, motivation, trigger and driver. Public and social value are dominant. There is no shared understanding about goals/outcomes but many project do have beneficiaries and social impact	1. Also needs and challenges of social entrepreneurs, and organisations (workplace innovation) are the focus, start, motivation, trigger and driver; economic needs are important as well.
2. Social innovations in a sense of new practices appear in a variety of forms and concepts and high dynamics	2. The forms of projects or organisations vary, but are mostly led by an individual or a private or public organisation and have smaller budgets compared to the Total average of social innovations.
3. Manifold actors and cross sector collaborations are the emerging backbone	3. In most cases a public body is a main actor and often cross sector collaboration takes place with education; for workplace innovation both public and private organisations are main actors (as employers). The alliances are less varied compared to the Total average.
4. Empowerment and user involvement are a core element, i.e. there is much involvement but it is questionable if it leads to expected empowerment of beneficiaries and citizens	4. Empowerment and user involvement are a core element in social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation, but perhaps much less in youth unemployment (unless in training circumstances).
5. Complexity of the innovation processes needs different modes of governance; models are needed that address sustainability, self-organization, cross-sector cooperation, networks and new ways of knowledge production	5. In youth unemployment public bodies dominate governance; more bottom up governance would give target groups more voice and resilience (Bourgon, 2011); in workplace innovation more bottom up organizing emerges
6. Emerging ecosystems in social innovation could support needed collaboration, as in quadruple helix models; here more understanding about ecosystem mechanism is required	6. Field labs, smart industry labs, social innovation labs and regional innovations ecosystems are emerging in the domain of employment, where combinations are being sought between issues of labour market, new skills, workplace innovation and business/technological innovation; but its mechanisms are still unclear and new
7. Different levels of intervention are necessary, as there is a complex interaction between the level 1 of actors, the level 2 of interplay between actors and the level 3 of politics; how can social problems be addressed that are not being addressed by the present (policy, delivery and innovation) model?	7. The employment practice fields operate at the three mentioned levels, but in different ways. Yet they are confronted with the same question: what model of (policy) interventions addresses the social problems of these three practice fields?

Overall (all policy fields)	Policy field employment
8. Practice Field approach helps to combine social innovations as this expresses general characteristics common to different projects, and informs on multiple innovation and the interplay of invention and imitation	8. The three employment practice fields differ (youth unemployment, social entrepreneurship, workplace innovation) but in each field patterns can be grasped that are common across different SIPs. For example charismatic leadership in social entrepreneurship and dialogue and employee engagement in workplace innovation
9. Resources and barriers are manifold, but social innovations expand significantly; although main barriers mentioned are at the level of the SIP (lack of funding, personnel, knowledge) the main challenge is on level 2 and 3 (legal/framework conditions and mind-sets of decision makers)	9. For employment the situation is comparable for youth unemployment an social enterprises especially; driven by market forces workplace innovation will develop in addition its own solutions
10. Framework conditions and enabling factors still need to be developed: Active civil society/inspired and entrepreneurial individuals; funding and access to finance; new technologies offer new opportunities for social innovation; networks and platforms for cooperation between different stakeholders; a supportive legislative environment; a sense of urgency and increased focus and attention; political change, transition from one system to another, the process of EU integration, governments to take a more supportive approach to the role of civil society.	10. For employment these points are applicable too; in addition, a great obstacle are legal restrictions, but these are at the same time an important protection for vulnerable groups.
11. Social Innovation Initiatives are driven by problems and depending on individuals! The lack of market driven innovation explains the limited role of science and research and the lack of institutional embeddedness, and this makes problem-driven social innovation vulnerable.	11. The same counts for youth unemployment, and to a lesser extent, to social entrepreneurship; for workplace innovation market forces do play a role, but WPI is still seen as subservient to technological and business innovation

