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Co-VAL [770356] “Understanding value co-creation in public services for transforming European public administrations”



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Author(s)	Céline Merlin-Brogniart (USTL)
Contributor(s)	Benoît Desmarchelier (USTL), Faridah Djellal (USTL), Lars Fuglsang (RUC), Faiz Gallouj (USTL), Márton Katona (CUB), Siv Magnussen (INN), Céline Merlin-Brogniart (USTL), Alberto Peralta, Luis Rubalcaba, Javier Carrillo (UAH), Éva Révész (CUB), Rolf Rønning (INN), Miklós Rosta (CUB), Ada Scupola (RUC), Anne Vorre Hansen (RUC)
Reviewer(s)	Lars Fuglsang (RUC), Alberto Peralta (UAH), Rolf Rønning (INN), Miklós Rosta (CUB), Anne Vorre Hansen (RUC)
Document description	This deliverable aims at understanding the Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovations phenomenon. This document includes (i) a transversal trans-sectoral and trans-national analysis of the national literature reviews and of the empirical case studies reviews carried out by partners countries (Denmark, France, Hungary, Norway and Spain) (ii) a list of publications in scientific journals.

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Executive Summary

Introduction

This report focuses on a particular organizational structure referred to as “Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovation” (PSINSIs) in D.6.1. PSINSIs are multi-agent collaborative arrangements that involve a number of public and private agents in order to co-produce technological and non-technological innovations aimed at social innovation in the field of public services (sectoral perspective) or public service (functional perspective). The analysis of PSINSIs stems from a reflection on the way public services have evolved over the past 50 years, following a general trend of tertiarization among innovation networks within contemporary economies (see D.6.1. report). PSINSIs have been identified as one of the main locus of collective creation of value. The D.6.2 report provides transversal results of the five national literature reviews and five case-study reports included in D.6.1. (Merlin-Brogniart, 2019c).

This report has three main objectives.

The first objective is to identify the notion of “Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovations” (PSINSIs) found in the scientific and grey literature of the five selected European countries. The transversal analysis of the national reports provides an overview of the literature on PSINSIs by refining the theoretical characteristics of this notion with regard to the contributions of the literature and identifying similarities and differences between countries.

The second objective is to synthesize the 25 case studies on PSINSIs carried out across five European countries to develop a typology of the forms of implementation and analyze the main characteristics of the innovation process, the major drivers, institutional factors, constraints and barriers to innovation.

The third objective is to propose, in the light of these transversal results, recommendations for policy-makers. Publications and conference presentations have also been conducted. These research and dissemination activities are listed at the end of this report.

Methodology

Report D.6.2. is a transversal report that analyzes, synthesizes and compares the findings from 11 reports: (i) a general theoretical framework, (ii) five reviews of the national (scientific and grey) literature carried out in partner countries (Denmark, France, Hungary, Norway and Spain), and (iii) a series of empirical case studies conducted in these five countries (see D.6.1. report).

Findings

First set of findings

The research on social innovation networks in a public sector context is still widely under-explored but the characteristics of the notion of PSINSIs are clearly identified in the literature of the five European countries. In all of these countries, references to multi-actor innovation networks that co-produced or co-created social innovation to respond to a complex social problem have been identified. PSINSIs share some similarities with the two other co-creation arrangements covered in the Co-VAL project (the living lab and service design). All of these co-creation arrangements are attached to an innovation process that is co-produced, co-created by a variety of actors. By contrast, the notion of "real-life settings" and the experimental character of the labs distinguish PSINSIs from living labs. PSINSIs are different from service design by their focus (this is not necessarily social in service design), and by the process which follows particular procedures in the case of service design (sequencing, evidencing, holistic).

Our survey of the European literature made it possible to organize the work on PSINSIs according to five major themes: Social entrepreneurship and Social innovation - Co-creation/co-production processes (Samskabelse, Samskaping...) - Collaboration with the Civil Society, Modernization of the state, co-operation - Public-Private innovation partnerships - Special subjects related to social innovation and particularly the territorial innovation. Social entrepreneurship is a research theme common to the five countries. Other themes are predominant in several countries: co-creation, co-production processes; collaboration (with civil society and the modernization of the state); and public-private innovation partnerships (which can be seen as a sub-category of "modernization of the state"). Finally, some of the themes identified are unique to certain countries, the most significant have been grouped under "territorial innovation".

Second set of findings

The 25 PSINSIs identified in the case-study reports have been categorized into three implementation strategies: (top-down, bottom-up and "help it happen"). The socio-economic context, the national political history, and the level of control that the government wishes to exercise over the provision of public services all have an impact on the type of strategy selected. The complexity of the project and the mode of governance adopted by the stakeholders also influence the choice of the strategy.

Within these multi-actor networks, third sector organizations (such as social entrepreneurs) often play an important role in initiating the network. These organizations are familiar with the social problem and assume the role of change-maker and boundary-spanner. Public actors (such as municipalities, the national education system, members of the government, members of parliament, etc.) are equally important in developing these networks and providing them with the necessary support in terms of time, resources and financing for the creation of the innovation. The public actor is also a major stakeholder in most of the projects. It participates in the launching of activities or provides a framework for ambitious projects and it improves the legislation to enable these projects to emerge. In some case studies, target groups or citizens may be involved in the innovation process, but contrary to the literature review, their role was rarely mentioned in the reports. Their commitment and active participation in the service offered is however essential to the success of these projects.

The social innovations achieved by these innovation networks include a wide variety of non-technological innovations, especially conceptual innovation, organizational innovation, product or service innovations, and process or methodological innovations. Some projects are also associated with technological innovations. Conceptual innovations are particularly interesting as a distinctive form of social innovation networks. They correspond to innovations (new ideas, practices, and reflection on social interactions) that are often radical in the way they address needs that have been unmet.

The emergence of PSINSIs is supported by four types of drivers. The first driver is linked to the existence of a complex social problem which is not properly addressed by the public sector, or by the market, which justifies a different approach. The institutional context such as the promulgation of new social legislation can contribute to remedy this social problem within the reach of social innovation networks. The nature of the innovation and the innovation process (an innovative participation process, a design project, a production driven project) is a second type of driver, because it emphasizes the benefits of the project to the stakeholders. The third driver involves the previously stated qualities and leadership skills possessed by certain actors — namely facilitators, “bridge-builders” or “boundary-spanners” fully committed to advancing their goals. The fourth type of driver is related to the role of public actors in supporting the project and their involvement as active stakeholders in the project.

These types of innovation networks frequently face a broad set of hurdles and constraints - many of which were discussed in the literature. We have classified them into 6 groups (Lack of funding and legislative constraints - Communication and translation problems - Network management, training and human problems - Technical and logistical problems - Timeframe issues and continuity of the network - Social ethics issues). The most distinctive hurdle is the ethical issues that politicians frequently face when choosing to favor certain projects or certain social targets because of financial constraints. On the other hand, the problems of fragmentation and silo mentality often pervasive in public administration become even more acute in the context of innovation networks that are necessarily multi-actor. Regarding the ability to overcome these barriers or constraints, at the start of the project, these barriers are especially problematic, the most important ones being the impediments related to legislation. Once these innovation networks are set up, the barriers or constraints seem easier to remove.

The analysis of the case studies revealed the importance of assessing the projects developed by these social innovation networks. An upstream evaluation during the experimentation phase improves the chances of success for the project launch and steady funding. Downstream assessment helps boost the sustainability of these projects by increasing their visibility. It attracts more collaborators and target groups. The case studies underlined the difficulty of carrying out an assessment due to a lack of financial resources, a lack of time, or because of the nature of social innovation, which does not fall within a measurement paradigm, or because of the nature of the network, as collaboration between several partners causes a fragmentation of information.

Recommendations

The transversal analysis of the national literature review reports led to the first three sets of recommendations. The transversal analysis of the case studies resulted in the last six series of recommendations that highlight the efforts needed to improve the management of the activities, the functioning of the public service and the sustainability of the projects.

The first set of recommendations is related to the nature of the innovation carried out by social innovation networks. Social innovation is mostly non-technological and service-based. Moreover, it has a strongly transversal dimension, which may lower support from investors or public decision-makers. The analysis of these social innovation networks has shown the many contributions they make in generating public services. However, the support provided is still frequently limited to the visible and technological dimensions.

Recommendation: “Ensure that the search for social innovation networks is not limited to technological innovations.”

The trans-national literature indicates that multi-actor social networks act on a complex and systemic social problem. The networks mobilize actors from different sectors and organizations. These networks can be formal or informal, with a local or national dimension. In order to be adapted to these particular innovation networks, and to be more accessible, projects proposals should not be limited to one sector and should emphasize the collaborative dimension.

Recommendation: “Set up collaborative and cross-sectoral project proposals in order to identify or encourage the development of PSINSIs.”

The development of territorial social innovation networks characterized by their local mode of production is an emerging trend. Local public actors play an increasingly leading role at the local level to build the foundations of these networks at the territorial level. They facilitate the hybridization of territorial resources, the territorial anchoring of jobs, the creation of a collective heritage. Therefore, special attention should be given to initiatives generated by local public authorities.

Recommendation: “Provide local authorities increased flexibility to implement policies that encourage, support and collaborate with territorial social innovation networks.”

The three implementation strategies highlighted (top-down, bottom-up, “help it happen”) each have their advantages and drawbacks. The choice of implementation strategy will depend on the type of social problem to be addressed, the public administration paradigms at work, and the country's culture of innovation. When an implementation strategy does not work efficiently, switching to another strategy may alleviate the problem. The top-down implementation strategy was less successful in our sample of PSINSIs, mainly because these social innovations are not so easily accepted by the local public authorities in charge of the project, but also because some partners are less involved due to silo mentality problems. Other contributing factors include a lack of funding, or solutions that are not fully aligned with end-user expectations. Increasing the interest of the actors in these networks by offering them more autonomy may help mitigate some of the dysfunctions.

Recommendation: “Top-down approaches should be made more flexible by bringing more negotiation into the innovation process.”

A well-known barrier to cooperation is linked to the clash of 'cultures' between the public and private sector. Cooperation between these actors can be improved through shared work opportunities. Networks in which members from public and private organizations spend time together seem to improve efficiencies. Each partner needs time to understand the organization, as well as the culture and limitations of the other partner. Thus, time spent in situ in the professional framework of each of the stakeholders improves consensus and reduces conflicts.

Recommendation: "Promote mutual knowledge sharing and collective learning between network partners by providing increased opportunities for cross-collaboration in situ within the professional framework of each of the stakeholder."

A lack of cooperation can occur between professionals from the same functional sphere, regardless of the status of the stakeholders, because of differences in professional culture (i.e., they do not share common objectives, nor common language). In order to reduce misunderstandings related to the variety of rationales and working practices, the exchange of information through shared tools improves communication and cooperation, and thus the quality of the service offered.

Recommendation: "When setting up a multi-stakeholder network, time should be allocated to exchange best practices and the most appropriate tools for sharing information should be studied."

In our sample of PSINSIs, few social innovation networks with a public service objective operate completely independently of a public entity. The public actor is generally present either as a co-producer of services, provider of complementary services, driving force for the creation of the network, or as a controller and evaluator of networks. The intervention of the public actor is particularly important when social innovations address complex problems, or when the social innovation network covers functions traditionally left to the public actor (e.g., health, education, long-term unemployment). As this type of intervention in multi-actor networks is expected to increase, it is critical to improve the effectiveness of public intervention by disseminating a culture of cooperation and project management. Training public managers to experiment with innovative and multi-actor projects (e.g. valuing risk-taking linked to innovation, accepting failure), sensitizing them to leadership, authorizing the recruitment of agents from different backgrounds and experiences within the administration, enriching the management tools and cooperation methodologies (such as incubators, third places like living labs, design methodologies, calls for projects, legislative tools) are all corollary to the development of a culture of cooperation. The reduction of bureaucracy and the decompartmentalization of public bodies and/or public policies also represent essential organizational changes.

Recommendation: "Encourage public officials to develop a culture of cooperation and experience sharing"

- **Focus recruiting efforts on bringing in new employees from different backgrounds and introduce training practices that foster a culture of experimentation**
- **Enrichment of the tools available to public actors, including project management strategies and cooperation methodologies**
- **Organizational changes: decompartmentalization of public policies"**

Some actors possess an ability to "cross" boundaries. These boundaries can be cognitive, cultural (between professions) or organizational (between organizations or sectors). Managers might also be sensitized to these qualities in order to develop them or to identify stakeholders who possess them.

Recommendation: "instill a boundary-spanning mindset among (public) managers"

The nature of PSINSIs creates a challenge for project sustainability. The first issue is the regularity of funding when a project is tied to an annual budgeting process. An assessment of social impacts provides evidence that these innovations are valuable and should continue to be funded. The assessment also underscores the importance of social entrepreneurs in generating efficient business models and recognizes the need for the continuity of these key actors in the process.

The second issue is linked to the managers. As in any organization, some (public) managers may move on to other jobs (e.g., individual or political careers). It is therefore important to reduce this uncertainty by involving all stakeholders in a project's development so that they are incentivized to continue and complete the project. Finally, dissemination is a component of project sustainability. Social innovations are often adapted to local needs, thereby limiting their ability to be replicated. The use of storytelling across various media platforms can more broadly promote the dissemination of these innovations.

Recommendation: "Secure the project and massively disseminate and communicate on good initiatives.

- **The financial security of the project: getting out of the annual budgeting process**
- **Reducing the uncertainty created by leadership changes that occur with the turnover of elected officials**
- **Scale-up issues: accept that there are limitations in project reproducibility."**

Publications and Implications

The research associated with this report has resulted in eight publications in scientific journals and about 20 conference papers that have been published or will be published in the coming months. These research papers address the following themes:

- the tertiarization of innovation networks
- Public service innovation networks as an instrument for collaborative innovation and value co-creation in public service(s)
- Understandings of Social Innovation within the Danish Public Sector
- Innovation regimes for public service innovation networks for social innovation (PSINSIs)
- The dialogue between service production and innovation among the paradigms of public administration
- The role of services as catalysts by taking part in various production and innovation processes at the same time
- A conceptual analysis of collaborative innovation in European countries
- The role of social entrepreneurs from outside the public sector as enabling public sector innovation networks
- New actors: Knowledge Intensive Social Services (KISS)
- The User's involvement in value co-creation

- Sustainable business models seeking to create social innovation
- Social innovation networks and territorial dynamics
- The innovation dynamics created by a health network (the MAIA integration method)
- Co-creation and innovation dynamics in the case of civic service networks
- Characteristics of cities and social entrepreneurship
- The role of social entrepreneurs in social innovation networks
- The critical role of the State in the emergence and scaling-up process of social innovation networks

The implications cover theoretical, methodological and political dimensions. On the theoretical level, efforts must continue to identify the different terms and concepts used between stakeholders, and disseminate this theoretical knowledge to these actors. From a methodological point of view, the use of tools for structuring collaboration, such as design thinking, can help to establish a common language between actors from different backgrounds and reduce confusion among stakeholders – thereby providing an improved understanding of the phenomenon to be managed. Efforts should be made to refine multi-criteria evaluation tools for properly measuring PSINSIs results and forms of performance. These tools are still both underutilized and underdeveloped, although the actors interviewed in the case studies recognize their value. The development of these evaluation tools requires reflection on the methods used to collect and process information. In considering strategies for implementation, public authorities have an important part to play in the construction of assessment tools, their validation and implementation. As previously stated, since public managers are also important stakeholders in multi-actor innovation networks, they must be encouraged to develop a culture of cooperation, experimentation and boundary-spanning, and be equipped with the requisite tools for collaboration and communication. On the political level, public decision-makers are critical to improving the function of these networks and determining the context in which they evolve. Their influence is seen through their participation in these networks – either in their detection and implementation process, by enacting legislation, or by financing them. At the local level, public authorities and decision-makers can foster territorial dynamics by supporting or initiating these networks.

Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION	13
D.6.2.1. TRANSVERSAL (TRANS-SECTORIAL AND TRANS-NATIONAL) RESULTS	15
1 THE PSINSIS PHENOMENON THROUGH THE LITERATURE REVIEW REPORTS.....	16
1.1 DEFINITIONS AND INTERCEPTING CONCEPTS	16
1.1.1 <i>A PSINSIS phenomenon?</i>	16
1.1.2 <i>Intercepting co-creation phenomena</i>	20
1.1.2.1 <i>Living Labs and PSINSIS</i>	20
1.1.2.2 <i>Service design and PSINSIS</i>	21
1.2 PSINSIS ACROSS EUROPE: MAPPING THE LITERATURE ON PSINSIS.....	22
1.2.1 <i>Social entrepreneurship and Social innovation</i>	23
1.2.1.1 <i>The novelty of this concept</i>	23
1.2.1.2 <i>Social entrepreneurship and PSINSIS</i>	24
1.2.1.3 <i>The role of actors</i>	25
1.2.1.4 <i>The production processes of Social innovation</i>	26
1.2.2 <i>Co-creation/co-production processes (Samskabelse, Samskaping...) (Denmark, France, Norway)</i>	27
1.2.2.1 <i>Terms and their meanings</i>	27
1.2.2.2 <i>A multi-actor co-creation</i>	29
1.2.2.3 <i>Innovation processes</i>	30
1.2.2.4 <i>Evaluation</i>	30
1.2.3 <i>Collaboration with the Civil Society, modernization of the state, co-operation (Denmark, France, Norway)</i> .	31
1.2.3.1 <i>The actors and the content of cooperation</i>	31
1.2.3.2 <i>The objectives of this cooperation</i>	31
1.2.4 <i>Public-Private innovation partnerships (Denmark, Spain)</i>	33
1.2.5 <i>Special subjects related to social innovation (territorial innovation, rural development, digital technologies, innovative -commons, sustainable developments) (≈ all countries)</i>	35
1.2.5.1 <i>Social innovation networks and the territory</i>	35
1.2.5.2 <i>Digital technologies as a new way of delivering social innovation</i>	39
1.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS: “SERVICE INNOVATION AND ITS BIASES”	39
1.3.1 <i>Technological and non-technological innovation</i>	40
1.3.2 <i>Make the invisible visible</i>	40
1.3.3 <i>Social innovation and territorial issue</i>	41
2 EVIDENCE-TESTED PSINSIS: EMPIRICAL RESULTS	42
2.1 THE SERVICE INNOVATION NETWORKS STUDIED	42
2.2 TOWARDS A TYPOLOGY OF SOCIAL INNOVATION NETWORKS WITH A PUBLIC SERVICE OBJECTIVE?.....	43
2.2.1 <i>“Top-down” implementation strategy</i>	44
2.2.2 <i>“Bottom-up” implementation strategy</i>	46
2.2.3 <i>“Help it happen” implementation strategy</i>	48
2.2.4 <i>Discussion and recommendation on implementation strategies</i>	51
2.3 INNOVATION TYPES	54
2.3.1 <i>Conceptual innovations</i>	55
2.3.2 <i>Organizational innovations</i>	57
2.3.3 <i>Process innovation and Methodological innovation</i>	58
2.3.4 <i>Product or service innovations (IT solutions, senior knowledge bank)</i>	60
2.4 CONSTRAINTS, DRIVERS AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS OF SOCIAL INNOVATION NETWORKS	62
2.4.1 <i>Drivers and institutional factors</i>	62
2.4.1.1 <i>The social need and the institutional context</i>	62
2.4.1.2 <i>The nature of the project</i>	64
2.4.1.3 <i>A facilitator, “bridge-builder” or “boundary-spanner”</i>	64
2.4.1.4 <i>Support from the Public sector</i>	65

2.4.2	<i>Barriers and Constraints to social innovation networks</i>	66
2.4.2.1	Lack of funding and obstacles related to the law	66
2.4.2.2	Communication problem and translation problems.....	67
2.4.2.3	Network management, training and human problems	67
2.4.2.4	Technical and logistical problems.....	68
2.4.2.5	Temporality issues and continuity of the network	69
2.4.2.6	A question of social ethics	70
2.5	THE ASSESSMENT ISSUE	70
2.6	DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION ON COOPERATION: “BRIDGING CONFLICTING CULTURES”	73
2.6.1	<i>The cooperation between public and private partners</i>	73
2.6.2	<i>Routines linked to different jobs</i>	75
2.6.3	<i>Functioning of the public sector, leadership capabilities and boundary-spanners</i>	75
2.6.3.1	The role of the public actor	75
2.6.3.2	Leadership, Trust and Partnership Capabilities: Strong leaders and power sharing	79
2.6.3.3	Boundary-spanners.....	80
2.6.4	<i>Evolution Over Time</i>	81
3	CONCLUSION	84
4	REFERENCES	86
5	APPENDIX	95
D.6.2.2.	LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS PRODUCE WITHIN WP6	97
1.	LIST OF PUBLICATIONS	98
2.	ABSTRACTS OF PUBLICATIONS	99
2.1.	PUBLICATIONS.....	99
2.2.	CONFERENCE PAPERS.....	101
2.3.	OTHER PAPERS.....	108

List of Figures

Figure 1	Intercepting co-creation phenomena	22
Figure 2	PSINSIs vs Social entrepreneurship.....	25
Figure 3	Spaces for innovation.....	32
Figure 4.	Construction of a collective patrimony.....	36
Figure 5.	Typology of PSINs based on the type of actors and the case study reports	42

List of Tables

Table 1:	Social innovation definitions from the trans-national literature review	17
Table 2:	Main themes of research on social innovation networks by country	23
Table 3:	<i>social entrepreneur or social enterprise</i> definitions from the trans-national literature review.....	25
Table 4:	Terms related to Co-creation and their meanings.....	28
Table 5:	<i>Public-Private Innovation Partnership</i> definitions	33
Table 6:	Definitions of the different themes related to territorial innovation (in a broad sense).....	38
Table 7:	Typology of case studies according to their dominant implementation strategy	43
Table 8:	Summary of the main characteristics of the innovation implementation strategies.....	53
Table 9:	Types of innovation by case-study.....	61

List of Boxes

Box 1: Flexible relief for dependents and the importance of consulting end-users (N5)	45
Box 2: Refugees as resources in rural areas: an illustration of insufficient dialogue with local public actors (N3).....	46
Box 3: Grennessminde (D2)	47
Box 4: Method of action for the integration of healthcare and support services in the field of Autonomy (F1) as a “help it happen” project.....	48
Box 5: TZCLD (F2)	49
Box 6: Global understanding of the phenomenon (F1)	50
Box 7: Change over time (F3).....	51
Box 8: Implementation strategies (D5, F2)	51
Box 9: New financing process/New notions (F2).....	55
Box 10: New wordings (D1).....	56
Box 11: New profession (F1)	56
Box 12: Change makers (D3)	57
Box 13: Internal and external organization (D3).....	57
Box 14: New forms of co-production (D4, D5, N5)	58
Box 15: Citizen participation (H3, S1, F5).....	59
Box 16: Pedagogical methods (F4, H5)	59
Box 17: ‘Reverse method” (F2)	59
Box 18: Service innovation, New in a local area (N4)	60
Box 19: Technological and ICT innovation (H3, N1).....	60
Box 20: New offer (D1).....	61
Box 21: The close dialogue between partners (F3)	74
Box 22: Differences in professional culture (F1).....	75
Box 23: Antropoloops and the role of call for project (S2)	78
Box 24: Co-creation with inhabitants as a solution to the constraints of small municipalities (F5)	78
Box 25: nonprofit leadership (H2).....	79
Box 26: public leadership (F5).....	79
Box 27: Entrepreneur leadership (D1)	79
Box 28: Boundary-spanners (F5).....	80
Box 29: Cycling Without Age and dissemination (D1)	83
Box 30: The advantage of an increase in the visibility of the project (F5).....	83

Introduction

Work package 6 aims understand how the interaction between public and private actors leads to the collective creation of value through innovation. One of the findings featured in Deliverable 6.1. indicates that within contemporary economies, an overall trend towards the “tertiarization¹ of innovation networks” (Desmarchelier et al., 2019a, 2020a) can be observed. This is reflected in the proposal of new forms of organizations whereby a traditional hierarchy is replaced by horizontal networks and the performance of public services is assessed through multi-criteria perspectives. This trend corresponds to the New Public Governance approach in which public administrations become equal partners to private actors and citizens in value creation. This approach highlights that collective co-creation of value through innovation occurs in two networks: Public Service Innovation Networks, and their sub-component, Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovations (PSINSIs). Since PSINs and PSINSIs have been identified as the main locus of collective creation of value, case studies were conducted in five European countries in order to identify and analyze these innovation networks. The case studies cover social innovations that aim at providing solutions to the following social issues: elderly care, education (e.g. school dropouts), immigration/refugees, long-term unemployment, environmental protection (including urban issues and transportation). The case-studies investigated and the analytical framework that have been drawn in deliverable 6.1. raise a number of interesting questions from the point of view of public management and public policies. The purpose of this research is to provide some general lessons for public management regarding PSINSIs. It should be noted that the notion of PSINSIs used in this report refers to both a practical phenomenon and a theoretical construct.