According to Howaldt et al., (2016) the research shows that social innovation has become a ubiquitous concept, and reveals the importance of social innovation in many policy fields (…). *Social innovations* are requiring specific conditions because they aim at activating, fostering, and utilizing the *innovation potential of the whole society*. Therefore, new ways of developing and diffusing social innovations are necessary (e.g. design thinking, innovation labs etc.) as well as additional far reaching resources, to unlock the potential of social innovation in society and to enable participation of the relevant actors and civil society. This is not only a matter of *appropriate funding* but also of *new participation and collaboration structures, co-creation and user involvement, empowerment and human resources development*. (…) The mapping demonstrates that social innovation processes and the underlying resources, capabilities and constraints are also very much related to the actors of the different sectors of the *social innovation ecosystem*. This includes a new role of public policy and government for creating suitable framework and support structures, the integration of resources of the economy and civil society as well as supporting measures by science and universities (e.g. education for social innovation performance, know-how transfer)." Despite the many cases studied, there is still "*an unclear understanding of the concept of social innovation*. (…) So one of the most important insights of the mapping is that (…) *a social innovation friendly environment still has to be developed in Europe as well as globally*." (Howaldt et al., 2016, p. 2; see also p. 150f.).

In-depth case study analysis of Mapping 2 (2017)

The in-depth case study report investigated ten SIPs of employment, four in the practice field of youth employment, three in social entrepreneurship and three in workplace innovation.

The practice field of '**Youth employment and vulnerable groups** (women, elderly, migrants, handicapped)' overlaps with 'traditional' labour market (and educational) policy, and it is therefore difficult to distinguish 'innovative' social innovation initiatives from traditional employment measures. Not in the least place due to the fact that in most of the initiatives governmental and public bodies are involved or are (co-) financing these initiatives.

In this practice field the four cases Social Impact/Enterprise DGW/Enterability (SIG), Servicios Sociales Integrados S Coop (SSI), Brunel Business Life (BBL), and the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality Lifelong Learning Centre (ISMEK) were discussed (in Oeij et al., 2017). SIG is a German case about start-up assistance of disabled persons supported by a social enterprise. SSI is a Spanish cooperative run by women (i.e. self-employed, who would otherwise have no work) who help people in need, like elderly, homeless and sick people. BBL is a labour market support program for students before they are entering the labour market in order to optimize their job opportunities. ISMEK is a Turkish Lifelong Learning Centre with a strong focus on improving the labour market opportunities for women (and therefore rather strongly overlaps with the policy domain of education).

Based on these cases the practice field youth unemployment and vulnerable groups is not very coherent. While this raises questions whether one can still speak of a practice field as a cluster of coherent projects and initiatives, it should be recognised that within this practice field rather diverse labour market groups have been brought together. However, what binds the practices is that often there is an institution that serves as a partner, such as a governmental organisation, a university, or companies. The practices are often embedded in an organisation, like a foundation, cooperation, a centre. The practices are in many instances about improving skills and competencies; this often can be connected to the policy domain of education as well. In some instances these practices stem from private initiatives, be they individuals or organisations, without any profit goals. On other occasions companies participate that do have economic goals, like sufficient well-educated labour supply. Due to differences like these, the practice field is rather incoherent, and therefore it might not be likely that this practice field easily lifts off in terms of scaling up, unless there is a firm connection with supporting employment policies of the more traditional policy bodies within this policy domain of unemployment. On the other hand some examples are quite remarkable, like BBL. BBL is not related to any traditional employment policy (perhaps not even a social innovation). Other cases affect the field in terms of significant social change, like the cooperative SSI. Cooperatives have by now scaled out largely in Spain, also outside the field of employment (the SSI case are also an example of social entrepreneurship and worker control initiatives).

The practice field **Social entrepreneurship and self-creating opportunities** is not mainly focussed on profit making. Creating social value is deemed more important than financial gain. Social entrepreneurship is partly driven by the wish to alleviate social problems. Social entrepreneurship as social innovation of employment combines entrepreneurship with enabling job seekers to enter the labour market or improve their labour market opportunities. For instance, companies that employ persons who cannot find regular jobs on their own. Somewhat overlapping with this kind of social innovation of employment within this practice field is what we call self-creating opportunities. This is in fact also social entrepreneurship but it can be limited to the individual social innovator, for instance, as self-employed persons. One difficulty to tackle is the precise demarcation line between a self-employed person as a successful entrepreneur and a young unemployed person who is successfully escaping unemployment? Sometimes the social entrepreneur is helping others and not part of the target group; on other occasions the social entrepreneurs are helping themselves and, consequently, are no longer belonging to the target groups of unemployed youngsters once the endeavour lifts off. Cases differ into that they have their own funding or depend on others, like being dependent on governmental funding. The cases in this practice field cover examples of all these aspects.

In this practice field we studied three cases, namely Mama Works, Xiezhi Hotel and Nova Iskra. These cases are led by people who perform as social entrepreneurs. Mama works is a Russian case to support young mothers in improving their labour market competencies through training, job search and even creating their own work. Xiezhi Hotel helps young graduates getting prepared for entering the labour market, provide them with housing (the hotel), and seek job opportunities. Nova Iskra is a Croatian case and in essence a design incubator platform, but the initiators have the additional objective to help vulnerable and marginalised groups through support, training, create work, and engage unemployed in (their) projects.

The practice field social entrepreneurship and self-creating opportunities is, based on the selected cases, not very coherent. What binds the practices is the entrepreneurial character where initiators are really taking the initiative to improve social issues for others (create jobs, provide training, etc.) or themselves (create a social entrepreneurial business). Most practices are set up by a charismatic initiator or a small group of people. Often they cooperate with existing organisations, because the main aim is to see that the target group, (e.g. young, or female) unemployed people, gets work as soon as possible, or that they get funding for carrying out assignments. Such organisations are on the one hand companies and organisations that provide work; on the other hand there are educational organisations that provide training and skills development. One practice functions without any subsidies, as the involved persons can live from what they earn, produce and sell. Others are funded, mostly by governmental bodies,

funds or awarded grants. Successful practices are being copied in other regions and cities, so one can speak of a certain degree of scaling out. The examples of social entrepreneurship are sometimes profitable, sometimes they are not, but their social value is deemed more important than their profit maximisation. In some instances national policies boost social entrepreneurship and social innovation (notably Russia and China), which means that the practices in those countries emerged at the right moment in time. The practices often combine economic goals, a sustainable business at least, with supporting underprivileged groups on the labour market, notably young persons and women. Some practices are directed at low skilled work (e.g. young mothers without jobs) while others are targeted at high skilled work (young professionals in creative hubs for example). Although not all practices may be certain to be sustainable, their economic outlooks are mostly not bad, as long as they address a economically viable need in conjunction with social needs; the practices have a positive effect on building the skills and competencies of participants.

Social entrepreneurship is new in certain countries (Mama Work, Xiexhi Hotel) but not new to the world; design platforms are relatively new too, but not always social innovations of employment, but simply new business models of entrepreneurs. The concept of platform economy and sharing economy – home of Nova Iskra - is new, and could even be seen as a social innovation in itself.

The practice field of **Workplace innovation and working conditions** is targeting the organisational level of employment issues. A general issue is what organisations, companies and firms (can) do to optimize opportunities for employment, like creating new jobs and maintaining employment. The challenge is to find a balance between this goal and external pressures to be cost-efficient, competitive and innovative in these days. Organisations are often forced to act flexible and apply the newest technologies, like digitisation and robotization. Such developments might on the one hand eliminate jobs, while on the other they are creating new activities and businesses that require new human skills. Therefore workplace innovation is a double sided sword. Workplace innovation is the renewal of organisational and personnel issues, in order to on the one hand improve organisational performance, and on the other, to improve the quality of working life. It can enhance innovative capability and the adoption of new (inevitable) technologies (Oeij, Rus & Pot, 2017; Oeij, Žiauberytė-Jakštienė, Dhondt, Corral, Totterdill & Preenen, 2015). Working conditions, which are partly a subtopic of workplace innovation, are the circumstances under which people are working, like temperature, lightning, substances, and ergonomic effects of handling tools, machines and equipment. Working conditions affect the physical and psychological condition of people in terms of stress, workload, and health and safety issues. Workplace innovation interventions and measures can affect working conditions, for example, in how jobs and tasks are designed, production and working processes are designed, leadership is being effectuated, and employees are being engaged and involved in playing a role when organisational change is at stake.