These lessons are constructed on the basis of two perspectives:

The first perspective is theoretical and conceptual. It seeks to determine the extent of the PSINSI phenomenon in different European regions based on an analysis of the scientific and grey literature of five European countries. We show how this phenomenon is embedded in the research on social innovation, collaborative partnerships and governance, and value co-creation, and we determine the differentiating characteristics of this phenomenon compared to other related concepts studied in the Co-VAL project. Finally, we identify research themes that focus on this phenomenon in the different European countries selected.

The second perspective is empirical. We explore the phenomenon of PSINSIs from the angle of innovation. We offer recommendations for public management based on the analysis of 25 European case studies of social innovation networks with the goal to develop or improve public services.

The methodology used in this research is as follows.

¹ The tertiarization of the innovation networks reflects the growing power of services in innovation networks (i.e. the rise of market and non-market services in innovation networks) as well as the broadening of the forms of innovation taken into account (not just technological innovation, but any form of innovation) and the modes of organization of innovation taken into account (not just the formal and linear modes, but also the informal and interactive modes) (Desmarchelier et al. (2019a).

The first perspective is grounded in the analysis of the Danish, French, Hungarian, Norwegian and Spanish grey and academic literature review reports, whose objective was to provide an overview of existing literature and practices regarding PSINSIs across sectors and countries. As a reminder (see D.6.1.), these reports were constructed using systematic methods of document search. References used were extracted from national grey literature and from databases such as Web of Science, Scopus, Google Scholar. To identify the references, keywords were translated in the different languages and in the following combinations: public services, social innovation, citizen participation, networks, partnerships, collaboration.

The results of the second perspective are derived from the national case studies carried out in five European countries. To draw up international comparisons, each partner used the same "case study framework" that includes five key dimensions related to innovation (Type of innovation/Type of innovation process; Type of Innovation Network; Drivers/Barriers; Institutional factors; Impacts/performance). A common structure to present the case-studies was applied (The case in a nutshell; The context; The five key dimensions related to innovation, Unexpected results and discussion).

Structure of the deliverable

This deliverable is composed of two parts: D. 6.2.1 given over to transversal (trans-sectorial and trans-national) results, and D. 6.2.2 devoted to the list of scientific papers derived from WP6.

D.6.2.1 is organized into two main sections.

In the first section, we clarify the phenomenon of PSINSIs by combining the inputs from the theoretical framework presented in report D.6.1.1. with the definitions and key elements identified in the national literature reviews. These conceptual clarifications help us to define the boundaries between the social innovation networks we focus on and other value co-creation related schemes addressed in CO-VAL (Living labs, Design). Finally, we present an analysis of the main theme of research identified in the national literature reports.

The second section is dedicated to the analysis of the 25 case studies carried out in the five European partner countries. We propose a typology of these specific social innovation networks and discuss the main characteristics and implications in terms of implementation strategies. We describe the context of emergence, the governance strategy, the actors and initiators of innovation, the advantages and disadvantages of these implementation strategies. Then, the types and intensity of innovations generated by these networks are outlined. We expose the main constraints, drivers, and institutional factors of social innovation networks. Then we focus on the approaches used to assess these innovation networks. Finally, we discuss the previous items and in particular the relationships between the actors involved in the network and we propose recommendations for public administrations.

D 6.2.2 is also organized into two sections: one providing the list of publications in scientific journals (and the address where they can be downloaded), the other, the abstracts of all publications (including communications to conferences and papers to be submitted soon).

D.6.2.1. TRANSVERSAL (TRANS-SECTORIAL AND TRANS-NATIONAL) RESULTS

1 The PSINSIs phenomenon through the literature review reports

1.1 Definitions and intercepting concepts

1.1.1 A PSINSIs phenomenon?

The review of the trans-national literature shows that there is currently no unified definition of the phenomenon of social innovation networks and, more specifically, PSINSIs. However, it is possible to propose a set of characteristics for these innovation networks, which helps to outline the boundaries of these types of networks. One explanation for this lack of unified definition is related to the first characteristic of social innovation networks: Social innovation networks are based on the creation and development of social innovation. But currently, the research on social innovation networks in a public sector context is still under-explored.

PSINSIs and Social Innovation

The articles on PSINSIs coming from the literature review of the five countries of the workpackage use different definitions of social innovation to analyze social innovation networks (see Table 1). A common denominator of these definitions is the general objective for the emergence of social innovation: to solve an unmet-need or poorly provided social problem.

Social innovations can be social for different reasons. According to Cloutier (2003), the innovation is social either by its target (e.g. disadvantaged populations, innovation for citizens, for the elderly...), by its general purpose: to solve social problems (e.g. unemployment, health, education...), or by its form (e.g. way of doing things, practical actions) and the nature of the participants (citizen, users). In the case of PSINSIs, the purpose is to provide a public service. Such it addresses specific societal challenges.

In articles referring to social innovation networks, the social dimension of social innovation is usually associated with purpose of the network, which is to respond to a social problem in an innovative way: *"innovative activities and services that are motivated by the goal of meeting a social need that are predominantly diffused through organizations whose primary purpose are social"* (Mulgan, 2006: 14). *"the aim of meeting a societal problem or need that is not otherwise taken care of"* (Damvad Danmark, A/S, 2012), *"to catalyse social change and/or address social needs"* (Mair and Martí, 2006), *"new solutions [...] that meet social needs"* (Lauritzen, 2012), *"to improve a situation or solve a social problem"* (Bouchard, 1999).

This innovation is a society-wide or societal problem as *"The value created by social innovation concerns society as a whole rather than individuals"* (Damvad Danmark A/S, 2012). Social innovation can also be connected to the innovation process, that is, to the way in which social innovation is created. The definitions used indicate that this social goal is achieved by another way of proceeding: *"combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyse social change"* (Mair and Martí, 2006), *"leading to new or improved features and partnerships"* (Lauritzen, 2012), *"ultimately, changes in the*

existing social - and power - relations towards a more inclusive and democratic governance system" (Martinelli et al., 2010: 54) (see Table 1). These new procedures enable "changing social relations" and the "creation of new 'capabilities'".

This social innovation needs to be based on different types of innovation. It includes "*new solutions (products, services, models, markets, processes, etc.) that meet social needs while leading to new or improved features and partnerships and better utilization of assets and resources.*" (Lauritzen, 2012). Conejero and Redondo, (2016) define Social Innovation as a shared public leadership producing new solutions (services, products, processes and models) of social needs; "*any new approach, practice, or intervention, or any new product*" (Bouchard, 1999), "*new services, activities, ways of collaboration, and organizations*" (Skog Hansen et. al., 2013).

Table 1: Social innovation definitions from the trans-national literature review

Source: From Fuglsang and Scupola (2019); Merlin-Brogniart, (2019a); Peralta et al. (2019a); Magnussen and Rønning (2019a)

Author(s)	Definition
Conejero, Redondo (2016) (Spain)	Social innovation is defined as a shared public leadership producing new solutions (services, products, processes and models) of social needs, changing social relations and generating public value more effectively
Damvad Danmark A/S (2012) (Denmark)	defines social innovation as activities carried out with the aim of meeting a societal problem or need that is not otherwise taken care of and which is aimed at delivering new solutions in a more efficient or fair way.
Mulgan (2006:14) (Denmark)	Social innovation is defined as: "innovative activities and services that are motivated by the goal of meeting a social need that are predominantly diffused through organizations whose primary purpose are social"
Mair and Martí 2006:37 (Denmark)	It is also defined as a "process involving the innovative use and combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyse social change and/or address social needs"
Martinelli, Moulaert and González, (2010: 54) (Denmark)	"... Social innovation occurs when the mobilisation of social and institutional forces succeeds in bringing about the satisfaction of previously alienated human needs, the relative empowerment of previously silent or excluded social groups through the creation of new 'capabilities', and, ultimately, changes in the existing social – and power – relations towards a more inclusive and democratic governance system"
Lauritzen (2012) (Denmark)	Social innovation is defined as "new solutions (products, services, models, markets, processes, etc.) that meet social needs while leading to new or improved features and partnerships and better utilization of assets and resources."
Bouchard (1999: 2) (France)	Social innovation is defined as "any new approach, practice, or intervention, or any new product developed to improve a situation or solve a social problem and having found a receptive audience at an institutional, organisation or community level".
Skog Hansen et. al.	"Social innovation and social entrepreneurship are basically about

(2013:23) (Norway)	developing new services, activities, ways of collaboration, and organizations, and are aimed at finding solutions for social needs, and to create social values. Social innovations take place both within and across traditional borders between state, market and civil society” (authors’ translation).
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A multi-actor innovation network

The second common point raised by these definitions related to the nature of social innovation is the complexity of the problem. The reason the need is not properly met is because the problem is often a “wicked” problem. Solving these problems requires collaboration or cooperation between different actors. This raises the second characteristic of social innovation networks: the complexity of social innovations requires the participation of a variety of actors.

The academic and grey literature review indicates that academics, politicians and practitioners argue that innovations should be improved through the active participation of a wide range of actors. According to Bommert, (2010), the innovation assets of these various actors, both intangible and tangible, will increase the quantity and quality of innovations (Bommert, 2010).

Literature reviews show that there are four types of actors. The Danish literature refers to public sector organizations, social enterprises, civic organizations including volunteers and private companies. French literature mentions public actors, third sector actors, the role of citizens and users, and private actors. What varies is the weight of these actors in the networks. In Hungary, a large number of articles highlight the role of actors of social entrepreneurship in social innovation networks (Czipczer et al., 2015; Huszák, 2018; Szörényiné Kukorelli, 2015; Szűcsné Markovits, Sasvári, 2015). Some studies examine the participation of local governments (new municipal model) and new governance models, patterns in social innovation networks (Varga, 2017a, 2017b). In Norway, according to the literature review, most collaboration efforts are made between the public sector and third sector/social entrepreneurs. The inclusion of private business as participants is seldom seen. In Spain, the social innovation ecosystem brings together foundations, private initiatives, civil society and also universities, public and financial entities. It seems that public administrations are also increasingly active in social innovation networks, and that social innovation driven by the public and private sectors, the third sector and social entrepreneurs is showing great potential for change.

The different definitions of social innovation, such as those mentioned previously, highlight different actors engaged in social innovation. Richez-Battesti et al. (2012) synthesize the different streams of research on social innovation and indicate that these research streams have a different focus on the initiators of the innovation:

The entrepreneurial approach, which includes the two Anglo-Saxon schools (“earned income” and “social innovation school”), focus on the characteristics of the social entrepreneur and the idea that the costs of the social business must be covered, and the European approach, which examines the issue of “ideal-type” of the social enterprise. The emphasis is on the democratic and collective bottom-up dimension of the social enterprises (such as the EMES network).

The institutionalist approach considers social innovation as a territorialized system and a driver of social transformation. The latter approach is more holistic. The objective is not only the response to a social need but a deeper reflection on the current economic system.

The research stream corresponding to the disciplinary field of public sector reform considers social innovation as a useful tool for modernizing public policies. It is part of the new public management framework.

The reference to the different streams of research is noticeable in the definitions of social innovation. Indeed, the Anglo-Saxon definitions focus more on the participation of the social entrepreneur alone. For example, according to Damvad Danmark A/S (2012), social entrepreneurs are seen as the individuals who, through their innovative qualities and ability, create social change, provide social innovation in the peripheral regions. The institutionalist approach focus on social innovation as a multi-actor collaborative process.

Social innovation is co-produced, co-created.

Social innovation is co-produced, co-created. This co-creation between various actors is made necessary by the complexity of the social problem. Each actor in the network has a network knowledge, or has a certain experience to find new solutions. The literature review indicates that specific terms have been used to refer to cooperation within social innovation networks. The most common terms are "Samskabelse", "Samskaping"; co-operation, innovations commons, collaborative innovation. There are enough works on co-operation to form a theme of research on their own. The notions of "Co-creation", "Co-production" and "samskabelse" refer both to cross-sectoral collaboration about innovation and user/citizen involvement in service delivery (Fuglsang, Scupola, 2019). According to Damvad Danmark A/S (2012): Social innovation is therefore not something developed by either the public sector or private sector companies. It has a cross-sectoral point of departure, and the potential for innovation therefore often occurs across sectors, where knowledge and ideas are exchanged between public sector actors, volunteers (civil society) and the private sphere. Therefore, collaborative relations between different actors are very central. Co-creation occurs in the innovation process when many challenges cannot be solved by the state alone. In Danish, Samskabelse literally means co-creation and "Samskaping" is a concept with positive connotations in the Norwegian public debate, as well as in the Norwegian literature about public service innovation networks for social innovation.

Are all the Social Innovation Networks PSINSIs?

PSINSIs are networks that are generally multi-actor, associating public actors, non-profit private actors (associations), citizens and sometimes lucrative private actors. However, not all social innovation networks are PSINSIs. PSINSIs are characterized by social innovation networks that have public service as their object. Some social innovation networks have an objective that can be considered as a public service mission, while other social innovation networks have as an objective, the common good of the actors composing the network (crowdfunding, collaborative platform). They are not part of PSINSIs.

1.1.2 Intercepting co-creation phenomena

Currently the notion of PSINSIs seeks to capture the phenomenon by identifying different elements (see point 1.1.1.). Both the private and the public sector consider innovation as a means of improving the services provided in a more efficient way. They are looking for new organizational and institutional frameworks to frame and promote the creation of innovation. Some of these organizational frameworks advocate multi-stakeholder coordination, including Living Labs, Service Design and PSINSIs. There are different understandings of these phenomena which have emerged from different sources. As a result, these organizational frameworks have the particularity of not having a standardized definition. The comparison of the differences and similarities of these organizational frameworks will allow us to better understand the phenomenon of PSINSIs.

1.1.2.1 . Living Labs and PSINSIs

The main characteristic of living labs is to provide a real-life experimental setting, which allows a high degree of user-cocreation (Dekker et al, 2017; Schuurman, Tonurist, 2016). Thus, Living Labs are opposed to technology-centric approaches. They are defined as "experimental human-centric" approaches. Similar to the PSINSIs, these experiences involve many collaborators: *"Living Labs are collaborations of public-private-civic partnerships in which stakeholders co-create new products, services, businesses and technologies in real life environments and virtual networks in multi-contextual spheres"* (Feurstein et al., 2008:2).

The main research streams focusing on living labs are urban development and ICT development. According to (Stahlbröst, 2008: 32), users are *« invited to participate in the innovation and development process in their own context in authentic usage situations, facilitating the users to gain deep understanding of how a new product or service will function and correlate to their context based on their own lived experience »*. This point distinguishes Living Labs from PSINSIs because end-users are rarely involved in the design of the solution implemented in PSINSIs. However, some authors have noticed that in empirical cases, few Living Labs actively work with users as co-designers (Steen, Van Bueren, 2017; Fuglsang, Hansen, 2018).

The notion of "real-life settings" and the experimental character of the labs separates PSINSIs from Living Labs. This notion refers to a wide range of procedures and forms of organization, from simple feedback mechanisms (e.g. testing new technology) to procedures involving employees or end-users in experiments (Copenhagen Living Lab and Public Intelligence, 2015, Fuglsang, Hansen, 2018).

PSINSIs' innovations are not necessarily user-driven innovations. In other words, PSINSIs do not necessarily rely on user input for sensing, prototyping, validating, refining complex solutions for users. Improving the well-being of users is one of the objectives of the innovation, but the participation of users in the design of social innovation is not necessarily encouraged.

In addition, PSINSIS do not necessarily take the shape of independent hosting structures in which the solution will be tested to validate the innovation (such as *« ICT enabler »*). PSINSIs can also emerge

spontaneously, relying on ad hoc procedures and forms of organization, which evolve in line with the innovation.

PSINSis can also be linked to a territory given their social objective, as social innovation is usually territorial (Richez-Battesti, 2008). These networks are then inscribed in the resolution of a territorial problem.

1.1.2.2 Service design and PSINSis

As for Living Labs, the definition of service design is changing. For instance, Blomkvist, Holmlid, Seglström (2010), define Service design as *"a human-centred, holistic; creative approach for creating new services"*, whereas for Evenson (2008), Trischler, Scott (2016: 722), Service design is defined as *"systems challenge driven by an understanding of human experience"*. Then, Service design consists of the reorientation of existing services, rather than the creation of new services (Trischler, Scott, 2016, Røhnebaek, Strokosch, 2019). In essence, the aim of service design is to provide an 'outside-in perspective' (Holmlid, Evenson, 2008) by focusing on the user. Rather than suggesting a definition, Stickdorn (2010:34) identifies shared basic principles. The design service is User-centred, Co-creative, Sequencing, Evidencing, Holistic. We can compare these five principles to the PSINSis phenomenon.

The first principle (User-centred) is not common. While service design should be experienced through the customer's eyes, this is not the case for social innovation networks, which have more diverse goals and stakeholders.

The second "co-creative" principle implies that all stakeholders should be included in the service design process. The inclusion of all stakeholders is also a key objective of social innovation networks. Collaborative innovations are introduced as one way of handling social problems. Other actors than the public actors may even perform in a better way than the public sector (Hartley et al., 2013). The current assumption is that the active participation of a wide range of actors will increase the quantity and quality of innovations due to their innovation assets (Bommert, 2010). Different authors examine "the most navigable paths and routes for co-created social innovation processes" (Kobro et al., 2018, Lundgaard et al., 2018).

As for the third and the fourth points, the fact that services should be visualized "as a sequence of interrelated actions" (sequencing), and that "Intangible services should be visualized in terms of physical artefacts" is a matter of service design methodology. This principle does not specifically apply to PSINSis, which are broader than a methodology. However, PSINSis could use service design to create social innovation.

Moreover, social innovation is closer to service innovation than to technological innovation (Djellal, Gallouj 2012). The innovations coming from PSINSis are often intangible. They are mainly focused on non-technological innovation, and in particular on service innovation. Service innovation is central to service design.

The last principle is the holistic nature of the service design. This principle considers "the entire environment of a service". Once again, this point concerns the technical dimension of service design. But PSINSIs are also organizational and institutional frameworks that use co-creation to take into account all the needs of stakeholders.

To sum up, PSINSIs are very distant from service design by their focus. Their purpose is to solve social problems, whereas service design applies to all services, be they social or not. On the other hand, the method of creating added value, "co-creating value", is based in these two organizational forms on the intervention of many stakeholders. Thus, a PSINSI could integrate design services that would focus on social innovation.

The following figure summarizes the dimensions that bridge the different co-creation organizational frameworks to the elements that specify them (Fig. 1).

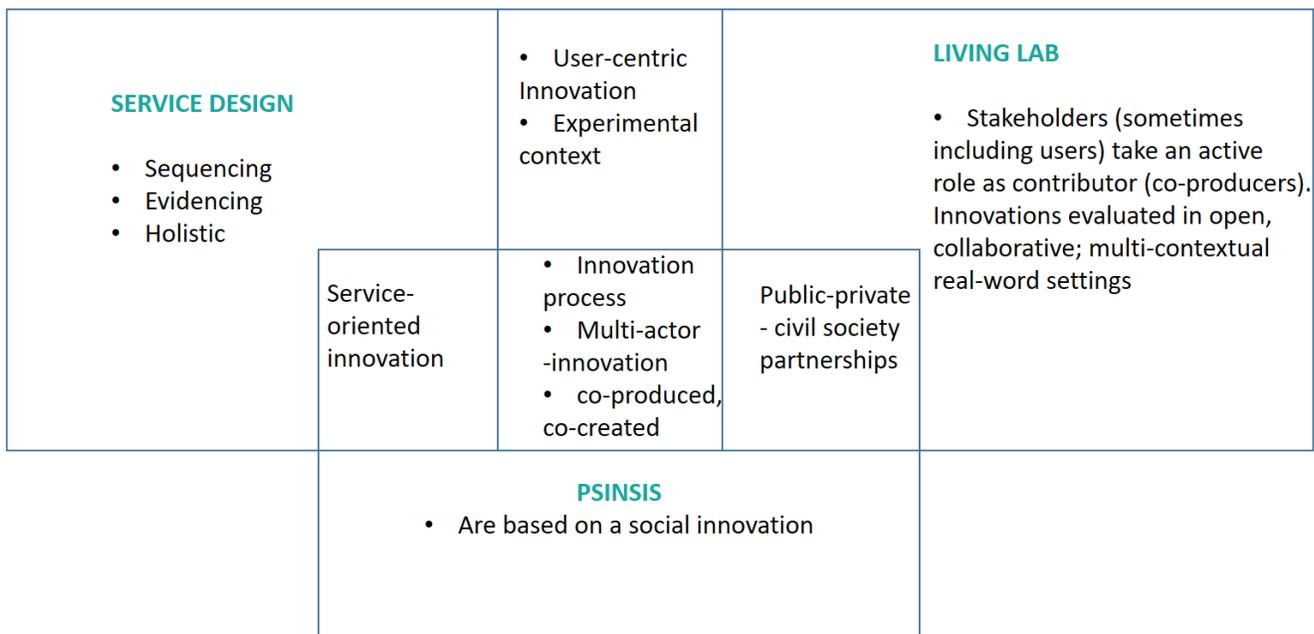


Figure 1 Intercepting co-creation phenomena

1.2 PSINSIs across Europe: Mapping the literature on PSINSIs

This section summarizes the research on social innovation networks based on a review of the academic and grey trans-national literature. The first result to emerge, as discussed earlier, is that social innovation networks and particularly PSINSIs are seldom specifically covered in the literature. The second result, which is the main focus of this section, is that common research themes referring to PSINSIs can be identified from the trans-national literature review.

Table 2 summarizes these common themes of research by country. One research theme is common to all the countries (Social entrepreneurship), other themes are predominant in most of the countries

(Co-creation, co-production processes; collaboration with the civil society and the modernization of the state). Other themes in which social innovation networks have been identified are not common theme of research in all countries (for example public-private innovation partnerships). This is mainly due to the use of the Public-Private partnership concept, which is more inclusive in some countries and more restricted in others. In other countries (such as France), this category can be seen as a sub-category of "modernization of the state". Finally, some topics in which social innovation networks are mentioned come from fields of research more specific to the country (territorial innovation, rural development, digital technologies, innovative-commons, sustainable developments).

Table 2: Main themes of research on social innovation networks by country

Subjects Countries	Social entrepreneurship/Social innovation	Co-creation/co-production processes	Collaboration with the Civil Society, modernization of the state	Public-private innovation partnerships	Special subjects related to social innovation
Denmark	X	X	X	X	
France	X	X	X		X
Hungary	X				X
Norway	X	X	X		X
Spain	X			X	X

1.2.1 Social entrepreneurship and Social innovation

The notion of PSINSIs is usually found in the literature on the theme of social entrepreneurship because this research theme highlights the role of the social entrepreneur or more generally of civil society actors within social innovation networks.