The three cases that are discussed is the study were Media Group Limburg (MGL), Young Dogs (YD), and Software Netzwerke Leer (SNL). All are workplace innovation cases; more than they are working conditions cases. MGL is a Dutch case in which employees had a say in renewing work processes and redesigning their own jobs. YD is a case from Netherlands where young professionals can learn on the job by doing; graduated students participate in projects but also co-manage the YD organisation as a springboard for their careers. SNL is a German example where IT-companies and the city of Leer work together to offer IT-students jobs and education.

The conclusions of the practice field workplace innovation and working conditions are focused on workplace innovation (WPI). It is not a well-established practice field yet. A pushing driving force of WPI is market pressure on firms or cost-efficiency demands for non-profit organisations. A pulling driving force is the acknowledgement of organisations that they should be pro-active and responsive when needed. In that perspective we observe the importance of leadership in taking initiatives. The examples show that individuals took the initiative for WPI practices. In start-up organisations there is often an entrepreneur who sets the practice in motion; in existing and larger organisations it can be management and management in cooperation with employee representatives. Also cooperating employers in a region can set up a practice. The SNL case was an initiative to set up network of cooperating competitors. The purpose of these practices is to serve the company goal, to create or preserve jobs and employment, or a combination of both; or to serve a ‘company cross border’ purpose. Sometimes networks can speed up processes - in the situations where different organisations work together; however, it seems such networks are very local or rather little known and their potential is not fully used, especially in terms of shared/sharing knowledge. For WPI practices in existing organisations to develop and implement support from workers is essential, so, engaging employees in the process is a leverage factor. Helpful in this regard are the organisation’s receptiveness to bottom-up initiatives and an innovation oriented culture.

Current situation can be seen as the beginning of clustering: an increasing number of companies start to recognize good practices that they have been implementing and the knowledge sharing is spreading. The practice field seems to be growing and spreading, the definitions and applications of workplace innovation becoming more evolved and useful for both, practitioners and researchers. There is growing attention for WPI among EU and national (innovation) policymakers, in the world of applied research and science, and among practitioners of the side

of employers and employee representatives and unions. However, much still has to be done in the area of informing the broader society and strengthening the networks that enable the growth of workplace innovation awareness and adoption.

Table 9.2 provides a summarising overview based on the cases and the three practice fields (elaborated version from Oeij et al., 2017). The scheme illustrates the main concluding viewpoints, either divided along the lines of the practice field, or, when possible, from an overall perspective (last column). The future issues are meant as policy pointers.

The table gives the impression that social innovation in Employment is not very coherent and not a strong social change movement in itself. We should however not forget that our sample is small and that the cases are frontrunners. Coherence and homogeneity is not something to be expected in our sample. The examples learn us that some elements seem crucial like cooperation and emphasizing public value, that the role of technology is limited, and that policy should realize that social innovations step in gaps. These gaps are for example a retreat of welfare state functions (youth employment, social entrepreneurship) and new approaches to work organisation where employee engagement is regarded as essential (workplace innovation).