The social innovation production process is central to this problem-solving process

This literature highlights

- The novelty of the social entrepreneurship phenomenon
- The social innovation process
- The actors, their characteristics and their role

1.2.1.1 The novelty of this concept

The studies introduce elements on the expansion of the concept of social entrepreneurship. According to Gustavsen and Kobro (2012), it is difficult to count the number of social entrepreneurs in Norway due to the various definitions of social entrepreneurs. This is partly due to the new academic interest in the topic. The concept is quite recent and is constantly evolving. In Denmark, 46% of social enterprises started within the past 6 years (as of 2015). As of 2013, there were an estimated 300 social enterprises that employed 3,500 full-time workers (Bach, 2015). In France, social

entrepreneurship is included in the scope of Social and Solidarity Economy (Richez-Battesti et al., 2012) which represents 7% of French enterprises and 14% of jobs.

The growth of this phenomenon has led governments to register these companies and regulate them through legislation. For example, in Denmark, a Committee for Social Enterprises was formed in 2013, which drafted a government proposal in September 2014 to create more social enterprises. A National Centre for Social Enterprises and an act on registered social enterprises was adopted by the Danish Government in 2015 (Bach, 2015). In France, the MOUVES association (Mouvement des entrepreneurs sociaux²), was created in 2010. It defines the criteria for social entrepreneurship. The 2014 SSE law gives a first definition of Social and Solidarity Economy by creating two new statutes to facilitate the recognition of social enterprises. The PACTE law introduces a new legal status for companies that meet social and environmental objectives. This increasing number of legal statutes reflects a growing commitment of the State in the development of this phenomenon.

1.2.1.2 Social entrepreneurship and PSINSIS

Criteria to register as a social enterprise have been defined by committees or associations dedicated to these companies (e.g. the MOUVES).

- 1) The first criterion concerns the purpose of social enterprises: Social enterprises must have a social, societal or environmental purpose - the creation of employment, or an employment-related aim, is also included in the overall objective.
- 2) The social enterprise must have a significant commercial activity. The production of goods and/or services must constitute a substantial element of the revenue generated by the enterprise.
- 3) Social enterprises have to be independent from public authorities. All social enterprises have to be initiated by a private partner. The public authorities must not have any significant influence on the management or operation of the enterprise.
- 4) The search for multi-stakeholder involvement in governance (partners, employees, customers, other stakeholders) must allow for the preservation of inclusive and responsible governance.
- 5) Profits must be reinvested in social purpose activities. The limited return on equity, the reinvestment of the majority of profits in the project and the control of the salary scale are key criteria.

In France, the Mouves association also recommends that the company gives an important place to social innovation and asserts a willingness to be territorially anchored.

The common points between PSINSIS and social entrepreneurship can be deduced from these criteria (Fig. 2). It is not surprising to find most of the definitions of social innovation in the literature on social entrepreneurship since the main focus of social entrepreneurship consists in the production of social

² Movement of Social Entrepreneurs

innovation. On the other hand, both phenomena integrate multi-actor networks and co-create or co-produce the innovation. However, there is social entrepreneurship that is not conducted on the basis of a multi-actor network. The PSINSIs may not be independent of government. For example, some phases of innovation may require changes in legislation. The search for profit is generally more frequent when the network is created by individual social entrepreneurs since these activities must be remunerated, whereas PSINIs can be initiated by other actors (public or associative) from subsidies, without the search for profit.

<p>PSINSIs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not necessarily independent from the government • Not necessarily lucrative • Public service objective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Innovation • Multi-actors -innovation • co-produced, co-created 	<p>Social entrepreneurship</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Entrepreneurship without network • Lucrative activities • Independent from the government
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Figure 2 PSINSIs vs Social entrepreneurship

1.2.1.3 The role of actors

Social entrepreneur

In this literature, many studies indicate the driving and autonomous role of social actors and in particular associations (Klein, Lévesque 2009; Gallois, et al., 2016, Richez-Battesti et al., 2012). Social entrepreneurs are described as drivers of social innovation. The temperament of social entrepreneurs essentially explains this potential. They are described as "enthusiastic" (Damvad Danmark A/S, 2012; Huszák, 2018; Szűcsné Markovits, Sasvári, 2015), or as a "bridge builder" (Skjelberg, 2018). The social entrepreneur can help to find the network of actors and the financing that will allow the social innovation to start.

Role of stakeholders

The other actors involved in the social innovation network also have an important role to play since social organizations rely on inclusive governance. For example, Kristensen (2012) notes the role of employees and managers in social services to use negotiated opportunities to create their structure. Municipalities are also identified as important players in social innovation projects (Damvad Danmark A/S, 2012).

Table 3 below groups together the definitions of *social entrepreneur* or *social enterprise* mentioned in the reports.

Table 3: social entrepreneur or social enterprise definitions from the trans-national literature review

Source: From Fuglsang and Scupola (2019); Magnussen and Rønning (2019a), Révész (2019)

Author(s)	Definition
Damvad Danmark A/S (2012) (Denmark)	Social entrepreneurs are seen as the individuals who, through their innovative qualities and ability to create social change, provide social innovation in the peripheral regions
(Huszák, 2018; Szűcsné Markovits, Sasvári, 2015) (Hungary)	Social enterprises are enthusiastic organizations that exist to solve social or environmental challenges, but often lack of competences to achieve their goals in an effective and sustainable manner. In many cases they have only limited access to financial resources in Hungary
Gustavsen and Kobro (2012) (Norway)	The term “social entrepreneur” is perceived as a label applied to individuals who are conducting the work called social entrepreneurship or the organizations these people create. Social innovations denote the result (in best case) social entrepreneurs create by performing social entrepreneurship.
Skog Hansen et. al. (2013:23) (Norway)	<i>“Social innovation and social entrepreneurship are basically about developing new services, activities, ways of collaboration, and organizations, and are aimed at finding solutions for social needs, and to create social values. Social innovations take place both within and across traditional borders between state, market and civil society”</i>
Szörényiné Kukorelli, (2015: 106) (Hungary)	<i>“Social enterprises and social cooperatives are the institutional forms of social innovation in which a sense of community and social commitment meets economic activity.”</i>

1.2.1.4 The production processes of Social innovation

Hybridization of Resources

The value of social innovation is related to the variety of actors. Unlike public services provided by public entities, social innovation networks mobilize unused resources in society. The multiplicity of actors' strategies makes it possible to obtain a variety of innovative mechanisms (Ailenei et al., 2007). These resources are often found across the public, private and third sector (Lauritzen, 2012). According to Laville and Nyssens (2001), Gallois et al. (2016), the hybridization of the three types of resources is a feature of the third sector based on solidarity. The resources of associations come from membership fees, activity revenues and public subsidies (Richez-Battesti et al., 2012). The diversity of the stakeholders involved in entrepreneurial activities creates relational assets (Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009, 2012), and the resulting social economy organizations become less vulnerable to competition from the private sector as well as from the public sector.

This hybridization means that social innovation is cross-sectoral: the potential for innovation often occurs across sectors, where knowledge and ideas are exchanged between public sector actors, volunteers (civil society) and the private sphere (Damvad Danmark A/S, 2012). Therefore, the composition of the group of participants is paramount to the success of the social innovation (Damvad Danmark A/S, 2012). This group of actors supports the entire development process of the innovative project (Schieb-Bienfait et al., 2009).

A growing number of actors provide support to social entrepreneurs and social enterprises. Stakeholders participation is one of the distinctive criteria of social entrepreneurship. The actors supporting these projects (e.g. financiers, banks, foundations, local authorities) have special relationships with social enterprises (Draperi, 2010). In the case of social entrepreneurship, the studies emphasise that the advantage of creating social innovation networks lies in giving them visibility and organising them better.

Innovation Processes

The innovation process of social innovation is often associated with collaborative or co-production approaches, open innovation, joint efforts, bottom-up processes (Lauritzen, 2012). Another characteristic of the innovation process is that the objective is not always defined in advance. In some processes, the goal is diffuse. Therefore, social innovation processes face changes and are often characterized by adaptations (Kristensen, 2012). The shape and content of the project may occur along the way depending on the negotiations between the partners (Kristensen, 2012). In the innovation process, the social entrepreneur plays an important role as a bridge builder (Skjelberg, 2018). An innovation process with an objective that is not fully defined could hardly be set up as part of a public service mission delivered by the State. Social enterprises deal with issues that neither the market nor the state can solve or "see" (Huszák, 2018).

Stakeholder participation is one of the distinctive criteria of social entrepreneurship. This participation increases the complexity of the innovation process *"because of the diversity of interactions that are established between actors, and because of the various forms of grouping between people and organizational structures involved in the deployment of the innovation"* (Schieb-Bienfait et al., 2009: 31). As a result, the emergence process of the project is difficult to trace since it appears most of the time as a collective decision (Schieb-Bienfait et al., 2009). According to Draperi (2010), the actors supporting these projects (e.g. financiers, banks, foundations, local authorities) have special relationships with this type of company.

1.2.2 Co-creation/co-production processes (Samskabelse, Samskaping...) (Denmark, France, Norway)

Social innovation networks are an emerging topic in the co-creation literature. This research theme focuses on co-creation mainly between public actors and citizens. Several terms are used to designate collaboration between actors, with specific expressions in some countries. The studies highlight the meaning of the term, the context in which these terms are used, the actors involved, the innovation process and the evaluation of co-creation.

1.2.2.1 Terms and their meanings

Co-creation is not the only term used to refer to collaboration between different actors. "Samskabelse" that literally means co-creation is a prominent term in the Danish literature. In Norway, the concept of "Samskaping" has the same positive connotations. 'Samskabelse' is equalized both with co-production and co-creation. The terms are seen as interchangeable concepts (Voorberg et al., 2013). These terms are also used in connection with the concept of 'collaborative innovation'

(Torfing, 2016) which refers to collaboration among interdependent actors responsible for or related to public services provision. Kobro et al. (2019:8) describes as *“collaborative innovation”*, a *“field of new, original cooperation, crossing both horizontal and vertical structures in the welfare state, is characterized as “samskaping” in Norwegian; “samskabing” in a Danish context, co-creation and co-production (among other labels) in England”*. The terms refer both to cross-sectoral collaboration about innovation and user/citizen involvement in service delivery. In Norway, the term co-creation is not very widespread in the theoretical understanding of cross-sectoral cooperation, but it takes place in various forms between municipalities and voluntary actors in Norway. It seems that there is a link between Norwegian established traditions and conditions for cooperation (Eimhjellen and Loga, 2017). Conceptions of co-creation are also linked to types of governance. The New Public Management is looking for efficiency oriented co-creation/co-production whereas the New Public Governance is interested in a democratic co-creation/co-production based on networks of public and private actors (Agger and Tortzen, 2015).

Several definitions of co-creation are provided: According to (Voorberg et al., 2013, p. 2-3), co-creation/co-production is *“the active involvement of citizens in public service delivery by creating sustainable partnerships with citizens”*. Lundgaard et al. (2018) and Kobro et al. (2018) describe co-creation as having: *“An innovative potential to renew the structures and change the quality and content of the services. Many challenges, such as environmental questions, crime, social and health problems, cannot be solved by the state alone. This has created a demand to trigger other social forces in society and to develop approaches to municipal service production where persons who are directly affected by a service can be directly involved in the design and implementation of it”*. These definitions focus either on the actors in the co-creation, or on their goals and potential for change.

While these terms are often used interchangeably, there are differences in their origin. For example, the term *“co-production”* has its roots in the public sector while the term *“co-creation”* has its roots in the private sector, where it signifies user-driven innovation (Agger and Tortzen, 2015; Eimhjellen and Loga, 2017). Co-creation refers to the contribution of non-public actors (non-profit organizations, volunteers, citizens, consumers, commercial companies) to the welfare production in cooperation with the public sector (Eimhjellen and Loga, 2017). The term *“collaborative innovation”* is often used in connection with the concept of co-creation/co-production. Collaborative innovation is a concept developed by Danish political scientists (Torfing, 2016), and widely used in Norway. It refers to public sector innovations achieved through the involvement of various stakeholders and organizations across the public, private and voluntary sectors (Hartley, Sørensen, Torfing, 2013; Sørensen, Torfing, 2011; Torfing, 2016). The following table (table 4) summarizes the terms and their meanings.

Table 4: Terms related to Co-creation and their meanings
Source: From Fuglsang and Scupola (2019), Magnussen and Rønning (2019a)

Terms	Co-creation/co-production/samskabelse/Samskaping... refers both to cross-sectoral collaboration about innovation and user/citizen involvement in service delivery
Collaborative innovation	Refers to collaboration among interdependent actors responsible for/ or related to public services provision/ Public sector innovations that are

	mobilized through the interaction and engagement of various stakeholders and organizations across the public, private and voluntary sectors (Hartley, Sørensen, Torfing, 2013; Sørensen, Torfing, 2011; Torfing, 2016).
Samskabelse/Samskaping	appears as a prominent term in the Danish/Norwegian literature about PSINSIS Means co-creation AND co-production
Co-production	has its roots in the public sector (Agger, Tortzen, 2015; Eimhjellen, Loga, 2017)
Co-creation	has its roots in the private sector, where it signifies user-driven innovation. Refers to the contribution of non-public actors, (non-profit organizations, volunteers, citizens, consumers or commercial companies) to the welfare production in cooperation with the public sector (Eimhjellen and Loga, 2017)

1.2.2.2 A multi-actor co-creation

The literature on co-creation gives an insight into the actors that can contribute to public service provision, often in collaboration with the public sector. These actors are either initiated by the network or mobilized by public actors to participate in the design of social innovation.

The question generally debated is how citizens and public actors together can develop public welfare (Agger, Tortzen, 2015). The end-user of the service is often cited as an important actor in the process of emergence of these innovations. In the case of the provision of a public service, the end-users refer to the population concerned by the actions undertaken (Sabel, 1996; Rousselle, 2013). For Lallemand (2001), the active participation of users is essential to qualify these innovations as social. Some innovation networks aim to enable users to be actors in their own project. (Valentin, De Virville, 2017). Their contribution leads to the recognition of new forms of expertise such as expertise through use (Callon et al., 2001), or collective production (Goux-Baudiment et al., 2001; Louvet, 2005; Rocci, Dejoux, 2010). The mobilization and cooperation of a plurality of actors (whether they are beneficiaries of the actions, civil society actors, or from the business world) ensure the success of public policies (Enjolras, 2010). The participation of other stakeholders are also highlighted such as relatives of the users, first-line employees and experts (Disch, 2019). Torfing et al. (2017) focus on collaboration between various public and/or private actors (state, regions, municipalities, self-governing institutions, experts, private companies, interest groups, civil society associations, users, citizens, etc.) as a decisive driving force in the creation of innovation.

According to Pedersen-Ulrich (2016), the role of municipalities is significant in the process of co-creation. This author presents four approaches to co-creation/co-production between municipalities and other public organizations: Governed co-creation, responsabilizing co-creation, equal dignity co-creation, and facilitating co-creation. This typology depends on the role of municipalities either playing a central role in the co-creation process, managing the process while leaving responsibility for the content to the actors, not controlling the process while playing a central role, or leaving external actors free of the content.

An essential characteristic of social innovation is the process implemented by stakeholders (Cloutier, 2003). Partnerships allow convergence between the market, the State and civil society (Harrisson et

al., 2008) and the co-creation/co-production process enables changes in existing roles among policymakers, professionals and citizens (Agger, Tortzen, 2015).

1.2.2.3 Innovation processes

In the studies, the emphasis is on the benefits of the bottom-up collective process (Besançon, 2015). Authors insist on the local nature of the solution, and on the process of creating innovation (Bourque et al., 2007; Besançon, 2013; Richez-Battesti et al., 2012). This process is the result of a co-construction involving various local actors. They give importance to informal practices and a diversity of actors (Djellal, Gallouj, 2012, 2018). According to Torfing et al. (2017), the different types of experience, professional knowledge, resources, competencies and ideas of the players often contribute to better understanding of problems, greater idea richness, more thorough selection and testing of new solution.

Disch (2019: 14) depicts co-creation as a tool for bringing different actors together in the organization and development of products and services. Collaboratively organizing complex social problems helps to take into account the different values and starting points from the different actors (Mandag Morgen, 2011). The innovation emerged from a hybridization of resources as well as from the cooperation of diversified actors. According to Disch (2019), co-created services differ from traditional municipal services in terms of design, content, structures and resource allocation. Richez-Battesti and Vallade (2009) highlight the fact that social initiatives are not necessarily the result of new ideas, but rather of a different conception. These authors insist that the innovation process must be the result of new relationships or collaborations. According to Agger and Tortzen (2015), co-creation/co-production is often driven by the public sector and that citizens are involved only at the later stages. The motives for citizens to participate are personal relations, social interactions, self-efficacy and contextual relations. Co-creation/co-production may be based in mutual independency between citizens and the public sector.

1.2.2.4 Evaluation

Co-creation/co-production is supposed to create positive gains for both society and individuals. However, the empirical impact of co-creation/co-production is difficult to measure. Without systematic measurement and evaluation, it is both impossible to optimize efforts and classify them according to priority. However, according to Torfing et al. (2017) there is a tendency to either measure the result and the effect or measure the process and the use of specific methods. This is a problem because both types of measurement are important and do not provide the same information.

Two traditions of measurement of co-creation/co-production, the traditional and the systemic, have been identified. The traditional evaluation measures the effect, such as cost-benefit and effect evaluation, and the systemic evaluation is a type of measurement where participants have a meaning in the co-creation/co-production and evaluation process (Agger et al., 2018). In another report, four bottom lines for measuring the outcomes are discussed: democracy, efficiency, innovation and public value. Torfing et al. (2017) measured collaborative innovation in crime prevention activities with new criterion: 1) collaboration, 2) innovation and 3) crime prevention effectiveness in local projects. The

report shows that the parameters involved in the construction of the three main variables lead to consistent measurements and suggests that collaboration has significance through its impact on innovation.

1.2.3 Collaboration with the Civil Society, modernization of the state, co-operation (Denmark, France, Norway)

The theme of collaboration with civil society is generally associated with the topic of modernization of the state. The literature on these themes sees collaboration between public organizations and civil society as a means of strengthening the performance of actions. Such cooperation is not new (Ibsen, Espersen, 2016); it has taken different forms over time. (Andersen, Espersen, 2017).

1.2.3.1 The actors and the content of cooperation

This theme of research, particularly present in Danish, French and Norwegian literature, indicates that there are many forms of cooperation, but the extent of these collaborations is not always well defined. The content of the collaboration can be very different. Research shows that it is difficult to determine how close the collaboration is in practice. Networks sometimes consist of "loose network-based links", or a few individual volunteers with delimited tasks, or take the form of "common practice". These approaches show that the experience of users, agents and citizens is a basis for questioning public policies. In the experiments, many of the partnerships identified are between municipalities and civil society. Cooperation also has the particularity of being cross-sectoral (NGOs, industry, public authorities). The family of the targeted populations is sometimes encouraged to participate in these networks (e.g. unemployed people) (Andersen et al, 2014). Partnerships with "Voluntary professionalism" is also highlighted as an effective partnership. These partnerships make it possible to build solutions due to their professional knowledge in relation to the problem faced by the citizens (e.g. in the case of citizens with disabilities (Espersen, Olsen, 2018)). These experiments of new "co-operation" are welcome because they suggest "spaces for innovation" (Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009) and focus on "virtually everything" (Ibsen, Espersen, 2016)

1.2.3.2 The objectives of this cooperation

The expected objectives of this cooperation identified by the literature are of two kinds:

(a) The first objective of such cooperation is to overcome the difficulties encountered by the State in providing public services.

Collaboration with the Civil Society provides innovative solutions for both economic and organizational reasons (Aubry, 2007; Bonnin Grémy, 2004; Dupré, 1998; Zafiropoulou, 2013).

- Economic reasons: These partnerships are solutions to continue to deliver public services while reducing costs (France).
- Organizational reasons: overcoming problem of organization in public administrations. Public administration is not always adapted to meet current issues (vertical organization around a

function and not around a problem) and faces difficulties to act on cross-functional issues (Enjolras, 2010)

- Lack of supply: To complement a deficient or non-existent supply (Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009).

(b) The second objective is to explore new forms of cooperation between the State and citizens

Another objective of these cooperations is to find innovative solutions through other forms of organization and in particular by involving the plurality of stakeholders (agents, users, associations, researchers, companies, users) using collective intelligence. These new forms of cooperation are encouraged by the state (ex: Innovate bottom-up networks, New method of innovation through with public actors (27th region), networked-based horizontal collaborative work, animation of ecosystem conducive to public innovation (future users), public private innovation partnerships).

The new forms of cooperation arise from networks of actors (beneficiaries, employees, local actors), and horizontal governance (Enjolras, 2010)). Cooperation concerns knowledge sharing, contracts and the development of strong organizational competencies.

Working with target populations would allow bridge-building social capital by developing thin and thick trust. These kinds of partnerships enable close interaction with a clear focus, due to day to day activities. This collaboration takes place across the local area (Andersen et al, 2014).

The following figure (Fig.3), which shows the types of networks (from the most imprecise to the best identified actors), as well as the objectives (from specific to broadly-stated objectives), gives an idea of the multiplicity of possible configurations. The central circle indicates examples of collaboration (type, nature).

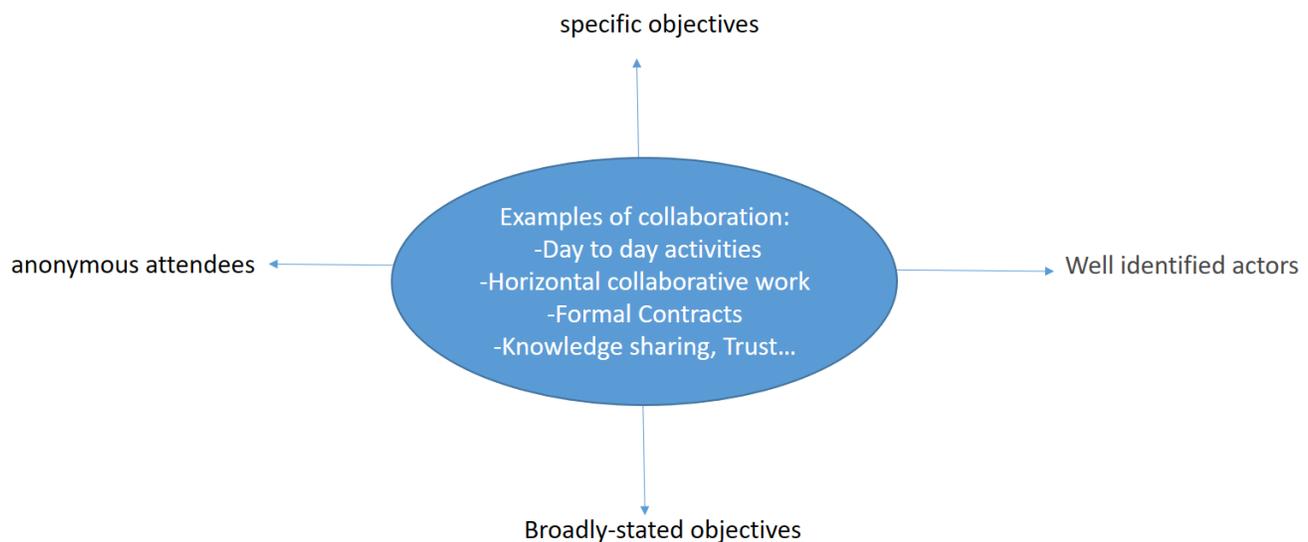


Figure 3 Spaces for innovation

1.2.4 Public-Private innovation partnerships (Denmark, Spain)

A part of the literature devoted to Public-Private partnerships studies social innovation networks: the part regarding the issue of public-private innovation partnership. Public-private innovation partnerships are often more collaboration-oriented than traditional PPP. The collaboration focuses on knowledge sharing, development of ideas, common innovation.

These partnerships try to develop broader collaborations across public and private sectors (Brogaard, 2015). These collaborations include non-formal agreement. Thus, they are closer to partnerships than to supplier-buyer relationship. These forms of partnerships are linked to the development of New Public Management (NPM) and network management. Networks are more innovation-oriented and no longer necessarily aimed at producing clearly defined public goods (Rankin et al., 2017).

The areas of deployment are varied: welfare areas (health, the elderly, day care and education), cooperation between municipalities and companies (e.g. project Carbon 20). The different main issues that are developed with PSINs: Development of a value chain (QoS); innovation and technology transfer (ITT); market infrastructure (IM); business development services / business advice (SDC); and services that improve the people's quality of life (SVD) (Rankin, et al., 2017; Casado, 2007)

In some countries, public private networks include the full range of formal and informal collaboration agreements. This is the case for Spain where the understanding of public-private networks (PPN) has expanded in recent times from contractual relationships to the inclusion of informal collaboration agreements between the public sector, the private sector and its intermediary partners (including non-governmental organizations, civil society and international entities). Another reason which explains the development of PPPs in Spain is the collaboration between Spanish public administrations in the development of PSINs: in the absence of agreement, the plans of the State or the highest rank administration involved will prevail over those of any other administration. This specificity justifies the use of PPPs because it might reduce the barriers to entry for the private sector (because of this sort of preclacy) and can provide greater certainty to private partners.

Literature reviews offer several definitions of public-private innovation partnerships. These definitions highlight the objective of the network, which is innovation, the way in which it is obtained (collaboration between public and private partners) and the purpose of the collaboration: "develop public welfare services" "public services".

Table 5: Public-Private Innovation Partnership definitions
Source: From Fuglsang and Scupola (2019), Peralta (2019a)

Authors	Definitions
Groes et al., 2011 in Brogaard and Petersen (2014) (Denmark).	The purpose of public-private innovation partnership is to innovate and develop public welfare services through new products, processes or by testing an existing solution in a new context.
Brogaard and Petersen (2014)	Public-private innovation partnerships are often more development and collaboration-oriented than traditional supplier-buyer relations and puts

(Denmark)	knowledge sharing, common innovation and developing ideas into focus.
La Guía de la Certificación en Asociaciones Público-Privadas de APMG, (2016, p12), World Bank Group (Spain)	"a contractual means to develop public assets and public services. PPN contracts can be contracts to develop and manage new infrastructure, contracts to carry out significant improvements to existing infrastructure (both are called infrastructure PPNs) and those in which a private partner manages existing infrastructure or only provides services public (both cases are called services PPNs)."

The expected objectives of this cooperation are to achieve a result that is superior to a service produced solely by the public administration or produced solely by private actors: "Innovation partnership might lead to results and added value that would not otherwise have been realized". This efficiency is the result of the specialization of each of the partners in the tasks for which it was most prepared. It also makes it possible to achieve sustainability for the whole project. The extra added value is obtained by combining the resources and complementary capabilities of public and private partners, sharing tasks according to the performance of each partner. The public partners ensure a uniformity and good quality supply (Boland, 2012; Poulton and Macartney, 2012 in Rankin et al., 2017). This added value justifies the broadening of the PPP concept and the transition to PSINs compared to other ordinary contracting alternatives (Rankin et al., 2017).

The Spanish governments and public entities justify these alliances by market failures. Cooperation enables the production of a set of market incentives that stimulate the participation of the private sector in activities that would otherwise be considered as having marginal commercial value or high risk (Rankin et al., 2017). PSINs mobilize funding sources and do not produce an increase in public debt, they encourage the distribution of risk, innovation to better achieve political and social objectives (market access). "Public-private mega-alliances" are used as platforms for multi-stakeholder alliances to promote and invest in the field of inclusion and sustainable growth in areas with a vulnerable population (Rankin et al., 2017).

Brogaard and Petersen, (2014) have identified Success Factors and Barriers to public private innovation partnerships: The success factors consist in the development of criteria to identify a clear problem to be solved; in commercial potential for the solution; in trust and continuous communication rather than formal cooperation contracts, in an early clarification of the procurement rules in the innovation process, in mutual understanding of differences between public and private cultures and decision-making and in an enthusiastic partners at the head of cooperation. Barriers are linked to a lack of clarification of possible risks in the cooperation, lack of clarity about the purpose of the project and a lack of expectation between the parties at the start of the cooperation. Some barriers are more of a challenge for private partners (such as technical competencies) while others are a challenge for public partners (limited or swinging organizational support) (Brogaard and Petersen, 2014).

1.2.5 Special subjects related to social innovation (territorial innovation, rural development, digital technologies, innovative -commons, sustainable developments) (≈ all countries)

The review of the literature on social innovation networks highlighted some specific research themes in several countries (France, Hungary, Norway). These themes of research are important enough to be analyzed. They include research themes that are becoming more and more substantial (Territorial innovation/rural -regional development) or research themes that are more interested in the issue of social innovation networks in some countries (e.g. the role of digital technologies, etc.).

1.2.5.1 Social innovation networks and the territory

This theme of research comes from the literature dedicated to territorial innovation (Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009; Durance, 2011a, 2011b; CGET, 2017). This literature focuses on the role of social actors and their innovative practices in territorial restructuring and territorial experiments (Klein, Fontan, 2004; Moulaert et al, 2005; Klein, Léveque, 2009; Frigoli, 2004; Hillier et al. 2004; Souchard et al., 2013).

This literature refers to different types of territories: geographically delimited territories (e.g. the city) on specific themes (e.g. rural innovation, regional development, urban planning), or territories "of actors" that correspond to socially constructed areas (e.g. Territorial Poles of Economic Cooperation/TECP). The studies show the benefits that these networks of actors provide to the territory and the way in which the actors use the resources of the territory to achieve their goals and innovate.

The notion of Social innovation linked to territorial innovation is attached to the emergence of new forms of solidarity (e.g. new redistribution, construction of social links), local commitment and cooperation. Hillier et al. (2004) define social innovation as a local, bottom-up, and non-governmental initiative.

Networking of actors has positive effects on the territory

The authors highlight the positive social consequences that the network of actors has on a given territory. Social innovations are part of the collective dynamics and governance (Richez-Battesti, 2008). Collective action is not limited to the participation of public authorities (Petrella, Richez-Battesti 2010), the social innovation networks give rise to new governance patterns (Gallois et al., 2016, Enjolras, 2010). These new forms of governance are linked to the disengagement of the State and the new focus on networks (Enjolras, 2010). However, public actors develop territorial good practices at different scale (Beauvais, in Avise, 2012).

The network contributes to the resolution of economic and social problems in a given territory (Cloutier, 2003). The solutions are obtained through the combination or hybridization of multiple resources: market resources (such as companies, capital), public actors (national, regional or municipal government agencies) and social actors (such as cooperatives, third sectors, community-

based organizations, community training). The hybridization produces a specific community and a *collective heritage* (Gallois et al., 2016, p. 368). These networks often help to "do better with less" (Oural report, 2015).

Public authorities have an important role to play in these local networks in order to facilitate the local dynamics of multi-actor co-production (public-private associations). Some of these networks create new mechanisms in an institutionalized framework for the co-construction and the co-design of policies with citizens.

Territory as a vector for identity construction

Within this literature, the territory is considered as a vector for the construction of collective identities and "collective patrimony" (Klein, 1992; Gingras, 2004; Gallois et al., 2016). The territory is regarded as a force that allows the convergence of civil society actors, as well as other resources of the territory towards innovative and solidarity-based economic development projects (Gallois et al., 2016). The specificities of the territory often determine the configuration of actors wishing to be involved in local projects (Bonnin, Grémy, 2004). The collaborative relationships are driven by the recognition of a shared territorial identity (Klein, 1992).

The creation of a collective heritage

In this stream of research, Social innovation is "*intimately linked to the social, institutional and material conditions in which it takes place*" as a '*territorially integrated development*' (Hillier et al. 2004: 150). The "collective patrimony" ("*patrimoine collectif*") is a result of the Social innovation (Gallois et al. 2016: 380). It ensures the sustainability of experimentation (Gallois et al., 2016). Thus, social innovations are part of the collective dynamics and are strongly rooted in the territory from which they have emerged. The following figure (Fig.4) shows the links previously described between the territory and the network of actors.

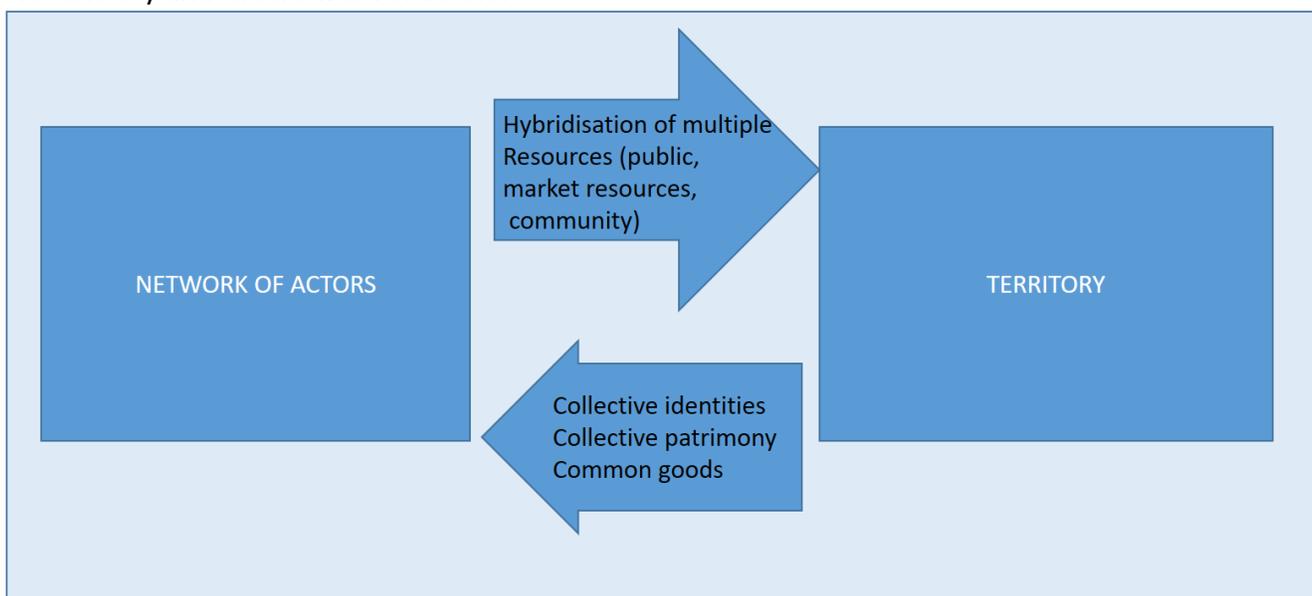


Figure 4. Construction of a collective patrimony

Terminology associated with social innovation networks in the territories

The notion of social innovation networks in territories encompasses different themes related to innovation, and leads to the consideration of different territories. The terms territorial innovation, rural innovation, commons innovation, formal cooperation of actors in a territory such as clusters (e.g. Territorial Economic Cooperation Poles), and city-related innovations (Frugal cities/cities in transition) are the main terms that have emerged from the different literature reviews (Table 6).

The notion of territorial innovation, outlined in the previous points, is the most encompassing notion. It stems in France from the institutionalist approach, which considers social innovation as a territorialized system and a driver of social transformation (Richez-Battesti et al., 2012). Rural innovation is an application of territorial innovation in rural areas. Rural innovation is a significant concept in Hungarian literature. The authors focus on the use of social innovation networks and the role of social actors and their innovative initiatives and practices in regional development of rural and/or peripheral areas (Csizmadia, 2008; Czipczer, Bordás, Murányi, 2015; Fazekas, 2007; Karajz, Kis-Orloczki, 2019; Katonáné Kovács, Varga, Nemes, 2016; Kocziszky, Veresné Somosi, Balaton, 2017; Nemes, Varga, 2014; Paczári, 2018; Pankucsi, 2015; Szörényiné Kukorelli, 2015; Varga, 2017a, 2017b).

Hungarian literature proposes two types of approaches to rural innovation: central and local approach. The Central approach is a top-down development process, often long-sighted, in which the state or its “central agent” tries to preserve and develop various values (cultural, natural, community) that still exist in rural areas as public goods. The Local approach of rural development relies on the aspirations of people living in the countryside to improve their environment, economy and their life chance. This second type of innovation is based on an in-depth knowledge of the local context, but almost deficient in resources, often short-sighted. The challenge remains to integrate these two approaches through multi-level governance including intensive vertical and horizontal communication. Hungarian innovation networks suffer from this lack of integration as well as the low level of trust in institutions and willingness to cooperate (Nemes, Varga, 2014).

Rural innovations can be distinguished into two groups: *Innovation in the countryside* which innovations are strongly rooted in the territory from which they have emerged. They take into account the characteristics of rural areas, are created locally and can be mobilized locally; and *Innovations penetrating the countryside* (adaptation process) which origin is linked to centers (urban areas, cities). Despite their apparently out-of-date features, “Traditioinnovations” (describing practices and techniques, deriving from historical or past traditional knowledge) are innovations belonging to the notion of rural innovation (Cannarella, Piccioni, 2011; Szörényiné Kukorelli, 2015).

Table 6: Definitions of the different themes related to territorial innovation (in a broad sense)

Source: From Magnussen and Rønning (2019a), Merlin-Brogniart (2019a), Révész (2019)

Notion	Definitions (Author)
“Territorial innovation” (France)	A new solution (or a solution transferred to a new context) to a problem and/or a need identified collectively in a territory, with the purpose of improving well-being and achieving a sustainable local development (Oural 2015: 7)
“innovation commons” (Norway)	A geographical territory where the actors collect, develop, and distribute different types of resources in a way that makes them common for the actors within the territory and available for creating new ideas and innovations” (Higdem et. al. 2019:158).
“Rural innovation” (Hungary)	The introduction of something new (a novel change) to economic or social life in rural areas, which adds new economic or social value to rural life (Szörényiné Kukorelli, 2015)
Territorial Economic Cooperation Poles (France)	<i>Formal construction such as “Territorial Economic Cooperation Poles”</i> The territorial poles of economic cooperation are constituted by the grouping in the same territory of social and solidarity economy companies, within the meaning of Article 1 of this law, which joins forces with enterprises, in conjunction with local authorities and their groupings, research centres, higher education and research establishments, training organizations or any other natural or legal person, to implement a common and continuous strategy of mutualization, cooperation or partnership at the service of innovative economic and social projects, socially or technologically, and carrying sustainable local development (Art. 9 law n°2014-856 related to the Social and Solidarity Economy)
Frugal cities/cities in transition (France)	This notion aims to "offer more satisfaction to its inhabitants by consuming fewer resources". The concept of the frugal city" is not a turnkey urban model, but a logical framework within which many solutions can be invented - and are already being invented (Haëntjens, 2011). These approaches are based on new value systems such as the notion of frugal cities (Haëntjens, 2011) and cities in transition (Hopkins, 2010).

The notion of “innovation commons” is not very widespread but exists in some countries, especially Norway. This notion is defined as “a geographical territory where the actors collect, develop, and distribute different types of resources in a way that makes them common for the actors within the territory and available for creating new ideas and innovations” (Higdem et al. 2019:158). The reference to the territory, to collectives of actors and to the mobilization of their resources is very similar to the definition of territorial innovation.

Territorial innovation gives rise to different types of innovation dedicated to the city. These innovations are part of the policies of local authorities. They are based on new value systems such as the notion of frugal cities (Haëntjens, 2011) and cities in transition (Hopkins, 2010) and mobilize new economic models in which the different actors of the city (local authorities, town planners, developers, companies, civil society, researchers) co-produce and cooperate with the inhabitants of the territory to find integrated solutions with a territorial anchorage.

A number of formal constructions of "territory of actors" can also be associated with territorial innovation. For example, the "Poles of Territorial Economic Cooperation" (TECP). This concept was formalized in 2010 following the analysis of existing practices of grouping actors, including local authorities (see definition in the table). These types of social construction, including the emergence of social networks and the construction of relationships between local companies, social actors in a territory and local political authorities, are socially or technologically innovative, and their objective is to promote sustainable local development. They can be innovative thanks to new relationships resulting from collective territorial dynamics (Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009; Rousselle, 2013).

1.2.5.2 Digital technologies as a new way of delivering social innovation

Digital social innovation is defined as "*innovation that seeks to respond to current social and environmental challenges through the use of digital technologies*".

One of the objectives and key success factors of these social innovation networks is the involvement of citizens (Nagy, 2019). These innovation networks are made possible thanks to new technologies (infocommunication tools) which help to reduce the barriers linked to access (especially geographical access, e.g. for isolated people), barriers in terms of communication, and have the advantage of being an inexpensive, easy-to-use digital tools (e.g. Internet, social media and smartphone applications).

Some studies summarize the social challenges of ageing societies with an emphasis on the role of technology (Kenesei et al., 2019; Michalkó et al., 2018). It appears that infocommunication tools (Internet, social media, smart phones) provide elderly people with significant assistance in establishing and maintaining social relationships, remote care and regular medical monitoring (e.g. smart home solutions).

1.3 Concluding remarks and recommendations: "*Service innovation and its biases*"

The analysis of the literature on social innovation networks based on a review of the grey and academic trans-national literature suggests that although the issue of PSINSIs is not a research stream in itself, the existence of common research themes referring to PSINSIs indicates the growing interest of academic researchers and politicians in this topic. The following recommendations attached to the analysis of the literature review can be made. They address service innovation and the biases.

One significant problem for the management of social innovation network with a public service aim (PSINSIs) is the nature of the innovation (not always easy to identify) and of the innovation processes (a multi-actor process). The notion of PSINSIs is a flexible and adaptable one. It reflects organizational dynamics of varying scope. The familiarization of public managers with the characteristics of PSINSIs presented above is important to improve the support provided to these innovation networks. PSINSIs are an important generator of social innovation. But social innovation is mainly based on non-technological innovation. And currently, technological innovation is still predominant in the minds of many decision-makers. As a result, non-technological innovation is not yet recognized at its true value. In addition, social innovation, which is largely "intangible", suffers from the same visibility problems as service innovation with regard to traditional indicators of innovation measurement (i.e. R&D and patenting) (Djellal, Gallouj, 2012). The last point related to the analysis of the literature

review concerns the emergence of approaches associated with territorial innovation and the construction of territorial solidarity. These approaches entail the participation of local political authorities.

1.3.1 Technological and non-technological innovation

Recommendation: Ensure that the search for social innovation networks is not limited to technological innovations.

The predominance of technological innovation is frequently noted in the economic literature (Gallouj, Weinstein, 1997; Sundbo, 1998; Combes, Miles, 2000; Gallouj, Djellal, 2010). As the most visible form of innovation is the technological innovation, most of the innovation networks supported by public authorities are networks that develop sophisticated R&D-based industrial and technological innovations (mainly material or tangible). This "technological bias" characterises what Gallouj (1994) describes as the technological or "assimilative" approach to innovation in services. To identify social innovation networks, a differentiation or service-based approach (Gallouj, 1994) is required. The differentiation approach (service-based) is the only approach capable of identifying and encouraging invisible or hidden forms of innovation in a social innovation networks both at the level of public action and operational management.

Social innovation networks are also affected by this observation: Some social innovation networks, particularly those initiated by public actors, have in the heart of their proposal the financing of the development of IT tools (applications, software, platforms, etc.). In the case of PSINSIs, non-technological innovations such as, among others, organizational, social, product and intangible process innovations are also important, if not more important, in the provision of innovative solutions. In order to make practices evolve, it is necessary to share common vocabulary and representations among public actors on what innovation is and in particular social innovation and its characteristics, and to have a toolbox to identify new forms of innovation, support them and finance them.

1.3.2 Make the invisible visible

Recommendation: Set up collaborative and cross-sectoral project proposals in order to identify or encourage the development of PSINSIs.

Social innovation networks with a public service objective are not easily noticeable, unlike other types of public-private cooperation, such as (the) collaborations on technological innovations. The non-technological nature of the projects or its "intangibility" makes them less visible to the eyes of the actors (public and private). Moreover, contracts based on social innovation collaboration are more complex to set up.

In the case of social innovation networks (PSINSIs), visibility is even lower than in the case of other forms of non-technological innovation networks (e.g. public-private partnerships or Living Labs) which either are based on collaboration contracts that fall within well-defined legal frameworks, or possess infrastructures framing the projects. The notion of PSINSIS described in this report is a social

construction that contributes to the visibility of a particular arrangement: a multi-actor and systemic innovation organization mode.

Therefore, regular calls for project from local or national public institutions (local authorities, government etc.), and by "functional sphere" (health, education, mobility, etc.) could help to identify potential PSINSIs, bring out innovative ideas, and initiate projects with a transversal goal.

1.3.3 Social innovation and territorial issue

Recommendation: Provide local authorities increased flexibility to implement policies that encourage, support and collaborate with territorial social innovation networks.

Social innovation, similarly to service innovation, could be produced "in a laboratory", but most often, social innovation is characterized by its local mode of production with the participation of local actors. In relation to this specificity and following the review of the trans-national literature, it is necessary to add to the characteristics of the PSINSIs a rising characteristic that seems to be developing in most countries: the territorial dimension of social innovation. Territorial anchoring is underlined several times by the research themes as an important element of social innovation networks (e.g. the willingness to anchor jobs in the territory, the creation of a collective heritage).

Although governments seem to rely more and more on private actors to provide public service activities, it appears that local public actors play an increasingly valuable role at the local level in supporting and participating in social innovation networks. This characteristic becomes essential in a context of disengagement of the State. The public actor can become a bridge-builder (a person who attempts to connect or reconcile opposing parties) between different actors at the local level. Networking of actors has positive effects on the territory. Local public authorities and organizations contribute to the provision of local resources in the process of hybridization of resources, they highlight good practices and facilitate local dynamics of co-creation. They institutionalize the framework for co-construction of policies with citizens.

2 Evidence-tested PSINSIs: empirical results

In this section we outline the results of five national case-study reports and discuss the elements of divergence with the synthesis of the literature review previously presented as well as the theoretical framework described in deliverable D.6 .1.

This section is organized as follows: after explaining the nature of the social innovation networks constituting our data, we propose a typology of social innovation networks aimed at public service from the characteristics of the innovation networks that we have identified. For each strategy, we present the general context of its use, the governance strategy, the key actors and the advantages and drawbacks of the model. We then discuss the types of innovation; the constraints, drivers and institutional factors; and the assessment issue of the social innovation networks. We outline the results at the end of the sections and offer recommendations.

2.1 The Service Innovation Networks studied

Within our research framework, the social innovation networks considered operate in the fields of health, notably on issues impacting the elderly (D1, F1, H3, N1, N5, S3) and the disabled (D2, H2, S3); education (D2, F3, H4, S2, S1) and problems related to the youth population (D3, N4); minorities (S1) and immigration (F4, H4 H5, N3); long-term unemployment (D3 D5, F2, H5, N2, S5); and environmental (D4, F5, S4) or urban (H1) issues.

The social innovation networks are quite recent. The oldest dates back to 1977, but the others were created after the 2000s: three of these innovation networks were created in the 2000s, 12 were created between 2010 and 2015 (including a sub-program started in 2014 by an association founded in 1995) and 8 were set up between 2016 and 2018.

All the selected case studies include both public and private agents (see Arrow Fig 1). We chose not to focus on social innovation networks consisting only of public agents from different public organizations in order to avoid analyzing public service innovation that would fall under the sole responsibility of the public sector, which is not the subject of our study.