Table 9.2

Description (overall view)	Practice Field A Youth employment	Practice Field B Social entrepreneurship	Practice Field C Workplace innovation	Overall view
Actors	Often 'usual suspects' (traditional actors) play large role	Committed individuals want to combat a social issue	At company level employers and employees align interests	People are an important driver (see also Chapter 6 and 7)
Innovative solution	Replacing public policy	Focus on public value	Engaging employees	The solution either shift social security risks or creates shared value
Impact	For members of target group (they get a job and improve employability)	Broad reach to target group members (helping others as a goal)	Organizational competitiveness + maintaining jobs	Improving (quality of) employment is a shared value
Role of policy	Policy responsibility taken over by others	Policy stimulates practice as a replacement for public institutions (especially in authoritarian countries where social security is limited)	Almost absent (companies do this themselves)	The welfare state role is replaces by self-organisation and civic resilience
Role technology	Social media help to match supply and demand	Social media help to match supply and demand	No dominant role; no clear link WPI and technological innovation	Technology affects the quality and quantity of jobs, but that is out of scope here; technology points to applying social media and communication support
Maturity practice field	The decline of the welfare state leaves a void filled by SI initiators (resilient solutions)	Self-propelling power of socially responsible entrepreneurs and self-employed persons; institutional support from governments (RU, CH, UK)	Advanced and upcoming economies better understand the crucial role of human talent and a social responsible attitude to worker engagement	Most SI initiatives are scattered, unconnected, isolated and not articulated as a 'mature' social movement
Future issues	Balancing shifting risks with enhancing resilience related to new governance structures is a coming task	As PF A, but also: shifting risks of welfare state to social entrepreneurs; SE needs a better image and more embeddedness	Linking innovation in general to worker engagement; WPI should be connected to technical innovation programmes	Sustainable funding and institutional embeddedness can make the practice field more sustainable

9.2 Conclusions for policy

In our conclusions we will work towards policy relevance. In the end the question that remains is, what should policy do to support what is not being achieved by market forces or though present partnerships.

The state of the art review and the global mapping of social innovation in employment stressed three important areas for social innovation: youth unemployment, social entrepreneurship and workplace innovation.

The case study research revealed that the practice field of youth employment is strongly related to traditional policymakers and employment organisations that already were in place before the term social innovation was starting to get used. Social innovation initiatives in this practice field seem to partly replace the role and responsibility of public policy and the state. Initiators, such as foundations and individuals, for example organize training and job experience. They are often supported by funding from local or international programmes. But their sustainability and upscaling is limited once their program ends. Moreover, the practice field is highly heterogeneous and scattered.

The practice field of social entrepreneurship is represented by individuals or organisations who want to combat a social issue, for example by helping others in creating jobs and training persons to enhance their competencies. The chances for sustainability are slightly positive as long as the business case of their social innovation is economically viable, but upscaling is often not likely to occur. Social entrepreneurship and self-creating opportunities are becoming a new normal for participants in the platform economy and on the Internet. Successful social entrepreneurs and self-employed persons however are therefore not unemployed, and, besides, they are often well educated. It also shows that public policy plays a limited role here, apart from funding start-ups and providing expertise and training for entrepreneurs. Some countries, particularly examples outside the EU strongly support social entrepreneuring when it aligns with their governmental goals and when public policies in that particular field are underdeveloped.

The practice field of workplace innovation and working conditions is different than the former two, and mostly an affair of organisations, employers and managers. This means that employment policymakers and employment organisations hardly have any relation with this practice field. Workplace innovation is initiated by organisations in order to improve their performance and their job quality; engagement and involvement of employees is crucial for success. Improving working conditions is a related topic, often driven by legal obligations to at least guarantee minimum levels of proper working environments. Sustainability of work in the case of workplace innovation is rather positive because employees, and often unions or work councils, participate in their implementation. Scaling is however not in the interest of individual organisations and competition between organisations can be a barrier for cooperation. On the other hand, organisations want to show their good practices to attract employees and to get positive publicity in general, whereas other organisations want to imitate the well performing organisations. Therefore, good workplace innovation examples get exposure in the media.

The case study analysis suggests that youth employment and social entrepreneurship imply shifting social security tasks from public policy responsibility to private and civilian initiatives when we look at the social innovation projects and initiatives; for workplace innovation the initiative has always been with profit and non-profit organisations and not with public bodies.

Social innovation of employment has long been “too much employment policy” (Oeij & van der Torre, 2016). The usefulness (usability, utility) of social innovation for solving employment issues seems not well recognized by policymakers. From the perspective of policymaking it can be observed that in the field of employment formerly ‘traditional’ public tasks in employment services are being shifted to, for example, foundations and social entrepreneurs who provide training and job experience for job seekers. In the practice field of workplace innovation corporations keep the initiative to themselves. All these SIPs help to create jobs or to improve jobs: the quantity and quality of wok can get a boost by such forms of social innovation. Although it might not be realistic to expect that social innovations can compensate the failure of labour market policy or economic policy.

The decline of the welfare state leaves a void to be filled by SI initiators regards the practice field of youth employment and vulnerable groups. In the practice field of social enterprises the self-propelling power of socially responsible entrepreneurs and self-employed persons can be observed. In developed EU Member States they do not meet much support. Outside Europe social entrepreneurs get needed institutional support from governments (Russia, China) when what they do is in line with governmental socio-economic objectives. For the practice field of workplace innovation, more dominant in developed EU Member States than elsewhere, the companies in these advanced economies better understand the crucial role of human talent and a social responsible attitude to worker engagement. For all three practice fields it seems safe to conclude that most SI initiatives are scattered, uncon-

nected, isolated and not articulated as a social movement (i.e., there is no disruptive innovation and also not yet significant social change).

But what we generally see is a growing development of SIPs, and that these SIPs serve a purpose. They are moreover quite successful, get disseminated, and many motivated persons drive those initiatives. They lack funding and institutionalisation. The SIPs also meet goals set by policymakers dealing with employment, innovation and social enterprising. Time has come for policy to support those initiatives. This situation, namely, asks for new governance structures (Bourgon, 2011) that enable the balancing of those shifting social risks from public policymakers to individuals, communities, entrepreneurs and non-public organisations. Is there a task for public policy making to make those agents more resilient? The experts in the workshop recommend that policymakers pay attention to improving the image and knowledge about SI and SE, that they provide infrastructural and institutional support, and that social innovators and target groups become empowered; in addition they state that policymakers should value public value as least as high as economic value to stimulate a balance between economic welfare and social well-being.

The proof of the pudding is in the eating. In other words, are social innovations capable to drive social change? Our analyses seem to point to the important role of cooperation and attention for public value in the case of youth employment and social entrepreneurship, and voice for employees in the case of workplace innovation. Unleashing potential from bottom up, demands an infrastructure as a fruitful embedment that enhance the resilience of people, communities and organisations. Such infrastructure points to appropriate rules and regulations, governance, funding and investment schemes. Policy makers could step in to design and support such infrastructures.

9.3 Recommendations for policy

Need for policy to play a role

In a second round of Foresight and Policy Workshops (2017) the implications for policy was discussed. It was stressed that social innovation should focus more on **public value than on economic value**, implying for example that people can enhance their employability and labour market opportunities via SIPs. While the term social innovation becomes more applied in the employment domain in recent years, the **mindset of policymakers** should be changed into making better use of what social innovation really has to offer. Scaling could have advantages as social innovations can get ‘contagious’, which means that they will be copied or imitated if they are working well. But, social innovations are heterogeneous and scattered, therefore contagion will not progress very fast, which legitimizes to emphasize the importance of public value. The main conclusions directed at policymakers to stimulate social innovation are:

- In general: more dissemination, networking and learning is crucial to really understand and experience that social innovation can help solve employment-related issues, such as getting a job, supporting job seekers, and improving competencies and employability of job seekers and employees alike;
- Youth employment: focus on the participation of unemployed people in not only paid work but also activities that improve their qualifications and experience; policymakers and employment organisations should get convinced that social innovation can help solving their employment issues;
- Social entrepreneurship: stimulate SE as a means to solve employment issues by a focus on its public value through education and attractive financial schemes and taxes;
- Workplace innovation: while this is mainly a matter of individual organisations to undertake action, policy making could strengthen the role of intermediaries and disseminate good practices. It is advisable to include workplace innovation and social innovation as elements of policies of technological and business innovation.

Table 9.3 provides thoughts for policymakers regards their support of social innovation of employment.