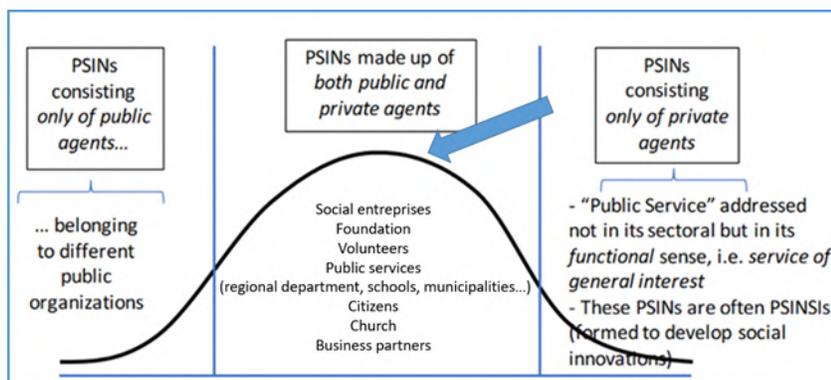


Figure 5. Typology of PSINs based on the type of actors and the case study reports
Source: From Desmarchelier, Djellal, Gallouj (2019b)

Most of the innovation networks studied deal with complex social problems. Among complex problems, “wicked” problems are difficult to tackle due to many multilayer interdependencies (Australian Public Service Commission, 2007). The public sector, with its traditional bureaucratic structures which often operate through single functional ‘silos’ (Brown et al., 2012), is too rigid to handle these social problems and therefore either ignores them or addresses them improperly. As a result, the social innovation networks selected for the case-studies include both public and private actors.

Finally, in our search for social innovation networks with a public service objective, it appeared that few PSINSIs consist only of private agents. In our samples of preliminary cases, there are no PSINSIs composed of private actors with a public service objective. The case studies analysed reveal that, even when the initiative of the project is private, public actors (municipality, public institution...) are present in the network. They participate either in raising awareness and acceptance of the network at the local level, in putting the actors in contact, or in financially supporting the project (at least at the beginning). The public actor also participates by providing an office, a meeting room, or a plot of land.

2.2 Towards a typology of Social Innovation networks with a public service objective?

Social innovation networks differ in the way they organize their innovation processes and the generation of innovation. From the case studies conducted, three main implementation strategies have been identified: “bottom-up”, “top-down” and “help it happen”. These three strategies demonstrate different characteristics with regards to the collaborative governance mode (vertical vs horizontal functioning), the intensity of the innovation at stake and the complexity of its implementation, the will to disseminate the innovation, and the availability of funding. In studying the governance approach at play, we draw inspiration from the work of Greenhalgh et al. (2004), who identifies three types of governance that bring about change (the “let it happen” approach, the “make it happen” approach and the “help it happen” approach). The 25 case studies have been classified according to the dominant implementation strategy (table 7).

Table 7: Typology of case studies according to their dominant implementation strategy

Case-studies	Bottom-up	Help it happen	Top-down
D1 CWA	X		
D2 Grennessminde	X		
D3 MYOB	X		
D4 Bybi	X		
D5 E-Bro	X		
F1 MAIA		X	
F2 TZCLD		X	
F3 Booster	X		
F4 Melting Potes	X		
F5 Sallysienne Fabrique	X		

Case-studies	Bottom-up	Help it happen	Top-down
H1 Járókelő	X		
H2 Esélykör		X	
H3 CédrusNet		X	
H4 No Bad Kid case		X	
H5 BAGázs	X		
N1 Flexible relief for dependents			X
N2 The strength of connecting vulnerable groups			X
N3 Refugees as resources in rural areas			X
N4 Drive for life (DFL)			X
N5 Reestablishing personal networks for people with dementia	X		
S1 Library of San Fermin	X		
S2 Antropoloops			X
S3 Fundacion Alas			X
S4 Madrid central			X
S5 La Rioja			X

2.2.1 “Top-down” implementation strategy

Referring to the theoretical framework described by Desmarchelier, Djellal, Gallouj (2019b), top-down organizational models are mostly linked to the paradigms of Traditional Public Administration (TPA) or New Public Management (NPM). In other words, innovations follow a linear process where the technostructure drives the innovation and its diffusion, while the initiator is instead a public actor (which includes public entrepreneurship or public intrapreneurship). In the case of the New Public Management, the resulting innovation process is more tailored than in the case of a Traditional Public Administration paradigm, as there is the increased possibility of local initiatives and solutions from the private actor. Top-down networks involve a “Make it happen” implementation strategy. This approach leads to the dissemination of a ready-made model to designated adopters and represents a planned and regulated process of innovation.

Context of emergence

The choice of a top-down strategy seems to depend on the area of the innovation under consideration. The top-down strategy takes place in a context where the public actor has an idea but cannot steer the project alone. Approaching complex social challenges (e.g., working with the elderly or migrant populations) demands the collaboration of multiple actors.

The technostructure involves local actors to steer the project because the nature of the service requires skills, or knowledge on local conditions, which the government does not have, or because

public resources (especially human resources) or public infrastructures are not sufficient to provide a quality service. The government may involve local public actors who create a network to collaborate on the social issue.

The governance mode

Top-down networks imply “Make it happen” implementation strategy. This strategy leads to the dissemination of a readymade model to designated adopters. This method corresponds to a planned, regulated, programmed innovation. Referring to the theoretical framework presented in the D.6.1. report, top-down organizational models are rather attached to the Traditional Public Administration (TPA) or New Public Management (NPM) paradigms. In other words, innovations follow a linear process where the technostructure reflects on the innovation and its diffusion, and the initiator is usually the public actor. In the case of the NPM, the resulting innovation process is more tailored than in the case of a Traditional Public Administration paradigm, as more room is allocated to local initiatives, as well as to solutions from the private actor.

The actors/ initiators of innovation

In this mode of organization of social innovation, users generally play a minor part in the innovation process. They are solicited only at the very end, to express their preferences or to evaluate the service provision. Co-production often takes place at a local level with local public actors (voluntary or not) in charge of implementing the innovative project, and with the local private actors (usually associations, social entrepreneurs...) who are solicited to experiment the project. The public actor (the technostructure) plays an important role as the initiator, as a facilitator or as a controller of innovation. Innovation can be a matter of public entrepreneurship or public intrapreneurship, as well as employee-driven innovation.

The advantages and disadvantages of top-down implementation strategies

Advantages

The top-down strategy has the advantage of ensuring that certain innovations involving private (or public) actors and requiring multi-stakeholder collaboration can emerge, by providing project financing or project execution assistance. In some countries where the activity of social entrepreneurs is not very dynamic (e.g. due to a sluggish economic context), the development of multi-actor networks through a top-down implementation can help to revitalize the offer.

Disadvantages

In relation to our case studies, the results concerning the success of social innovation networks with a top-down implementation are questionable. Firstly, insofar as the users are insufficiently taken into account in the innovation process, the proposed innovations do not necessarily correspond to an expressed need, which can lead to a waste of public spending (Box 1).

Box 1: Flexible relief for dependents and the importance of consulting end-users (N5)

“The aim of the project is to improve the life situation both for the people with dementia and for the dependents” by proposing new services. The project provides “a module designed for the dependents” in order to find a volunteer to take care of the people with dementia during several

hours. “Economical support was given from the Directorate of Health, and a local development center for nursing homes and home care (USHT) conducted the project in cooperation with the municipality”. While the project is welcome, some of the solutions deployed in this project do not match users' needs. For example, IT developments at the heart of this project have been funded to link volunteers with the dependents at any time. However, these applications are not essential for the dependents. The dependents only wish to have the telephone number of a specific volunteer they trust to define a time slot. They wanted predictability instead of flexibility.

Source: Magnussen and Rønning (2019b)

Furthermore, when the mode of operation is vertical, the local actors in charge of implementing innovation, are not necessarily convinced by the innovation since the innovation was not conceived by these actors. In this case, these actors do not exhibit the level of enthusiasm needed for the development and survival of the project, as the social entrepreneurs at the origin of the project would have done (see box 2). There may also be classic bureaucratic obstacles, such as the fear of change, that can hinder innovation.

Box 2: Refugees as resources in rural areas: an illustration of insufficient dialogue with local public actors (N3)

This project is a common initiative launched by the County Governor of Oppland and the leader for the Norwegian Labor and Welfare Administration (NLWA) in the county. The aim is to achieve a win-win situation by offering some Norwegian rural municipalities, which are losing inhabitants, to integrate refugees. The refugees are more easily integrated into a small town and they are more likely to find a job. However, in this project, “the conditions for an innovation project was not present” as “the facilitator had no mandate to change organizational structures or to force actors to change behavior”. Beyond the Lack of job in the countryside, “the project exposed the lack of cooperation between key actors in the municipal system”.

Source: Magnussen and Rønning (2019b)

2.2.2 “Bottom-up” implementation strategy

The second implementation strategy is the bottom-up strategy. The latter is often opposed to the top-down model. However, these models can adopt identical attributes concerning, for example, types of innovation or dissemination problems.

Context of emergence

When a social problem cannot be answered by the government or by the market, some actors, usually private actors (profit or non-profit), or actors from the third sector, propose solutions. Bottom-up innovation networks seem to offer a greater variety of solutions than top-down initiatives. Our case studies reveal that bottom-up innovation networks seem to operate in a wider range of innovation domains (sectoral or functional). The intensity of innovation varies (from lowest to highest degree of intensity - from simple incremental innovation to conceptual idea). The innovations focus on the actors' local living environment, as well as on the social areas traditionally supervised by the State (such as health, education). The solutions provided and the types of actors mobilized are more original (bike ride in the case of the elderly).

The governance mode

This second category of social innovation network follows the bottom-up pattern. It corresponds to a “Let it happen” approach. The bottom-up pattern allows actors to develop their own solutions, without inducing a model. This corresponds to an unpredictable, uncertain, emergent, adaptive, self-organizing innovation process (Greenhalgh et al., 2004). In the literature, the bottom-up innovation process is generally associated with collaborative approaches, or co-production processes (see Box 3). These elements can be found in particular in the co-production research theme (Damvad Danmark A/S 2012; Besançon, 2015), in the search for another mode of cooperation between the State and citizens, as well as in the territorial innovation stream.

Box 3: Grennessminde (D2)

“Grennessminde is part of a wide cross-sectoral network. The actors seem to be quite the same since the establishment of the foundation, but their roles and ways of operating have changed along the development of Grennessminde. The decision-making power of Grennessminde is dependent on the role they play as either sub-contractors or partners and whether they address the public, the private or the third sector. An additional note here is the key role that the private market has been and still is playing. Internships and close collaboration with the local companies have led to a current network consisting of approximately 150 companies, that also taps into the objective of Grennessminde: *“the ones in our network also has a social heart!”* as manager tells. This long-term collaboration was also part of the strategic development of Grennessminde. As a manager states: *“The close collaboration with the business community was our force, and in this manner the private sector network and our ability to engage in partnerships became our key competitive parameters”.*”

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019)

The actors/initiators of innovation

In our case studies, the main actor of bottom-up initiatives is rather the private actor in the broad sense (social enterprises NGOs, associations, foundations, private firms, individual service consumers/users and individual citizen). The characteristic of this actor is to be mobilizing and enthusiastic. Although less frequent in this type of emergence strategy, the initiator of the project can also be public, such as an elected representative of the municipality who gives the impetus to a project and ensures its dynamics (see Box 26).

The stakeholders involved in these bottom-up networks come from different spheres (agents, dependents of a person with dementia or disability, associations, researchers, companies, users) and have lived different experiences. This variety of experiences leads the stakeholders to listen to each other’s constraints and adapt the solution to each other’s needs, which helps to generate new ideas. Among the stakeholders, the public actor is also less dominant, but it is often involved in the network or to support activities, because the social problems justify a multi-stakeholder approach (solution requiring public and private services: care pathway, education pathway).

Dissemination

Bottom-up social innovations are not necessarily designed to be widely disseminated. Dissemination, if it takes place, is done by local channels, each with a different capacity to transform the innovation

in order to be locally anchored. The quality of the interactions between the actors of the territory, the capacity to find a project leader with an entrepreneurial spirit, to access resources (human, financial, cognitive) influence the success of the project and then the dissemination of the innovation.

The advantages/disadvantages of Bottom-up implementation strategies

Advantage

The advantage of these models is above all the full acceptance of the solution by the stakeholders. Since the networks mode of functioning is mostly horizontal, decision-making is collaborative and autonomous. Numerous stakeholders participate in the development of the innovation and the co-production of the service. Adjustments are made on an ad hoc basis and solutions are often low-cost and not politically charged. The entrepreneurial dimension is more present. These solutions are often based on knowledge of the field and are more operational in nature.

Disadvantages

The challenge of bottom-up initiatives concerns the dissemination of social innovation, which can be more complicated to implement once the innovation network has been developed, because of the local nature of the innovation or the lack of resources of the network. However, the issue of dissemination is difficult to estimate from our case studies, given the recent nature of social innovation networks.

2.2.3 “Help it happen” implementation strategy

The last implementation strategy is the “help it happen” strategy. In terms of governance, this strategy may be presented as an intermediate model between the bottom-up and top-down model.

Context of emergence

This type of “help it happen” organization is favoured when the field of social innovation corresponds to one of the fields already covered by public authorities (health, education, mobility, transport, safety, employment, social services, or utilities) and when the social innovation focuses on an essential element of the service (see Box 4). Since this field has historically been assigned to the State, the latter wishes to control the way in which the project is carried out (the need to control equity or continuity of service, for example, or the need to be involved in public financing is concerned). These social issues often involve “wicked problems”, complex problems that take many forms and are systemic in scope. The initiator may be private but is forced to collaborate with the government and public actors because the project requires public intervention (method of financing, staffing, etc.). Nor can these networks take a top-down form of implementation because the scope of the project requires the collaboration of actors of the local area concerned by this social domain.

Box 4: Method of action for the integration of healthcare and support services in the field of Autonomy (F1) as a “help it happen” project

The MAIA method is considered as a “help it happen” method (Bloch et al., 2011). The MAIA method is an integration method that seeks to avoid “institutional, organizational and clinical fragmentations” “that generate dysfunctions in the health pathways of elderly people”. The method is designed to

enable co-production at a local level between professionals who help seniors to stay at home. “Integration leads all actors to co-construct their means of action, their collaborative tools, and to share their practices, as well as the responsibility of their actions”. Thus, “a double approach (top-down and bottom-up, i.e. ascending approach)” is proposed. A “pilot” undertakes the role of mediator. “The implementation of the method was assigned to the regional health agencies”. This agency launched “a call for applications to implement the MAIA method on one or more new infra-departmental territories”. The holder of the project “can be the services of the county council [...], a health network, a public health institution, etc”. “The MAIA method aims to ensure the decision-making process between stakeholders by setting up meetings at a local level between decision-makers and funders of gerontological policies (strategic level), and between the local operators responsible for the healthcare and support services that help seniors to stay at home (operational level)”.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

The governance mode

According to Greenhalgh (2004), the “Help it happen” approach creates the conditions for effective diffusion of innovation. It enables adopters to adapt the model to their local conditions. It leads to a negotiated, influenced and enabled innovation process. In relation to the Public administration paradigm, this model can be seen as a transition between the New Public Management (NPM) and New Public Governance (NPG) paradigms. In these innovation networks, we find elements related to the linear model of innovation specific to the NPM, such as the control of innovation, and its validation by the technostructure. However, multi-stakeholders co-production is essential to the success of the innovation. This collaboration takes place on a local level. The innovation project is locally adapted in order to take into account local specificities (such as demographic characteristics, geographical conditions, specificity of demand or supply, local creativity, etc.). Consequently, at the local level, “help it happen” networks follow a more interactive form of NPG type.

The actors/initiators of innovation

The innovation process can be initiated by a private actor, but the scope of the project may be such that its implementation requires the support of the public actor both for its creation (it requires a legislative change) and for its organization (expected level of diffusion) (see Box 5). In the social innovation encountered, the government intervention is necessary because it involves the reallocation of public funds. As in the previous cases, problem solving requires overcoming the silo mentality and bringing together the knowledge of all the actors involved in the field in order to tackle the problems as a whole. For example, in the case of the care of dependent elderly people, taking care of the person is at the same time a health problem, a financial problem, a housing problem, a problem of autonomy, etc.

Box 5: TZCLD (F2)

“Due to the nature of the social problem addressed (long-term unemployment), and due to the scope of the experiment, the government wants to control the project through a legal framework and local committees. Therefore, this type of project can only be achieved with the intervention of the government in terms of regulation. Indeed, it is only when the 2003 organic law allowing experimentation on territorial communities was established that the TZCLD project was able to be

pursued. Other steps involved the state regulation. As stated earlier, it was necessary to convince deputies to support the project. They used their relational networks and political skills in several phases. Once the law was voted by the National Assembly in 2016, two other laws were necessary to begin the project: a law to authorise the method of financing (creation of the territorial experimentation fund for this project), and a law to empower the ten territories to implement the project. Therefore, social innovation including national social issues are impossible to implement solely with a bottom-up process.”

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

The advantages/disadvantages of “Help it happen” implementation strategies

Advantages

The main advantage of the “help it happen” strategy is dissemination: These social innovations are usually designed to be widely replicable and to be adaptable to local contexts. A reflection is carried out upstream by the project leaders in this perspective. Therefore, the social innovation is always accompanied by methodological innovation. The scale of the project often involves a small-scale experimentation phase to refine the method. This leads the actors of the project to establish a certain number of pre-defined metrics. Specific dimensions of the project are evaluated according to various criteria.

Disadvantages

The disadvantage of this strategy may be primarily the understanding of the method provided at the local level (see Box 6). Indeed, the development of the innovation is carried out by people who are familiar with the project and have a global understanding of the phenomenon. The local actors who adapt this project to the local level do not always have this global vision, which leads them to think again by type of profession or with a silo mentality.

Box 6: Global understanding of the phenomenon (F1)

“The complexity of the integration concept has an impact on the profile required for the recruitment of the MAIA pilot. The MAIA pilot is recruited with a master degree to be able to “stand back”, but for example, a health manager is not a good profile for this integration structuration. A systemic understanding of the healthcare and social system is necessary to understand the system. Therefore, there is a need for more courses on the French healthcare and social system in the higher education system for students training to become health care professionals or social, or medico-social actors. Currently, some actors reduce the territorial coordination to clinical coordination.”

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

This type of project generally requires significant funding and occasionally necessitates a search for alternatives to the current public funding system. The financing is being leveraged in support of a public service, which justifies public oversight. The need to seek political support for funding could, however, contribute to the perceived politicization of the project. In the case studies, the advancement of social innovation is the primary goal and point of analysis, but it is worth noting that the involvement of political actors in lobbying for funding may nevertheless create a political dimension to the projects being implemented.

2.2.4 Discussion and recommendation on implementation strategies

Change over time

Through our case studies, we have identified three main network implementation strategies (Bottom-up, top-down and “help it happen”) that we have described above. Each of these three configurations may themselves take varying forms (depending on the specificity of the collaboration, the stakeholders of the network, the complexity of the innovation...).

These organization modes are not static. Each network can evolve over time and favor another form of implementation. These evolutions will depend on the context, on the actors’ participation in the project, or on the innovation process. Some projects, especially at the initial stage, go through successive bottom-up and top-down phases (e.g. Box 7). Legislation plays an important role in the choice of the implementation strategy. It often happens that the project is conceived following a change in the law (F3, F4), or conversely, that the initiator of the project seeks support from the government to get the law amended so that his project can emerge.

Box 7: Change over time (F3)

The Unis-cité association's Booster program for dropout minors has experienced several Bottom-up and top-down accelerations. The French Civic Service Act was partly inspired by the civic service programmes offered by Unis-cité. The process is then bottom-up. On the other hand, Unis-cité could not accept dropout minors before the 2010 Civic Service Act. At this stage, the process is top-down. The specifications proposed by the Civic Service Agency and the national education system did not have any concrete implementation. Unis-cité then positioned itself in 2012 on a specific innovative programme that meets the specifications. Thus, the process is again bottom-up. The operational implementation is multiform: the mode of grouping in Comprehensive school is different according to the territories (classical or specialised path for young dropouts); the support of the Comprehensive school is defined locally according to the resources of the territories; the associations and the organizations depend on the territory. Thus, some local implementations are innovative, and are disseminated by the national agency of Unis-cité on other territories.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

Different implementation strategies for a similar idea

We have noticed that for similar projects, the choice of implementation strategies and organization mode may differ depending on the country under consideration (box 8). This can be explained by the different public administration paradigms at work in the countries (or territories) concerned, which have an impact on the modes of governance of the networks concerned. The country's culture of innovation also leads to different choices in terms of innovation processes.

Box 8: Implementation strategies (D5, F2)

In the case of long-term unemployment, the job search projects conducted by Denmark ("E-bro" and "JobIntra") and France (TZCLD) have similarities. They are both based on a reverse process and the innovation proposed is in both cases radical, based on a new ideology, but in the case of the "E-bro" social innovation, the mode of implementation is "bottom-up", whereas in the case of TZCLD, the choice was made for a "help it happen" process. In the French case, the project had first been experimented on the scale of the territory of Seiches-sur-le-Loir (as a "bottom-up" project) but the project had to stop at the end of the second stage because at that time, the law did not enable the implementation of a project, which could not be experimented in other territories. Thus, the financing of the project was not possible to do. The 2003 Organic Law allowing communities to bypass this rule, solved this difficulty. Nevertheless, the initiator of the project and the association that accompanied him had to find support from a member of parliament to get the project through. The project then took on a "help it happen" approach. These differences can also be explained by the initiator of the project, which in the first case came from a Job Center team, whereas in the second case, the initiator of this business model worked in the field of disabled people". The differences also concern the scope of the project, since in the second case, the project is more complex because it concerns the methods of financing unemployment.

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019), Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

Preferences for one mode of implementation rather than another is also linked to the mentality of the actors. For example, in Hungary, the initiators of a "bottom-up" project may opt for the government to take over the project or the method associated with the innovation in order to disseminate it to other territories with a top-down method. Insofar as the public service has traditionally been taken over by the government, the takeover of the project by a public actor is rooted in the citizens' mentality.

Is there a more effective method of implementation?

In the case-studies analysed, the social innovation initiated in accordance with the top-down principle seems to be less sustainable as to the development of multi-stakeholder social innovation networks. There are several reasons to this phenomenon.

- The top-down principle gives lower-acceptance results in social innovation networks (which tend to increase the failure of some projects), because the local public actors in charge of setting up the innovation and innovation network did not ask to manage the project. They are not necessarily convinced by this innovation or do not have the networks of actors or competences necessary to solve the problems of the target groups considered (as we have seen in Box 2).
- The public actors of the different silos involved in this innovation network may try to influence the process in their own way, or they may not invest themselves in this project thinking that another silo is more responsible and will be more involved.
- These multi-actors projects are often conceived first as a test, i.e. as marginal and temporary projects. As a result, little funding and time are invested in them.
- Even if the initial idea is interesting, end-users often had no say in the project so it does not always respond to local demand.

In order to increase the success rate of top-down projects in the encountered cases, the management of the innovation process should be re-designed to better integrate local actors (public bodies, associations) and end-users in the development of the innovation. This integration of local actors would make the project closer to the needs of the end-users, and more compatible with local objectives, networks of actors and resources. Another possibility lies in the use of the “help it happen” implementation strategy (see Box 4). This strategy is based on negotiation (Greenhalgh et al., 2004). It creates the conditions for effective diffusion of innovation, by enabling local actors to adapt the model to their local conditions. It ensures co-production at a local level. However, this recommendation is based on few case studies. Thus, the objective of this recommendation is not to hinder the development of projects in a top-down process mode, as they may be necessary and lead to innovation: innovations generated by public authorities may also follow the top-down logic. There could be local innovation dynamics coming from the constructed local network (learning processes) which leads to the discovery of innovative local solutions.