Table 9.3 Policy pointers for social innovation of employment

	Youth unemployment (& other vulnerable groups)	Social entrepreneurship (& self-creating opportunities)	Workplace innovation (& working conditions)
Main challenge, goals, ambition	• Jobs alone are not the only solution: stimulate social participation via jobs and other activities, social cohesion, equality for all • Support that people improve their skills in all possible ways • Stimulate redistribution of work/jobs (shorter working weeks) • Support the rebalance of power to give vulnerable groups voice (paradigm shift) • Possible social change: youth and other vulnerable groups play a more active role (resilience) in acquiring paid work	• Broaden your view and use SE for solving social problems • Support to let SE grow and scale up • Possible social change: SE not only alleviates social problems but also supports the active participation of job seekers within the labour market	• Stimulate that employers become inclusive companies (social, environmental); sustainable, discourage unneeded hierarchy • Discourage the front runner syndrome (WPI is more than being in competition) Stimulate less labour market polarisation, but stimulate more room for cooperation, experimentation • Help bosses see themselves as facilitators • Stimulate more engaged employees and good quality jobs • Possible social change: enhanced employment relations and employability for employees and enhanced innovative capability of organisations, with a better balance between maximising profits and sustainable productivity and production
Crucial barriers to overcome and drivers	• Accept that there will be no full employment • Take into account there is a need for mobility within EU and presence of the refugee crisis (competition for jobs) • Reflect on the tension value-creation vs. public value • The vulnerable groups are traditionally badly presented by politics • Social innovators are hindered due to rules and regulations	• SE has a negative image as ‘not real’; improve that image • Stop ‘scammers’ that abuse SE to make quick wins (and do not help target groups seriously) • Discard unclear legal and fiscal barriers between social enterprise, social entrepreneuring, civil society initiatives • More funding because limited funding leads to unwanted competition and hinders start-ups and sustaining growth (scaling) • Ensure starters can restart: start-ups cannot learn from failures due to lack of systematic learning	• Disseminate good practices: there is Insufficient knowledge and proof about good practices • Stimulate knowledge sharing: there is competition and unwillingness to share knowledge between companies • Promote the win-win of WPI: there is a dilemma between WPI (when efficiency driven) and employment creation

	Youth unemployment (& other vulnerable groups)	Social entrepreneurship (& self-creating opportunities)	Workplace innovation (& working conditions)
Leverage factor for policy	• Create a social innovators network as advisory body* • Stimulate intersectoral cooperation (across policy domains)* • Help to change perception of SI by both public and policymakers* • Support to build an infrastructure, institutionalisation, regulate the field, create funding, build an ecosystem* • Improve ways in finding jobs, and the functioning of employment organisations • Reform the platform, circular or collaborative economy to help to include the 'outsiders' • Stimulate the experimentation with SI*	• Consider to use part of private companies profit to grow SE (CSR, taxes) • Stimulate/improve SE by legislation, taxes • Improve SE image via education, dissemination of good examples, quantify the benefits	• Support and empower intermediaries and social innovators who mediate between business/corporations and knowledge institutes/universities • Disseminate good practices and enhance awareness and knowledge • Develop ways to stimulate WPI, particularly bottom-up • Promote/stress the combination of economic welfare and social well-being

* Also relevant for other practice fields.

Areas for which policy should be elaborated

Policymakers have different options regarding the three practice fields of employment (see Table 9.3). Despite the fact that the practice field of youth employment is closest to existing employment policies, stakeholders and employment organisations, quite a paradigm shift is needed to make the target groups, i.e., the vulnerable groups, participate better in their own interest. This requires a disruptive shift because at present policymakers are among the ones whose perception about social innovation and its usefulness for employment should be altered. If they succeed in doing this and realise why social innovation has much potential, they could stimulate creating networks and cooperation to spread the word. But above all a social innovation friendly environment is needed through the built up of an infrastructure and regulated field.

Some partners and experts from other than the advanced countries reported that social entrepreneurship (SE) is sometimes seem as an excuse to not install proper policy measures for vulnerable labour market groups. Companies and entrepreneurs may prefer profit maximising instead of contributing to alleviate social problems. Such a rather bad image could affect social entrepreneurship. This would be beside the point unfortunately. SE can help solve societal problems in new ways, and policymakers can help to popularize SE. In addition they could support SE by forms of taxation, legislation and make SE part of corporate social responsibility outcomes. Educating people is another recommendation to improve the image of SE. This requires that policy makers learn how SE can help them to solve social problems.