Thus, there does not seem to be one better implementation strategy than another. Each organizational form has its advantages and drawbacks. The choice of these methods depends on the socio-economic, legal, or political context of the project. However, project failures can be linked to a wrong choice of implementation method depending on the context of the social innovation. In this case, projects can be given a new impetus by applying another mode of governance. Table 8 summarizes the main characteristics of the different innovation implementation strategies.

Recommendation: Top-down approaches should be made more flexible by bringing more negotiation into the innovation process (e.g. integrate local actors — public bodies, associations — and end-users) or may be converted to a “help it happen” strategy to achieve a balance between imposed and negotiated projects. Favouring other types of implementation strategies when an implementation strategy is not working well can help reactivate the project.

Table 8: Summary of the main characteristics of the innovation implementation strategies

Case-studies	Top-down	Help it happen	Bottom-up
Context	Social problem not easy to solve by the state alone	Adaptation of an existing innovation Complexity of a social problem	New idea involving various actors /social problem not covered by the State
Type de piloting	More generally Vertical	Horizontal at a local level with a national piloting	More generally Horizontal decision making often collaborative and autonomous
Leading actor	Mostly public	Mixte	Mostly private
Collaboration between actors	+	++	+++
Innovation type	Various types	Conceptual, systemic	Various types
Acceptance by the actors of the network	+	++	+++
Funding	Funding generally proposed	Diffusion method included in the	Various situations

		innovation process	
Dissemination capacity	++	+++	++
Main advantage	the potential financing, the supervision of the project	being replicable throughout the territory/ include the possibility of adapting the tools to local particularities	often autonomous, Adjustments are made on an ad hoc basis Often low-cost and politically uncharged Initiator "enthusiastic"
Possible Drawbacks	Difference between local user needs and service proposal Poor acceptance	Objective of the innovation difficult to understand sensitive to changes in public actors	Dissemination frequently complicated and not planned at the outset

2.3 Innovation types

Whatever the form of organization considered (Bottom-up, Top-down, or “help it happen”), social innovation networks are based on the production of an innovation. This innovation is primarily social, but it is also accompanied by a series of other types of innovation. All these innovations are synthesized in this point.

Innovation research generally relies on international standards - especially the Oslo Manual - to establish innovation categories. In this manual, the four categories (now separated into two categories - product innovations and business process innovations (Oslo Manual, 2018) are as follows: Product innovations (the introduction of a new good or service), process innovations (a new production or marketing method), marketing innovations, and organizational innovations (a new organizational method in the practices, workplace organization or external relations of the firm). Although this manual has been revised several times, researchers have shown the insufficient consideration of all the categories of innovation encountered in service activities, given the characteristics of the services (Djellal, Gallouj, 1999). This manual is also insufficiently adapted to research on social innovations, as the latter have similar characteristics to services (Djellal, Gallouj, 2012). This is why, in this section, we use the innovations encountered in our case studies as a starting point for an analysis of the main innovations at work in social innovation networks.

All social innovation networks have as their objective, and by definition, the realization of a social innovation. As social innovations are defined as "approaches" or "purposes", these purposes require a certain number of technological and/or non-technological innovations to be achieved. By bringing together the different terminologies and typologies of innovation employed by researchers in the D.6.1. report (Merlin-Brogniart, 2019c), we identify four main types of innovation that enable social innovation to take shape. These types of innovation are not mutually exclusive; on the contrary, social innovation is often multifaceted.

- Conceptual innovations
- Organizational innovations
- Product or service innovations
- Process or methodological innovations

2.3.1 Conceptual innovations

Examples in Case-studies: D1 (CWA), D2 (Grennesminde), D3 (MYOB), D4 (Bybi), F1 (MAIA), F2 (TZCLD), H5 (BAGázs), N5 (Reestablishing personal networks for people with dementia).

Social innovation involves a reflection on ideas, on practices, a reflection on social interactions that are deemed unsatisfactory at a given time. Social innovation proposes new directions of thought. Moreover, the scope of a social innovation is transformative and systemic. It constitutes, in its creativity, a break with what already exists.

This rupture and these reflections are manifested by the appearance of conceptual innovations. All social innovations do not involve conceptual innovations. According to Windrum (2008), who focuses on innovation in the public sector, a conceptual innovation is based on the development of new worldviews that challenge the assumptions underlying products, processes and organizational forms. The existence of a conceptual innovation gives an indication of the intensity of the innovation. A social innovation may be trying to make something new out of something old, but the presence of a conceptual innovation may reflect the presence of a "radical innovation" in terms of a social innovation. Because of the intangibility of social innovations, however, these "radical" innovations are not as visible as radical technological innovations.

Conceptual innovations can be identified by the following attributes:

- They intend to change the way of dealing with a problem by thinking about the problem as a whole (systemic innovation) (see box 9). The solution involves collaboration at other scales of the system in order to solve the problem, and often involves the collaboration of different types of actors. It also induces the development of communities of practice, or new culture.
- Conceptual innovation leads to the use of new wording, new vocabulary or new notions (see Box 9-10). The application of a new and broader terminology widens the ability (of the target group, of the stakeholders of the network, of the society at large) to manoeuvre and act in new ways.
- Conceptual innovation induces the attribution of new roles to specific actors in society (e.g. CWA) or the creation of new professions (see box 11). In the case studies, this conceptual break is identified for example, by the use of a work logic in another context. In several case studies, the use of a work logic in another context had the aim/consequence of improving the self-perception of the target group. (see box 12).
- This conceptual break contributes to upgrade the status or capacity of the people constituting the network and leads to change the location of interaction which becomes more collaborative: "platforms, meeting place, invitations".

Box 9: New financing process/New notions (F2)

TZCLD (F2) aimed at reducing long-term unemployment by involving the unemployed in the creation of their own jobs, within Job-Oriented Companies ("Entreprise à but d'emplois"). "TZCLD involves a conceptual innovation based on the notion of "additional" or "complementary" employment. "This concept differs from the economic concept of "net job creation". The "additional employment" is an original proposal, which accommodates and supplements the labor market. It allows the production

of solidarity jobs. Jobs must be complementary with the local existing jobs, and non-competitive. The local authorities and actors control the usefulness of these jobs. Jobs are produced in proportion to the need of the population. This innovation is based on two principles:

- The Completeness principle: it is an unconditional offer of a job to all the people within a territory.
- The Subsidiarity principle: The responsibility of this public action shall be entrusted to the closest competent entity of the people directly affected by the action (ETZCLD, 2018).

The conceptual innovation is also related to the financing process. The jobs created are partly financed by the State through the Territorial Experimental Fund, but without additional costs for public finances. As stated earlier, long-term unemployment leads to many expenses and shortfalls. Thus, financing these jobs paid at the minimum legal wage does not cost more to society. In concrete terms, the Territorial Experimental Fund pays the employment company 17,800 euros per employee per year. This sum, which corresponds to the transfer of the costs related to unemployment, finances two-thirds of the wages, and the JOC finances the remaining third with its activity income.”

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

Box 10: New wordings (D1)

The CWA case-study (D1), consist in trishaw rides for elderly people living in nursing homes or receiving home care in order to bring them “fresh air”. The Strategic communication of the network was based on the use of SoMe, word of mouth and storytelling in order to mobilize both public sector actors and volunteers and change work culture. The conceptual innovation relies on new wording “Firstly, the notion of the three P’s: passenger, pilot and personnel are ways to give the people involved new roles. A manager also emphasizes that they are reluctant to apply the term citizen since places and invitations. As a manager tells: “You are invited into the organization and you are invited to a bike trip – this opens for a new kind of relationships that are more equal”.” The Systemic innovation is also illustrated by the change in societal understanding and approach to elderly care: “Trip by trip we change the world”. “The notion of pilots as change agents”, “the collaboration as communities of practice” “new kind of relationship where people are equal”.

Source: Fugisang et al. (2019)

Box 11: New profession (F1)

The MAIA method (F1) is a method of integration of healthcare and support services. It is a systemic innovation whose objective is to limit the consequences of silos and to encourage cooperation between professionals involved in helping dependent elderly people. This method implies the creation of a new profession (requiring an inter-university diploma) in which the case manager tries to respect the senior life-project: the case management. The case manager is a professional (a nurse, or a psychologist) specifically trained to perform a new function: an intensive and long-term follow-up, including during periods of hospitalisation of elderly people in complex situations. It is a new reflection on the healthcare system because instead of the professional practices and procedures, the will of the elderly is at the center of the health pathway of the elderly. Then, the system is focused on the senior, to ensure that all stakeholders go in the same direction, to follow the rhythm of the elderly people. The case manager helps also to improve the organization of the healthcare system by identifying possible dysfunctions observed in the territory.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

Box 12: Change makers (D3)

MYOB (D3) consists in giving support for entrepreneurship projects for young people in deprived neighbourhoods. The network helps them develop their professional and social skills. “MYOB tries to become a change-maker “Both regarding the self-perception of the target group, the perception of the target group from the outside and regarding the way initiatives targeting social challenges are organized”. To do so they involve trade organizations and Head Quarters to make it easier for e.g. the local bank offices to find solutions (systemic innovation). The attributes of conceptual innovation is also visible in the legitimization of “a vocabulary characterised by professionalism, normally not associated with the young boys”. The change of perception of the target group allows them to regain confidence (“changes from being not capable to being resourceful”). Then, “the environment’s new perceptions triggers a different way of meeting the target group, which again loops back to the boys’ self-perception and actions”.

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019)

2.3.2 Organizational innovations

Examples of organizational innovation in case-studies: D1 (CWA), D2 (Grennessminde), D3 (MYOB), D4 (Bybi), D5 (E-Bro), F1 (MAIA), F2 (TZCLD), F5 (Fabrique Sailytienne), H2 (Esélykör), H3 (CedrusNet), N3 (Refugees as resources), N5 (Reestablishing personal networks for people with dementia), S1 (San Fermin Library, S4 (Madrid central), S5 (La Rioja).

Social innovation networks require the participation and cooperation of several actors of different status and professions. For some authors, the participation of users or citizens is a *raison d'être* of social innovation. It is therefore logical to identify organizational innovations insofar as these multi-actor networks experiment new cooperations with actors from different cultures and professions. These social innovations force the public sector and civil society to enter each other's domains. Citizen participation implies new connections to be experimented with an enlarged and participative governance of citizens. Connecting people can be done through different media and in different new spaces, which requires a new organization of work. The implementation of social innovations requires organizational innovations to work in a new way in groups, as well as the creation of new infrastructures and new forms of co-production (See box 13 -14). Some of the solutions that have been presented aim to limit the effects of "silos" between organizations by allowing each partner to understand the other's organization and culture".

Box 13: Internal and external organization (D3)

The organization Mind Your Own Business (MYOB-D3) organize, and facilitate development projects for young boys from marginalised housing areas. “The program is centred around entrepreneurship and in cooperation with voluntary venture pilots from civil society and business partners, the young boys are given the opportunity to start their own micro-enterprise”. “MYOB triggers organizational innovation in a dual sense. Internally MYOB relies on a form of organizing where there is no specific owner of the process and hence decision-making is made jointly among the actors involved – MYOB employees are solely acting as facilitators. Externally MYOB have been able to get three large funds in Denmark to engage in a strategic collaboration and avoid that a sole Fund partner has an exclusive

‘right’ to the story of the projects they fund. Second, MYOB pushes the formal collaborators to change their way of operating and to invent new modes that are aligned with the need of the micro-enterprises.”

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019)

Box 14: New forms of co-production (D4, D5, N5)

In the case-studies, **Reestablishing personal networks for people with dementia** (N5), the idea is to improve the quality of life both for people with dementia and their dependents by organizing a special network-team. This team regularly scheduling an activity that the people with dementia was used to perform but is no longer able to handle under normal conditions.

The Danish association **Bybi** (D4)('Citybee') (production of honey in the city of Copenhagen) tries to “find a model of production that would contribute to a richer environment and inclusive communities”. Bybi is “a critique of consumerism and an attempt to reorganize a capitalist form of production. The organizational innovation (new inclusive form of co-production) attempt to blur the boundary between production and consumption and suggests that neither is a “pure” category or function. It experiments a new type of co-production which is inclusive, enriches the environment and turns consumers into co-producers.” “Incrementalistic and explorative steps have been taken that add up to a more radical innovation in relation to both traditional forms of beekeeping, social economy and industrial production”

In the case-study **E-Bro JobIntra** (D5) the organizational innovation relies “in the way Job Center employees work around a flexi-job. They input the information in the IT system and then the citizen is accessed by the recruitment agencies who then overtake the work and do everything. In this way, JobIntra has released resources for the Job Center employees to do other tasks and/or to concentrate on the most complicated and demanding cases”.

The case-study TZCLD requires the creation of Job-Oriented Companies: The main goal of these companies is to create local jobs. The JOCs may have different legal forms but they cannot be a for-profit company. Balance rules are imposed, such as limited salary scale, profits reinvested in the company or transferred to the Financing Fund, in order to supply other JOCs. The management modes of these companies are based on horizontality and transversal functions and participatory work. The management of the activity is done collectively; jobseekers are project leaders. They are trained in project development methodology and in management. Teams work on the basis of self-regulation.

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019), Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

2.3.3 Process innovation and Methodological innovation

Examples in Case-studies: F1 (MAIA), F2 (TZCLD), F3 (Booster), F4 (Melting Potes), F5 (Saillysienne Fabrique), H1 (Járókelő), H2 (Esélykör), H3 (CédrusNet), H4 (No Bad Kid case), H5 (BAGázs) N2 (The strength of connecting vulnerable groups), S1 (Library of San Fermin), S2 (Antropoloops), S4 (Madrid central).

Social innovations often involve new ways of operating. Consequently, the innovation process is frequently based on new methods (pedagogical methods, "reverse" method, method of participation of actors, working methods). In the case studies, two types of methods can be distinguished, those

concerning the innovation generation process, and methodological innovations as a target of the innovation.

Innovation generation process: Social innovations go through a multi-stage process: emergence, experimentation, dissemination, evaluation. This process is innovative in the sense that social innovations do not always fall within the criteria of the innovation process traditionally used by industries and service activities. New processes of generation and acceptance of innovation, of evaluation of innovation, are to be defined. Other methodological innovations concern the innovation process regarding the integration of new stakeholders (see Box 15).

Methodological innovation: A large number of social innovations are based on new methods, in particular new ways of transmitting knowledge to the target group (the long-term unemployed, the dropouts, the elderly) (see Box 16). Moreover, the recognition of the skills of these target groups, which does not always fit into the standards, leads to the inversion of some procedures (see Box 17).

Box 15: Citizen participation (H3, S1, F5)

In the **CédrusNet** case-study (H3), participants are involved in cedar-circles, which consist in informal, self-organized small networks in the local community that provide, in accordance with LivingLab theory, a complex ecosystem for the aging people. For the **Library of San Fermin** case study (S1), the collaborative network has been based on an operational set of interactions between the teams responsible for technically preparing the project and the neighbors along four months of co-design. To attract inhabitants, the success of the **Saillysiennne Fabrique** (F5) is based on the method proposed by the town hall “experimentation as a method” (an agile method), which contrasts with the participatory democracy through citizens’ debates, which can quickly become sterile.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b), Peralta et al. (2019b), Katona et al. (2019)

Box 16: Pedagogical methods (F4, H5)

In the **Melting Potes** programme (F4), a civic service commitment offered by the Unis-cité association, primarily for the Roma community and refugees, an innovative pedagogical proposal has been implemented for Francophones: language session. Instead of giving directly French sessions to allophones, Francophones are trained to transfer language skills and they are the ones who facilitate the volunteer allophones' French session.

The **BAGázs** method (H5) is the result of a multi-year learning process that began with a mentoring program and a summer camp in 2011 and resulted in a complex program structure based on holistic, multi-level approach. The learning process is very reflective and conscious based on continuous assessment of experiences and results.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b), Katona et al. (2019)

Box 17: ‘Reverse method’ (F2)

TZCLD (F2) offers a specific recruitment mechanism avoiding a selection-based mechanism. “The company creates jobs according to the skills of the people and the needs of the territory and not according to the needs of the economy. The traditional selection mechanisms exclude the lowest performers from employment. The goal is here to select without excluding. No degree and no particular experience are required, thus, there is no candidate selection. Volunteer jobseekers are

proposed by the local committee according to their order of registration on the waiting list. All the long-term unemployed of the territory concerned can propose an activity. The Job-Oriented Company is created to help them develop their activity". "When joining a JOC, former unemployed become active, but they remain available to be recruited by conventional companies".

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

2.3.4 Product or service innovations (IT solutions, senior knowledge bank)

Examples of case-studies: D1 (CWA), D2 (Grennessminde), D3 (MYOB), D5 (E-Bro), H1 (Járókelő), H3 (CédrusNet), N1 (Flexible relief for dependents), N3 (Refugees as resources in rural areas), N4 (Drive for life), N5 (Reestablishing personal networks for people with dementia), S1 (Library of San Fermin), S3 (Fundacion Alas).

Social innovations respond to a need that is unfulfilled or poorly covered by the public sector or the market. They are mainly services and/or products aimed at target groups with a social problem. In some cases, the production of goods and services is not new, but the way in which it is organized and distributed may be new. The novelty may consist in the way it is implemented in a local context (see box 18). Social innovation can be based on technological innovations (IT solutions, senior knowledge bank) (see box 19). In other cases, the service or product proposed is totally new because it does not exist in the market or in the public sector (see box 20).

Box 18: Service innovation, New in a local area (N4)

The case-study Drive for life (N4) targets young "outsiders". The young participants are "selected because they did not adapt well to the regular school scheme on the one side, and they were beyond average interested in motorsport on the other side. The manual for the 48 gatherings was balancing the opportunity to drive on a racing field, controlled and assisted by competent instructors and doing mechanical repair work, and having an educational program for their personal development" This social innovation delivers the service in a new way when they want to include the users actively in the co-creation of the services. Drive for life is a national concept but an innovation when it is introduced in a new setting and is new for the municipality (and to the participants).

Source: Magnussen and Rønning (2019b)

Box 19: Technological and ICT innovation (H3, N1)

CédrusNet (H3) consists in senior knowledge building. One of the product innovations of the CédrusNet are the trainings for the elderly, designed and managed by the association. These are accredited courses that teach local seniors based on the curricula and with the use of methods developed by the association. This innovation is complemented by a product innovation: the creation of a senior knowledge bank. This senior knowledge bank is constantly expanding and includes the data and contact details of retired professionals who can and wish to continue to help the community.

Flexible relief for dependents (N1) uses volunteers to support people with dementia and their dependents. "The local development center for nursing homes and home care (USHT) saw

development of a technological device as a possibility to make it easier to connect dependents and volunteers, and also for distributing information about activities at the Volunteer Center to the dependents. The technological solution would be a supplement to the ordinary services, and it could make it easy to ask for relief and to get a reply in short time. It should be a flexible solution, without any municipal handling of applications. Both PC, tablets and smart phones could be used for the communication. The project management decided to develop their own technological tool for contact and applications services (an addition to a used tool called FRIDA)”.

Source: Katona et al. (2019), Magnussen and Rønning (2019b)

Box 20: New offer (D1)

The CWA case-study (trishaw rides for elderly people living in nursing homes or receiving home care) is a completely new service innovation as it was not delivered before. It added value to the elderly (quality of life).

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019)

This analysis reveals that social innovations carried out by social innovation networks are often complex, and the types of innovations accompanying the social innovation are varied and non-exclusive. The presence of conceptual innovation and systemic innovation could help characterize the intensity of social innovation. Table 9 presents the case studies according to the main types of innovation identified.

Table 9: Types of innovation by case-study

Case-studies	Conceptual or systemic innovations	Organizational innovations	New Product and Service innovations	Process or methodology innovations
D1 CWA	X	X	X	
D2 Grennessminde	X	X	X	
D3 MYOB	X	X	X	
D4 Bybi	X	X		
D5 E-Bro		X	X	
F1 MAIA	X	X		X
F2 TZCLD	X	X		X
F3 Booster				X
F4 Melting Potes				X
F5 Saillysienne Fabrique		X		X
H1 Járókelő			X	X
H2 Esélykör		X		X
H3 CédrusNet		X	X	X
H4 No Bad Kid case				X
H5 BAGázs	X			X
N1 Flexible relief for dependents			X	

Case-studies	Conceptual or systemic innovations	Organizational innovations	New Product and Service innovations	Process or methodology innovations
N2 The strength of connecting vulnerable groups				X
N3 Refugees as resources in rural areas		X	X	
N4 Drive for life (DFL)			X	
N5 Reestablishing personal networks for people with dementia	X	X	X	
S1 Library of San Fermin		X	X	X
S2 Antropoloops				X
S3 Fundacion Alas			X	
S4 Madrid central		X		X
S5 La Rioja		X		

2.4 Constraints, drivers and institutional factors of social innovation networks

2.4.1 Drivers and institutional factors

We have identified four types of drivers that promote the emergence of social innovation networks. The first type is related to the institutional or social context. The second type is connected to the nature of the innovation and the innovation process. The third type is based on the presence of a leader or an actor that bridges the boundaries between actors of different organizations. The fourth type addresses the support of the public sector.

2.4.1.1 The social need and the institutional context

The reason for the creation of a social innovation network is the existence of a social problem, usually complex, that is not properly addressed by the public sector or by the market.

The social need is the first driver of social innovation. New solutions must be found to improve the quality of life of the disabled (H2, S3, N5), and the elderly (D1, F1, H3), to give them “the right to feel the wind in their hair” by ensuring them mobility and active participation in society (D1), and to support their dependents (N1). Social innovation also increases the social inclusion of migrants, minorities and refugees (N3, F4, H4, H5) and of deprived neighbourhoods (S1), which could promote acceptance of these groups by society. The willing participation of all economic actors may help to stimulate the economic growth and competitiveness of a region (S5), improve the quality of life of the long-term unemployed by supporting their job search and reintegration into society (F2, N2) or by finding them a flexi-job (D5). Social innovation networks generate good ideas to improve education (H4, H5), through music (S2), help encourage school dropouts to go back to school or find a job (F3), and support reintegration of young marginalized groups into the community (D2, D3, N4). New

solutions contribute to the improvement of environmental problems from a local approach (D4, F5) or enable passers-by to report street infrastructure problems, or even develop initiatives that contribute to improve pedestrian mobility (H1, S4). Some programs become possible because they enter into an "existing societal agenda". Such visibility makes it easier for them to get resources from a broad audience (D2, D3).

Social needs are supported by changes in legislation. Thus, Institutional and political factors influence strongly the emergence of social innovation. The legislation is a powerful institutional factor. New laws, decrees, reforms create new solutions or unblock projects that could not be carried out for legal reasons. In the case studies, this favorable institutional context was indicated as a driver many times and at several scales.

-In the case of the Grennessminde project offering job training and job capacity assessments, the 2007 legislation indicated that young disabled citizens should be entitled to a special planned youth education programme, i.e. the STU education. It became a possibility to frame the existing practices and approaches in a new manner, with a specific focus on education.

-For Jobintra (D5): the "Reform of the Disability Pension and Flexi-job Scheme" introduced in 2012 by the government under the prime minister Helle Thorning Smith was an institutional and political factor. The main objective of this reform was to get as many people as possible into the labour market rather than receiving a permanent disability pension.

-For the Booster programme (F3), the 2010 law on civic service enables minor dropouts to enter civic service programmes. This new law on the obligation to train young people from 16 years of age, which mentions civic service among other training opportunities, gave a stronger impetus to the project. The amendment of the Civic Service Act which allowed beneficiaries of international protection (BPI) and some other refugees to access civic service benefit to the Melting Potes programme (F4).

-In the BAGázs case-study (H5), the amendment of the Child Protection Act that included NGOs (as BAGázs) in the child protection alert system facilitated cooperation with other members of the alert system (e.g. primary schools).

-The European Disability Strategy (2010-2020), the 'Horizon 2020' Framework Program for Research and Innovation of the European Union has been an enabler in the case of aging population with disabilities as it states that people with disabilities should benefit from equal access to services and health centers, including mental health centers (Alas Foundation, S3)

-In the La Rioja case-study, several institutional changes were established at different scales. The Decision (EU) 2015/1848 of the Council of 5 October 2015 on guidelines for the employment policies of the member states for 2015 was a decisive driver to the Government of La Rioja (S5). At national level, the coherence of the Plan for Professional Education and Employment 2016-2019 was ensured with the central government framework declared in the Spanish Strategy for Activation of Employment and in the Annual Plans for Employment Policy (PAPE: Planes Anuales de Política de Empleo). The Decree 26/2015 of July 21 establishes its organizational structure and functions,

developing Law 3/2003 of March 3 of the Organization of the Public Sector of the Autonomous Community of La Rioja.

2.4.1.2 The nature of the project

Another factor facilitating the adoption of a social innovation involving a network of actors is the nature of the project. A project may attract stakeholders through its innovative participation process, such as an experience driven project, a design project, or a production driven project.

The major driver in the Library of San Fermin case-study (S1) has been the demands of the Neighborhood Association of San Fermín that had been claiming the Library for more than 20 years in a very active way. The proposal of taking part in the design of the building of the Library of San Fermin pursued the interest of the inhabitants.

The Madrid Central network (S4) is a space to share ideas, generate empathy and open the mind. The InCiLab (a Citizen Innovation Laboratory) connects multiple agents around experimentation to rethink life in the city. This concept mobilized the network of players and motivated them because they could learn more about the operation of the Administration.

For the Bybi association (D4), which aims to find a model of production related to environmental and social transformation (a richer environment and inclusive communities), the concept of honey production and the related metaphors become a means of communication to mobilize people and get funding. This honey production relies on a mutual sharing of special craft knowledge, as a new coproduction experience.

The case of Antropoloops (S2) includes a constantly evolving design based on music and remixes for integration, that involves neighboring institutions (a chorus of elder people, the local mosque, the local stores), language and verbal expression in Spanish and English, body coordination, or teamwork.

Finally, promising results and a growing number of partners enhance the attractiveness of the network, as is the case for No bad kids (H4) and BAGázs (H5), where there was an increase in committed volunteers from 20 to 30 per year in 2011 to over 100 in 2019. E-bro jobintra (D5) further demonstrates this positive momentum by having achieved its goal of establishing economic viability by the end of 2019.

2.4.1.3 A facilitator, “bridge-builder” or “boundary-spanner”

Among the most important drivers of social innovation networks identified in our case studies are facilitating actors. These actors are key players in the implementation of the network, especially in achieving its emergence. Their profile is varied. They may be fiery souls pursuing an innovative project. These actors may have a personal commitment (Grennessminde-D2) or may have been working with the target group for years (MYOB-D3).

They are committed to advancing social innovation initiatives and have the power to mobilize coordinators from different backgrounds for these initiatives. They build and transmit a shared value to others (e.g. CWA-D1: "Everyone must signify that they believe in our dream and our principles". These actors are not only from the private world in the broad sense (social entrepreneur, leader of an association...), they also come from the public sector (e.g. The total investment of a municipal councillor in the implementation of the project – The Saillysienne “Fabrique”- F5). These actors may be in management positions (An innovative top-management, a comprehensive manager), or they may be involved in several organizations, allowing them to bridge several environments (e.g. the double role as "company consultant" at the Job Center and simultaneously the founder and owner of the company providing the IT solution - JobIntra, D5). The terms used by the researchers to qualify them are diverse: "fiery souls" (D1, D2, D3), Enthusiastic “leaders“ (N1,N2,N4), “initiator” of this business model (F2)...

These key actors have the capacity to transfer ideas to other fields (D1, D3, D5, F2), or to invent another way of conceiving production, for example in the form of an exchange of experience (Bybi-D4). They are "bridge-builders" or "boundary spanners" (see discussion 2.6.3.3.). For example, in the TZCLD project (F2), Patrick Valentin, who worked in the field of disabled people, decided to launch, on the basis of his thirty years of field experience, an experiment at a local level for the long-term unemployed drawing inspiration from “Inclusion by Employment Centres for disabled”.

The success of the networks is highly dependent on fiery souls, for the start of the project ("as important kick-starters"-D1) or during its implementation in other places, as someone has to take the lead. However, to formalize the project, “fiery souls” need to surround themselves with other local actors to ensure the development of a sustainable network. These local actors are engaged and due to their local knowledge are able to activate the immediate environment (e.g. "Engaged front-line staff " (N3), professionals dedicated to improving quality of life for the people with dementia (N5), the commitment of the school management and faculty Antropoloops (S2), the acceptance of the project by the mayor of the village (F5), participants with years in experience in participatory processes (S4)). These local actors can be individuals or companies and institutions that work around the target people. In the case of major social innovations, it is important that the leader of the project surrounds himself or herself with political support in order to break down any legal or political barriers. This support may come from well-known associations (e.g. the validation of the project by four associative partners (F2), or more generally from the public sector (such as regional and local authorities (in most case studies), Parliamentarian (F2), even from the president (F1)). Some actors contribute to improve the connection between network members and reduce conflicts: personal connection between organizations (ezelykor H2), good cooperation with many local governments (Járókelő H1), existing cooperation at a local level that help the creation of the social innovation network (MAIA F1), institutional coordination of the different areas of the City Council involved in the project (e.g. San Fermin (S1). In this case, this coordination has produced a complete transformation in the way the public servants relate to each other when facing a new, innovative project.

2.4.1.4 Support from the Public sector

The majority of the case studies underline the important role of public actors. These public sector actors are diverse in nature and come from different administrative levels or public organizations such as municipality, national education system, members of the government, members of parliament, etc.). They support the projects of the initiators of social innovation through different modalities.

-By ensuring their support for the project (e.g. a supportive local government (H2, H4), an involved president who strongly held the project (F1), support of a Member of Parliament (F2), clear expectations from the municipalities and close collaboration with them (D4), a project highly supported by the professional and political leadership of the local government (H3), a policy push from the political level within the municipalities (D1).

-Through their involvement as active stakeholders in the project (such as the close dialogue between the Unis-cité association and the national education system (F3), a Central political initiative (N1), the good relationship with local public institutions such as primary school, child welfare service, the Office of Guardianship Affairs, the police (H5), the solicitation of their networks such as a local network of personal relationship (F2), or the fact that the public actor is already a front-runner in the resolution of a social problem (e.g the pioneering role of the city of Toulouse (F4)).

- By providing financial assistance: This support may be provided while the project is already formalized (e.g. the existence of funding from national and local actors and public funds (Booster F3)), or upstream, by encouraging actors to propose innovative initiatives through calls for projects in specific fields (e.g. the Carasso Foundation in the Antropoloops (S2)).

2.4.2 Barriers and Constraints to social innovation networks

We propose to classify the main barriers identified in our case studies into six groups (Lack of funding and obstacles related to the law - Communication problem and translation problems - Network management, training and human problems - Technical and logistical problems - Temporality issues and continuity of the network - A question of social ethics). Most of these barriers can be overcome. There are not really any intractable obstacles in the long run. The most significant constraint seems to be the legislation.

2.4.2.1 Lack of funding and obstacles related to the law

Financial barriers are a traditional barrier to any innovation project. This barrier was often mentioned both at the beginning of the project (F2 F3, H3) and at a later stage in the development of the project (F4, F5 N2). The unit costs of some social innovation programs can also be a brake on the decision (e.g. 45,000 euros for seven teenagers a year (N4)). Some projects could not be initially carried out (F2 F3) or imagined (F4 H5 S5) because of legislative provisions. Thus, the law can be seen as an obstacle to innovation networks or to the project designed by the innovation network. In some cases, the law has been modified thanks to the involvement and actions of project leaders and their partners (F2, F3). However, some programs have been developed as a result of the changes in the law. The legislation therefore also constitutes an incentive for social innovation (cf. institutional factors) (D5 F3, F4, S5).

2.4.2.2 Communication problem and translation problems

One of the main barriers to social innovation networks that we identified in the case studies are problems of communication. These problems are due to the fact that the majority of social innovation networks integrate or need the support on one or more public sector actors. These problems are recurrent due to the fact that public administration remains in most countries in the form of silo thinking and existing sectorial borders (F1, D1, D5, N3, S4). This silo system means that the network initiators have to persuade different actors from different silos to initiate the network, which slows down the project. The actors carrying the network need the agreement of many people at different levels and different departments to obtain a decision (such as in the municipal ecosystem in Denmark (D5)). These fragmentations lead public institutions to have services that are often overburdened (H5) and poor administrative organization (N3). Administrative bureaucracy implies a loss of efforts to get through the public eco-system. This silo system also explains the existence of competing projects offering the same service, which could jeopardize the projects: the stakeholders no longer know which projects to participate in, which actors to address, and the demands on the stakeholders are numerous (F1). As a result, the running of these networks is less efficient.

Beyond the problems of fragmentation, the public system often suffers from a lack of flexibility to adapt the constraints of the service offered by the social innovation network to the constraints of the administration, such as in public education (F3, H5).

The second communication problem identified is the difficulties to translate the objective of the network to the potential stakeholders: translate the objective into something useful for the politicians or to the administrative systems (D1, H2); explain a participating method to the inhabitants (S4); find incentives for the participants (S4); make politicians understand that some kind of social innovation are not a “luxury activity” (N5). In some countries, the prestige of social work could be low and leads to the lack of appropriate professionals (H5).

In some cases, the difficulties is to persuade stakeholders, users, parents, to participate to the network because of frustration of earlier projects or initiatives that did not prosper (S4, F2) and therefore fear of losing time; fear of being used and make a volunteer or unpaid work for people who are paid (i.e. the public servants) (S4). The difficulty may stem from the complexity of the project, which is difficult to understand by all stakeholders, such as the notion of integration in the health field (F1), which was initially associated with an unsuitable acronym that suggested that the project was more restricted in scope than it is (F1).

2.4.2.3 Network management, training and human problems

Among the traditional barriers, innovation network actors mention human problems, such as the lack of cooperation with local actors (N3, F4, S4, H1) or mis-communication (D4), management of egos (S4), little commitment of the public actor (S1), fear of changes in the working method (e.g. with elected representatives (F5)), the incompatibility of the project holder's status with a public service aim (F1). Problems of involvement in the network, especially at the outset, may come from the lack of trust (e.g. initial distrust of each of the network agents with each other (S1), the low trust to the

municipality (H2)). The difficulty of finding partners may be based on the prejudices they feel, such as discrimination against communities (e.g., F3, H5, or F4 in which the usually supportive partner organizations have been reluctant to work with the new program target population (Roma)). Difficulties may come from an adult lack of confidence in the competencies and abilities of the youth coming from difficult neighbourhoods (D2). Barriers may arise from the lack of tenacity of the target people (such as young dropouts (F3)). The problems of network management also concern the difficulty of reconciling the different expectations and wishes of the participants in the network, which can be difficult to handle (S4).

Another problem associated with network management is the lack of experience and training of stakeholders. The inhabitants are not yet used to co-creation experiences, as in the case of the San Fermin library, where none of the actors had earlier experience in anything of this magnitude (S1). The participation of untrained volunteers, or the proposal of programs that require special skills, which are particularly difficult to find among current collaborators and request a significant amount of training time (F3, F4, H4), are a recurrent constraint.

2.4.2.4 Technical and logistical problems

Innovation networks face constraints related to technical systems such as difficulties to customize a platform to a rural context (D1) or to integrate a software solution into the existing IT system (D5).

Technical constraints include hosting capacity. The organizers of the social innovation have difficulty in assessing the number of people who will request the service (D4). This uncertainty does not only have an impact on the logistical considerations on the supply side (e.g. the number of employees needed for the service). It has implications on accessibility to the service on the demand side. The concern for equal access of the population to services is important in the case of social innovation. In the same perspective, some target groups may have problems of accessibility to the service because of a shortage of public transport in their place of residence (F3).

Technical constraints also apply to innovation processes related to stakeholder participation in innovation. When social innovation relies on stakeholder participation, certain types of stakeholders may be over-represented, which could affect the representativeness of a project. For example, if in a city-related project the inhabitants of one neighborhood may be strongly mobilized to the detriment of other neighborhoods (S4), or the difficulty to engage different public servants than those aware or related to the initiatives (S4).

A last type of constraint that can be assimilated to technical constraints corresponds to the choice of the territory for the implementation of the social innovation network. The choice of the territory determines the configuration of actors wishing to be involved in local projects.

The diversity of actors and networks already existing on the territory, the nature of the territory (population, rural, urban...), the territorial division on which the local professionals work constitute a barrier as well as a driver to the formation of the networks. It could be a constraint when territorial restructurings have generated artificial divisions, or when the territories of the actors are overlapping,

and discontinuities or geographical breakdowns exist. The relevance of the territory boundaries is essential to the functioning of the innovation network.

2.4.2.5 Temporality issues and continuity of the network

The temporality problems appear as a common barrier to the sustainability of social innovation networks whose objective is public service. These temporality problems take several forms:

- Difficulties related to the political agenda

Some projects are highly dependent on the public actor. However, the political agenda has a short-term horizon. Budgets are adopted on an annual basis (F2, N2). As a result, some networks have difficulty in planning their projects over time (H2); and long-term developments may be jeopardized by the change of position of public stakeholders in the network (a public stakeholder of the network may have to move to a different position) (F5).

- Lack of long-term planning

In other cases, the project strategy is not sufficiently discussed or fully comprehended on a long-term period. (H2, H3), or only the first stage of the project has been planned but the following stages remain hypothetical (S1).

- The continuation of financing

From a financial perspective, the actions for the following year may be difficult to plan because of the expectation of the budget vote (e.g. TZCLD (F2)) or of the expectation of a long term financing (BAGázs-H5). Projects whose initiation is allowed by the public actor may sometimes be subjected to renewal, because these projects are considered as an experiment (and therefore a short-term project), therefore the financing is not planned in the long term.

- The continuation of the project by the key players

The problem of the continuity of the network is sometimes linked to the stability of the key actors of the network (e.g. departure of a bridge actor, problem of stability of the relationship, project dependent of its founders (F5, H3)).

- Availability of actors on a daily basis

On a day-to-day basis, social innovation networks face challenges with regards to the availability of resources. Oftentimes, stakeholders participating in innovation networks are faced with multiple demands that limit the amount of time they can dedicate to a project. This is especially true for those (e.g., volunteers doctors, elected officials, citizens (F5)) receiving competing demands from other primary jobs or responsibilities, including commitments to other professional networks (e.g., F1 doctors). Although stakeholder schedule constraints can hamper social innovation projects or limit their effectiveness, in some cases it should be noted that participation in multiple civic or professional organizations can be a source of innovation. For example, Ebro-JobIntra (D5) illustrates how a dual role as "company consultant" and IT entrepreneur allowed for the creation of a new social innovation. While competing priorities may present a limiting factor to day-to-day availability, the social innovation network may not have been conceived without the presence of multiple roles.

2.4.2.6 A question of social ethics

A final challenge specific to social innovation networks is the danger of a lack of equity in the distribution of the solution. There may be differences in the implementation of a social innovation linked to the particularities of the territory, which can lead to unequal treatment between users (F4). Public authorities can also wonder, upstream of the project, or when renewing a project, how they decide which group deserves public support? On what criterion or on what purpose? The choice to finance a given project is a matter of public choice (social ethic).

2.5 The assessment issue

The importance of evaluation in co-production processes and the manner in which they are documented has been mentioned in the national literature reviews (Brogaard, Petersen 2014; Agger et al., 2018; Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009, Besançon; 2015). For example, Agger et al. (2018) proposes four bottom lines for measuring the outcomes (democracy, efficiency, innovation and public value). The literature on territorial innovation underlines the importance of assessing territorial impacts with value-creation criteria as performance evaluation helps to convince sceptical stakeholders (Richez-Battesti, Vallade, 2009; Besançon, 2015; Oural, 2015). In the theoretical framework D.6.1.1., Desmarchelier et al (2019b) also pointed out that the characteristic of the New Public Governance paradigm is to rely on a multi-criteria assessment in order to take into account the diversity of institutional logics at work in multi-agent innovation networks. This multi-criteria assessment, provides a nuanced assessment between industrial/technical, market/financial and civic criteria.

The analysis of the 25 case studies reveals that the question of assessment - either upstream or during implementation - is a key factor in certain social innovation networks. This information helps convince funders of the value of the network upfront and later supports the continuation of funding. Downstream, it helps attract additional collaborators and target individuals to participate in the networks. Despite these facts, the people interviewed in the studies indicate that the assessments carried out are often limited in their scope. In particular, there is not necessarily an upstream discussion with stakeholders on the content for assessments.

First, it is reported that a systemic evaluation of the results of social innovation networks is often not feasible unless the network receives a grant (F2, N3).

Second, interviewees report the difficulty in developing some kind of indicators. Some impacts of social innovation do not fall within a measurement paradigm. For example, in the CWA case-study (D1, Fuglsang et al., 2019), manager sees "the impact as a general enhancement of the joy of life among the elderly: *"their cheeks and eyes glow, they smile and laugh and perhaps they can recall it afterwards, otherwise it is just enjoyment in the moment"*", this observation is not captured by an indicator.

Third, for other impacts, the difficulty is explained to some extent by the fact that social innovation networks involve multiple actors. As a result, databases are dispersed between several organizations.

For example, in the health field, impact indicators such as the reduction of hospitalization in emergencies, the reduction of user orientation towards wrong services, scheduled hospitalization rate, would be interesting to measure but the databases are currently partitioned between the medico-social, social and sanitary field. It is therefore difficult to measure the impacts of the innovation on the improvement of the elderly pathway.

Fourth, other measures are interesting to obtain at the national level, such as a territorial roadmap, but require data collection from local levels as well as a mapping at a regional and national level, which implies to have money and tools to do so (F1). The creation of value can also be assessed via satisfaction surveys but it only measures the part of the creation of value with the user's point of view, it is not an evaluation of the service as a whole (such as the medico-social system as a whole).

Finally, the theoretical analysis (Desmarchelier et al., 2020a) raised a warning about the incompatibility of some indicators. For example, pursuing productivity indicators (industrial indicators) can contradict a good relationship with the user since productivity is measured by the reduction in time spent on an action. This type of fear was reported by respondents. Starting to introduce indicators for measuring value creation raises problems relating to the misuse of such indicators: "would these indicators be adequately used to improve the issue of integration between organizations?" (Merlin-Brogniart, 2019b).

We have highlighted three types of social innovation networks: bottom-up, top-down and "help it happen" networks. From the evaluation perspective, the "help it happen" type networks, given the complexity of the project and the funding they involve, generally include a period of experimentation to confront the project with reality and to identify possible dysfunctions. As a result, an evaluation is often carried out upstream (monitoring indicators). These indicators include not only market indicators but also industrial, relational and socio-civic indicators. Moreover, these models are based on shared communication tools (common information-sharing tools and action-steering tools). It is not surprising to find parts of service evaluation concerning the degree of cooperation between actors. The top-down and bottom-up methods do not necessarily all set up an experimentation phase of the project. Evaluations are therefore essentially ex-post. Evaluations are also multi-criteria.

From the evaluations mentioned in the case study reports, we have identified different types of measures and indicators. To classify these indicators, we use the analysis grid proposed in the theoretical report D.6.1.1 by Desmarchelier et al. (2020b), following Boltanski and Thévenot's grid (1991), which distinguishes different forms of legitimacy and registers of justification or categories/worlds of "worth" (the market and financial world, the industrial and technical world, the relational or domestic world, the social-civic world, the opinion/reputation world, and the creation/inspiration/innovation world).

We note that in accordance with the New Public Governance paradigm, social innovation networks use multi-criteria analysis indicators even if these indicators are not necessarily included in a formal analysis grid. We identify:

- **Indicators from market and financial performance** (such as returns, value added, costs, revenue). Although this type of performance is not directly related to the social innovation, it ensures that the choice of funders to subsidize the social innovation network is financially justified, for example, by comparing the expenditures that the government is obliged to make for the target group, with the savings made by the social innovation networks through the social reintegration of certain individuals from this same group (e.g. F3).

-**Industrial and technical performance indicators** that measure the quality, reliability and functionality of the service. These indicators are regularly used. It concerns for example a number of hours worked such as the number of hours of training offered by the social innovation network (e.g. the language formation includes 225 hours of language training (F3)). Some indicators measure the educational achievements of the target groups, particularly in the case of educational networks in order to assess (e.g. F3, F4, H3, H5).

-**Indicators related to domestic or relational performance** (the world of interpersonal relationships based on empathy and trust). We observe that in the social innovation networks considered, when evaluations exist, the quality of relationship is generally not only measured from the user's point of view but the questionnaires are also addressed to collaborators (employees and volunteers) and more generally to stakeholders. For example, in the CWA case-study, the perspectives of employees, pilots and elderly people on both short bike rides (approx. three hours) and long-trips (with sleep-overs) are integrated in the evaluation. In the Booster programme (F3), the quality of relationships is reflected in the surveys filled out by the target population (young people in civic service), but also by the employees who supervise them, and finally by the collaborators who work with these target group. The relational indicators reflect the human proximity between supervisors and service users. Stakeholder relationships are measured by the rate of participation of stakeholders in social innovation network meetings and by the diversity of people attending the meetings. The effectiveness of new communication tools between stakeholders, implemented at a local level is also measured.

-**Indicators related to social and civic performance** (results in terms of fairness, inclusion, social solidarity). The measurement of the social inclusion of the target persons in the society, city or community is a recurring measure. These indicators are often linked to users' self-perception and what they think of their supervision. For example, the Melting Potes programme (F4) proposes the "mountain of change" assessment. This tool measures the impact of Civic Service on five dimensions: the feeling of being part of Toulouse/French society, the level of French, the level of self-confidence in job search/training, the Self-confidence, Confidence in its future in France. This indicator is both a relational performance indicator and a social inclusion indicator. In the MYOB case-study (D3), the key findings related to the self-perceived development of the boys show that "they find themselves more optimistic regarding their future possibilities, less in doubt about what to do after public school/youth education, have become better team-players and are involved in fewer conflict situations" (Als research, 2017: 11).

Some **indicators measuring social-civic performance** are requested by funders, such as the number of visits to the elderly by young people in civic service (F3). These indicators are related to the amount of time devoted by young people in civic service to vulnerable persons. The fairness issue could be assessed by the territorial distribution of the new offer. For example, the territorial distribution of

seniors being managed for the case management can be monitored (F1). Other indicators could indicate the creation of social ties such as job relocation, and production or services relocation on a territory. Relocation participates in the elimination of precariousness, it promotes human dignity, and fights inequality on the territory. The time saved by professionals when a user's difficult situation is managed by the social innovation network can also be a social indicator but was not measured by networks.

New types of social-oriented performance are created. For example, in the case of home-isolated elderly, the situation of the elderly is often complicated by the denial of help and care of the person, professionals of the territory have difficulties to accompany this type of patient. Thus, a denial reduction rate indicator has been created. This creation of value is assessed via the decreasing needs of the senior that the case manager dedicated to the senior has to fulfil.

- **Indicators related to reputation and reputational value.** This performance is based on the brand image of an organization. In the case of social innovation networks, these values will be associated with the contribution to the well-being of the targeted population, of the employees of the organizations, of a community, or to sustainable development. Some networks communicate their successes through storytelling to share them via word of mouth or on social media ((D1) Grennessminde (D2) Myob (D3), Booster programme (F3), Melting Potes programme (F4), Járókelő (H1)).