While workplace innovation may stand at a distance from policymakers in the field of employment, it is the practice field that could enhance inclusiveness and cohesion perhaps the most. Policymakers from different domains (e.g. social and economic policy together) can stimulate WPI and support the intermediaries who help organisations to develop and implement WPI. Relatively little is known about what good WPI stands for and how it enhances the quality of employment, therefore knowledge dissemination is important as well (Oeij, Rus & Pot, 2017). Policymakers should mostly stimulate WPI and ensure that organisations will create good quality jobs. This strengthens social cohesion eventually.

Policymakers operate in different regions of the world, and of course what works in one region may not work in another. Therefore policy recommendations must be aligned to the socio-economic and political-historic contexts of countries and regions. Experts in the workshop suggested for EU Member States, that policymakers could take into account the importance to involve end-users in policy making and create space for learning and experimentation. Funding schemes could be connected to results being achieved (performance budgeting) and technological innovation subsidizing could be made compulsory to include a social innovation paragraph or an employment quality certificate.

The situation for new and candidate EU Member States is different as they encounter historically different path dependencies. Experts propose a more rational and pragmatic approach in this region, that is based on performance based funding and that stimulates entrepreneurship. Although cocreation with vulnerable groups is recommended as well, as in the EU Member States, compensating mechanisms for vulnerable groups should be in place too. Finally private companies should be urged to reinvest a larger part of profits in national projects and build multi-stakeholder platforms.

For Non-EU countries (in our case study Russia, China and Turkey) social innovation is a way to survive in an economy that is already much an informal one, or one where a social security system is not well developed. Because social innovation and social entrepreneurship have a relatively low status policy making could focus on knowledge building and creating awareness about SI and SE, support a sense of corporate social responsibility and use tax instruments to stimulate the desired behaviour by entrepreneurs and corporations.

9.4 Future research

The SI-DRIVE project gathered a wealth of empirical information and made many useful analyses that help to improve our theoretical and practical understanding of social innovation in general, and in the domain of employment. But of course there are still some questions unanswered that could benefit from future research. Possible research topics for future investigation are the following:

- Mechanisms of how social innovation can lead to social change have been explored. We need to know how these mechanisms are exactly related to each other. With such knowledge about the dominant mechanisms it is possible to deliver the desired social change;
- For the domain of employment 136 cases have been collected and ten of them were studied in-depth. Subsequently, we need to know more about the mechanisms of social change for each practice field, which require research of larger samples to be able to draw representative and generalizable conclusions; that is, we

now have information about the frontier of social innovation. The next step is to learn about the spread of social innovation in other regions and countries. There is (still) no consensus about the theory and conceptualisation of social innovation. It is not likely that this will come soon. But practical improvement and solving social issues cannot wait for a theory to be available. What should a theory or framework look like that fits the adage “there is nothing as practical as a good (workable) theory”, applicable in the employment domain? The method to select practice fields has helped to bring focus in social challenges. We have studied forerunners of social innovation. Next we need is generalizable and representative evidence-based information to enlarge the developmental insight for practical interventions;

- Policy experiments and pilots how to develop, implement and render social innovations are needed to be designed and evaluated; the set of policy recommendations can be tested and investigated whether or not they work;
- Several countries are restructuring their welfare state model, for example by defining meaningful work and enhancing the resilience of citizens and workers. Research could investigate the conditions and effects in the context of social innovation. Research could focus on the impact of these social innovations to achieve a transition to societal models in which social security is generated in different ways;
- Social innovations are problem-driven not market driven: how can the sense of urgency of problem driven innovation be made stronger and more pressing to become a viable alternative for market solutions alone or to break down the negative image of social entrepreneurship in some regions?
- Social innovation needs sustainability, institutions and an infrastructure to lift of and to remain in place. An ecosystem could help to ensure such sustainability, but important elements are underrepresented, for instance universities and knowledge institutes (Howaldt et al., 2016). How should an appropriate ecosystem for social innovation be designed, how can it be implemented and how should it be monitored? More specifically, how can universities and knowledge institutions play a stronger role in social innovation ecosystems?

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