- **The performance attached to innovation values** (creativity, inspiration, experimentation and knowledge). Although indicators corresponding to this performance are not directly visible, some evaluations referring to the methodology applied in social innovation networks are available such as the idea of permanent innovation, open innovation. The learning process of Social innovation networks are often based on innovative reflective continuous assessment of experiences and results (Booster, Melting Potes, the BAGázs method, CédrusNet courses). An interactive process of innovation often forces the public sector and civil society to enter each other's domains (D1). These changes in culture/a cultural transformation are difficult to detect and measure. Some social innovation networks also use experimental tools (platform for such collaboration (D1, S1, S4). This innovation performance can be related to the positive image that the innovation network brings to the community.

2.6 Discussion and recommendation on Cooperation: “bridging Conflicting Cultures”

This section discusses the features of social innovation networks presented in the preceding points and provides recommendations along three themes: the cooperation between public and private actors, routines associated with different jobs, and finally, the functioning of public sector leadership and boundary spanners.

2.6.1 The cooperation between public and private partners

Recommendation: Promote mutual knowledge sharing and collective learning between network partners by providing increased opportunities for cross-collaboration in situ within the professional framework of each of the stakeholder.

The first significant challenge for the collaboration between public actors and actors from private sector organizations is the clash of ‘cultures’ of these two statutes. This clash of cultures is a well-known obstacle to closer cooperation between the public and private sectors. It has been identified in the case of public private partnerships (PPPs) and consists of “a complex set of institutional and organizational arrangements and conceptions of products, services, missions and performance (including the definition and evaluation thereof)” (Gallouj et al., 2013). In the case of innovation in PPPs, this clash of culture leads to a “deliberate resistance to change” and an “unconscious resistance linked to each organization’s intrinsic characteristics” (Gallouj et al., 2013). According to these authors, these obstacles are more or less significant depending on the nature of the partnership. For the simple forms of public-private collaboration involving technological innovation, the distribution of tasks is simple to organize (as it “does not require the renunciation of any fundamental principle”). When the innovation involves non-technological elements, the collaboration is more difficult to formalize in explicit contracts. As a result, these obstacles are more difficult to overcome. It implies that actors « give up certain habits, practices or principles that affect the fundamental nature of their missions and their organizations’ social purpose” (Gallouj et al., 2013).

The case studies show that successful social innovation networks are those whose members spend time together to understand the organization, functioning, culture and constraints of the other partner. The time spent together is also a way to decompartmentalize institutions by sharing methods and understanding each partner's constraints (see Box 21). Communication, time spent in situ in the professional framework of each of the stakeholders (public and private) allow to improve consensus and reduce conflicts by understanding the working context and the constraints of the other partner.

Box 21: The close dialogue between partners (F3)

Booster (F3) is a French “programme of a civic service innovation network trying to reintegrate into society young people in situation of school dropout”. It is based on “a 6 to 9 months commitment combining civic service and school reintegration in regular Comprehensive school or vocational school”. The close dialogue between the public organization and the association at a national and a local level is a driver to the success of this innovation. At the national level, the dialogue between the Unis-cité association and the general directorate of school education, “which is rather supportive of these projects, has facilitated the construction of the programme”. At a local level, “the coordination of actors is essential for the success of the programme. This requires an understanding of both the educational environment and popular education. While the two actors were initially able to operate as two parallel entities, it quickly became clear that coordination is essential for the Booster programme to be optimal”. “The coordinators of the two institutions spend time with each other to receive the young people, the parents of the young people, for the integration week, for the presentation of the teachers. Thus, the programme is really combined between the two organizations and the coordinators”.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

2.6.2 Routines linked to different jobs

Recommendation: When setting up a multi-stakeholder network, time should be allocated to exchange best practices and the most appropriate tools for sharing information should be studied.

Differences in professional culture can be identified within a sector or even between professions in the same functional sphere (such as health), regardless of the status of the stakeholders. These differences in (rational) working practices may lead to misunderstandings and reduce communication and thus the transmission of useful information between the actors of the innovation network. This is the case, for example, in elderly care (Box 22). In order to reduce these difficulties, it is essential to think about shared tools to compile information, and shared information to assess the needs of the targeted people.

Box 22: Differences in professional culture (F1)

Regarding the MAIA case study (F1), “Intervention with elderly people involves many professionals from the health, medico-social and social sectors (physicians and specialists, paramedical professionals, psychologists, social workers, caregivers, judicial agents...). They work in institutions (hospitals, retirement homes) or ambulatory medicine and care, with diverse employers (public or private organisations, profit or non-profit organizations) (Somme et al. 2014). The cultures and tools of these professionals are often very different: For example, some professionals use formal documents in order to communicate, whereas others use “oral” informal to communicate ; some professionals accompany patients for diagnosis and treatment over short periods whereas other professionals accompany them over long time-periods. This constitutes a challenge for integration. Therefore, it is sometimes difficult for all participants to collaborate, because they do not share common objectives nor common language”. In this case, the implementation of the Integration process “allows the creation of spaces for dialogue and consultation between different types of stakeholders”.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

2.6.3 Functioning of the public sector, leadership capabilities and boundary-spanners

2.6.3.1 The role of the public actor

Recommendation: Encourage public officials to develop a culture of cooperation and experience sharing

An important result of our case studies concerns the role played by the public actor in social innovation networks. The public actor can play different non-exclusive roles with varying degrees of intervention. According to the purpose of these networks, it appeared that there are significant differences in terms of the formalization and control of these innovation networks by the public actor. When social innovations deal with complex problems, or when the social innovation network deals with functions traditionally left to the public actor (health, education, long-term unemployment), the presence of the public actor is essential to the development of the innovation network. The different

involvement of the public actor identified in social innovation networks are as follows (Merlin-Brogniart, 2019a; Fuglsang, Scupola, 2019):

- 1) **The public actor as a co-producer of services.** The public actor can co-produce part of the innovation process, or only initiate the process, or be present to control the whole process from creation to delivery. The public actor may act as a service development facilitator of the social network and support system. For example, at the local level, the public actor (such as the town hall) may provide public spaces or facilities, or may mobilize actors on a daily basis. The public actor can help structuring or supporting the multi-stakeholder innovation networks. It gives more responsibility to civic actors in the creation and delivery of services. As a trusted third party, the public authority facilitates the emergence of a network by positioning itself as a force of neutrality in collaborative processes.
- 2) **The public actor as a complementary service provider** (the civic actor provides services independent of, but complementary to, public services).
- 3) **The public sector as a driving force for the involvement of social actors** in innovation and development processes, performing the role of controller and evaluator of the innovation network. In this case, the public actor does not intervene directly in the network. The public actor serves as bridge-builder between actors from different networks or gathers competing actors who would not otherwise have cooperated.

Our research demonstrates that few social innovation networks with a public service objective operate completely independently of a public presence. This may be the case when the nature of the innovation is not (or not yet) considered as a traditional area of State interest such as sustainable development. The nature of the common good justifies the classification of these networks as PSINSIs, but the stakes are not so risky and then, do not require a minimum of public control. The actors of the network can mix private actors (social entrepreneurs, associations) and citizens.

If the public actor is strongly present in social innovation networks, it is necessary to question the effectiveness of its intervention. We explained earlier that top-down social innovation networks with a public initiative tended, in the case studies considered, to be the least sustainable. How can public intervention be improved? Several recommendations can be made in this regard. Disseminating a culture of cooperation involves training staff, managing the career paths of public officials, making cooperation tools available, and breaking down the barriers between public bodies and public policies in general.

- **Focus recruiting efforts on bringing in new employees from different backgrounds and introduce training practices that foster a culture of experimentation**
 - The bureaucratic mode of operation is contrary to the culture of cooperation. This culture would require that relationships be established between the different hierarchical levels with multidisciplinary working processes. The cooperation also covers the networking of actors that are external to the public institution. Introducing a culture of experimentation related to innovative solutions, is the second dimension of management change. It implies valuing risk-taking linked to innovation, and accepting failure (the right to make mistakes) as learning source. This presupposes that public actors are not the only ones to validate projects, and are not in a logic of censorship. This also implies that public actors commit themselves to raise

funds and take risks on smaller projects. These experiments involve collaboration between public actors and external partners, particularly local partners (to promote territorial innovation). This would be a lever to stimulate and support local dynamics of social innovation. Public actors are able to create the conditions to develop and catalyse ambitions and energies. These new forms of citizen participation make it possible to mobilize the resources of the inhabitants and to place public action within a logic of "doing with" that is more appropriate for territorial innovation (Oural, 2015).

- The development of experimentation requires the training of public actors in engineering and project monitoring. Secondly, the recruitment of certain job profiles in the public administration would facilitate the dissemination of this culture of cooperation (e.g. designers, project leaders, researchers, entrepreneurs). Diversity in recruitment, i.e. the recruitment of people from different backgrounds and experiences within the administration would be a factor of innovation. Furthermore, the recruitment of missing profiles during a short period of time would complement this change in recruitment methods.

- **The enrichment of the tools available to public actors, including project management strategies and cooperation methodologies**

The use of new working methods and tools is corollary to the development of a culture of cooperation. Some of these tools are studied in the other Co-VAL workpackages:

- Developing support networks for project leaders (such as incubators). In order to stimulate a dynamic of social innovation, local authorities or public authorities must move from a logic of intervention to a logic of support for innovative initiatives, whether they come from public actors or whether these solutions are proposed by local actors. It presupposes the improvement of public agent's expertise.
- The use of third places such as Living Labs to promote the opening of the administration to its external environment. Third locations/places enable people from different backgrounds to work in the same place. They encourage exchanges. This implies that public agents mobilize "third places" as a method of coordination and that projects of general interest are proposed in these places. Moreover, public actors should also participate in these projects as active stakeholders.
- The use of design as a project management method. This type of tool makes it possible to improve dialogue between stakeholders and to identify the constraints of each stakeholder. This method involves prototyping or role-playing.
- Some legislative tools already exist in some countries and can be mobilized by project leaders (public or private) to test large-scale social innovations. For example, in France, the constitutional revision introduced in 2003 (law allowing experimental financial transfers at a local level - The 2003 organic law) allows local authorities the right to experiment. It is used in projects involving different rationales from the current operating methods (see box 5). One of the reasons for the limited use of this arrangement is the complexity of its implementation. However, its functioning could be simplified.
- The use of calls for projects by public actors, and in particular by local authorities, is also a tool for launching multi-stakeholder cooperation with grassroots actors. This tool brings visibility to certain initiatives that were previously informal, or allows ideas that remained in the drawers due to lack of budget to emerge.

Box 23: Antropoloops and the role of call for project (S2)

“The Antropoloops workshops is an artistic project that remixes fragments of traditional music from around the world to create musical collages”. Its main aim is to “promote cultural inclusion in a primary public school (South of Spain) by transforming the teaching and learning processes to prevent stigma, dropouts and exclusion right at the youngest possible age”. One of the major drivers for this project has been the support of the Carasso Foundation that proposes “regular calls for projects to innovate in nutrition and feeding, and in education”. “From a dynamic stand, this network was originally planned by the experts at Antropoloops, being the promoting agent”, but it was through the call from the Carasso Foundation that they formalized the prototype and were able to get the funding.

Source: Peralta et al. (2019b)

- **Organizational changes: decompartmentalization of public policies**

Firstly, introducing a culture of cooperation implies that there should be more links between public bodies. The first step to improve the links between public bodies starts with limiting bureaucracy in order to give actors flexibility (limiting the number of layers, simplifying the procedures available to actors). The existence of "silos" between administrations is the one of the main problem encountered by social innovation networks: it explains why some projects do not take into account all the dimensions of a problem. It also explains the loss of efforts to get through the public eco-system. Furthermore, the multiplication of projects having the same mission could be a serious source of dysfunctions. For example, the MAIA project (see Box 4) was in competition “with other national projects from which objectives are close to the MAIA method, such as “support territorial platforms” which offer support to health professional when the health pathway of a patient is complex” (Merlin-Brogniart, 2019b).

Secondly, social innovation needs to get closer to the target population. Thus, many social innovation projects are carried out with local public actors such as local authorities. The support of voluntary local actors helps to improve the understanding of the needs of the actors by being closer to reality. As Oural (2015) underlined, a sustained and diversified local associative life (house of associations, subsidies, etc.) seems to improve the innovation capacity of local public actors. Social innovation networks can help to "do better with less" and gain flexibility at several levels (finance, expertise, labour). They provide new services while making savings on public expenditure (see Box 24).

Box 24: Co-creation with inhabitants as a solution to the constraints of small municipalities (F5)

In small municipalities, such as in Sailly-Lez-Lannoy, “elected representatives lack the time, money and expertise to set up other collective projects than those carried out on a daily basis in their traditional missions” (e.g. elected representatives of small municipalities usually have a job in addition to their mission as elected representatives). They develop a “Fabrique” with their inhabitants to co-create projects useful for the municipality, which reduces expenses and increases access to new expertise. Through their job, some inhabitants may have the necessary contacts as well as the competences to carry out some of the project. “Thus, the inhabitants are the only people who can increase the number of collective projects for the village”.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

2.6.3.2 Leadership, Trust and Partnership Capabilities: Strong leaders and power sharing

Initiate a network for social and economic innovation and maintaining a balanced mix of non-profit, private and public sector principles within a social network requires solid project management and leaders with strong relational skills. Managers have to implement climate of respect and trust as well as mechanisms for coordinating the partnership's activities. These 'partnership capabilities' or leadership skills seem to be essential for the initiation and sustainability of projects. Different types of leadership are possible, such as leadership from non-profit organizations (Box 25), leadership from a public actor (Box 26), or leadership from social entrepreneurs (Box 27).

Box 25: nonprofit leadership (H2)

Esélykör (non-profit leadership): The goal of Esélykör (Circle of Opportunity-CSO) is "to coordinate and synchronise the operation of different NGOs" operating on "the field of disability-care in the county city, Székesfehérvár" to enable effective collaboration with the local government and enterprises. "Rich social capital and good communication skills" are essential to create the CSO partnerships. All CSOs of this network are linked to the names of individuals, as they function as some kind of "quality assurance". According to a CSO leader "Whether or not attitudes influence whether or not we go into cooperations only with familiar people is another story, but it is certain that we associate civil society organizations with individuals."

Source: Katona et al. (2019)

Box 26: public leadership (F5)

The saillysienn Fabrique (public leadership): "the total investment of a municipal councillor in the implementation of the Fabrique" was essential to the project. The municipal councillor launched the project and enables "the smooth running of the Fabrique" "by linking the different projects through the facebook site", "by reserving the wedding hall according to the inhabitants' meeting requirements", as well as "by finding professionals according to the inhabitants' demands". The personality of the councillor, very dynamic "allowed the experiences to be quickly set up".

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

Box 27: Entrepreneur leadership (D1)

CWA (entrepreneur leadership): In the case of Cycling Without Age, the role of the leader (the founder) was decisive. The founder "worked as a partner in the consulting company, which focused on leadership, openness and transparency in the solutions it developed for its clients". He has previously worked on how to bring companies "ethical/societal concerns" closer together. Since the care centres were reluctant to fund the project, "he made contact to one of his friends who was a politician in Copenhagen Municipality". He also "continuously organizes joint events to gather the people who have come along and to create awareness that may attract new ones".

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019)

Furthermore, the setting up of the social network may lead some actors of the network to have to accept losing power in order to make the offer of services more coherent. One of the barrier appears

when there is a resistance of the partners to their own loss of power, or to professional cultural resistance. Thus, the creation of complex social innovation networks requires trust between partners.

2.6.3.3 Boundary-spanners

Recommendation: instil a boundary-spanning mind-set among (public) managers

In the case of social innovation networks, certain actors within the network play a key role through their ability to "cross" boundaries. These actors are described as "bridge-builders" (Skjelberg, 2018), or "boundary-spanner". Boundary-spanners are able to create transition between cultures or organization or scientific fields. They are both listeners and messengers. They link them to other persons across a boundary or they connect other people across multiples boundaries. They can connect teams from different organizations (e.g. communicating with people from private sector and public sector or the third sector), or translate diverse stakeholders needs/constraints into solutions to cooperate. They are often ideally positioned to address systemic challenges. They possess an ability to communicate, to collaborate, to coordinate people across different types of boundaries, to cultivate trust and mutual respect.

In the social innovation networks we observed, these individuals often take the lead, but there may also be people from outside the network who support the innovative project towards other groups (other organizations, conveying the idea to a ministry, etc.).

There are several types of boundaries:

- **Cognitive boundaries:** some social problems have a global (systemic) dimension that may not be obvious to some actors who have difficulty becoming aware of these levels (e.g. silo effect), it is necessary for key actors to help other actors to make this cognitive transition (e.g. integration method, see Box 6 and 11- MAIA (F1)). Boundary-spanners are also ideology carriers (such as TZCLD (F2) Box 9 and 17 where the experiment draws inspiration from "Inclusion by Employment Centres for disabled"). In the case of bybi (D4), the managing director tries to reject systemic boundaries. "Bybi aims to build an inclusive community of people with a shared vision of bees and honey production as a path to make the city richer environmentally and more inclusive socially" (see also Box 14).
- **"cultural" boundaries:** professions, even within the same field of intervention, have different working cultures. These boundaries need to be overcome in order to enable the cooperation of the stakeholders of the network (see Box 4 and 11 (MAIA-F1)).
- **Boundaries between organizations or sectors (network effects):** some actors are involved in different organizations and are in contact with a certain number of companies, which makes it easier for them to promote and facilitate the acceptance of innovative projects (see Box 28). For example, in the case of cycling without age (D1), the boundary was about expanding the field of public sector tasks to include ideas from social actors' field. There were two boundary-spanners: the initiator of cycling without age, and a public manager in the municipality who quickly responded to and took up the initiative.

Box 28: Boundary-spanners (F5)

The saillysiennne “Fabrique” (F5) aims to set up projects proposed by the inhabitants, in order to improve the quality of life of the village. In this social innovation network, the municipal councillor who launched the project is an essential key actor to the smooth running of the Fabrique as boundary-spanner. Without directly participating in the projects, this elected representative has made it possible to link the inhabitants who have a citizen project, with professionals of her networks to help the inhabitants to realize their project. She also played the role of bridge-builder to convince the elected representatives of the relevance of this Factory for the city, and thus mobilize the city's human and material resources.

“**In e-bro case (D5)** there are two main boundary-spanners that are of importance in the same time and in different points in time. In the first phase of the establishment of E-bro and JobIntra, both the founder of E-bro and his manager employed in Job Center Brøndby have equally important roles as boundary spanners in making Job Intra application adopted and used by the Job Center, the unemployed as well as by the “other actors”, which are employment agencies located in the area. In addition, the founder of E-bro, has the key role of boundary-spanner in building a network for developing JobIntra application. In a second moment, when the founder left the Job Center for concentrating on the establishment of E-bro company, his manager has a key boundary spanner role within the Job Center to make sure that JobIntra keeps on being used and applied by the network of relevant actors, while the founder has a boundary spanner role in developing and orchestrating the network of actors necessary to make JobIntra adopted and used by other Danish Job Centers. The founder and his manager also take on the role of bridge-builders in persuading the relevant actors of the importance of Jo Intra for the unemployed in a Flexi-Job scheme.”

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019); Fuglsang et al. (2019)

The role of boundary-spanner requires special skills, but it is possible to sensitize managers to the existence of these boundary-spanners so that they may identify them, listen to them, and welcome their ideas more openly. Raising managers' awareness of the existence of boundary-spanners could also lead these managers to become boundary-spanners.

2.6.4 Evolution Over Time

Recommendation: **Secure the project and massively disseminate and communicate on good initiatives.**

A last part of the recommendations concerns elements that would ensure the sustainability of the projects. They concern dimensions related to the functioning of the public service and the change of scale of the experiment.

- **The financial security of the project: getting out of the annual budgeting process**

Where innovation networks depend on public finances, budgetary processes must be respected. “In the public sector, making an idea sustainable requires integrating the innovation into budgetary processes” (Matei, Antonie, 2015). However, budgetary procedures are often annual, so that each year the budgets associated with projects linked to ongoing innovation networks are not automatically renewed, or the actors have to wait until the budget is voted to recover the money, which makes the functioning of these networks precarious. One of the objectives of these networks

should be to find sources of income that do not depend on public budgetary processes to ensure the continuity of innovative projects.

- **Reducing the uncertainty created by leadership changes that occur with the turnover of elected officials**

Another risk associated with the project is the uncertainty of the renewal of the project associated with changes in key actors (such as an elected official or the leader of the project). Indeed, the sustainability of projects, especially when they are associated with leaders, comes up against the problem of the life cycle of individual careers and the “short term” politic agenda. In the longer term, certain key actors may leave the organization for various reasons. Networks initiated by leaders are undeniably a factor in the fragility of these cooperative processes. Insofar as organizational and methodological innovations develop over time, it is important to involve all stakeholders in the co-creation of projects so that they take ownership of the projects and are not left helpless if a key player in the network were to leave.

In addition, the evaluation of the innovation is important to demonstrate the efficiency of the network and ensure its sustainability. In the case of social innovation networks, the nature of innovation varies and the evaluation of the results is essentially qualitative. The solutions found in these networks are not always easily quantifiable. Thus, it is important to systematically evaluate the impact of projects in order to give credibility to the most sceptical people (often public funders) to ensure the sustainability of the project (renewal of funding) and to enable the project to change scale. According to Fuglsang and Scupola (2019), Agger et al. (2018) and Torfing et al. (2017) both highlight “the need for both hard and soft ways of measuring effects”. Furthermore, the evaluation of the territorial impacts of public policies can lead to a different qualification of local needs in order to generate an innovative solution (Oural, 2015). This evaluation involves setting up experimentation protocols with evaluation criteria including not only economic but also non-economic indicators (especially social impacts or societal and environmental impacts). The concrete modalities of their evaluation (indicators, responsible entity, monitoring committee, etc.) must be determined. For example, the TZCLD project (Box 2) benefits from a five-year experimental protocol in order to check whether the project has achieved its objectives (eliminating exclusionary unemployment). This evaluation of the social impacts provides evidence that these innovations are useful and have the capacity to save money (essentially public money). This is also a concern for social entrepreneurs who need to ensure that their business model is efficient.

- **Scale-up issues: accept that there are limitations in project reproducibility**

The dissemination of these innovations raises the question of communication. Feedback (positive or negative) is essential to inspire other project leaders and encourage the dissemination of social innovations. This dissemination is far from being obvious in the case of social innovations because their objectives need to respond to local needs and to rely on configurations of actors that can differ from one place to another. Social Innovation is necessarily local and must therefore be adapted to the context. The case-study analysis has revealed that there are potentially different adaptations of innovation. The strategic focus on dissemination through storytelling and the use of various media platforms is critical for the project to scale up. Communication can take place through several

channels, through membership in collaborative networks (Box 29-30), through summits, press release, radio, TV station...

Box 29: Cycling Without Age and dissemination (D1)

“The main idea of this project is that elderly people living in care centres or elderly people offered home care are given the opportunity to get a bike ride in a trishaw. The trip involves, what is referred to as the three P’s: pilots, passengers and personnel”. “CWA as a movement has concurrently developed along two paths: a national and an international one”. The development in Denmark has been a way and source of inspiration to continuously clarify and develop “the distribution of roles and design of cooperative agreements”. The knowledge and the experiences from the Danish context are disseminated internationally through networks, Summits, joint long-trips and via diverse communication channels. This strategic focus on dissemination “has been crucial in the transition from being an isolated good initiative to becoming a municipal service offer with political endorsement”. “The development of a new booking system is meant to support the diffusion of the movement internationally”.

Source: Fuglsang et al. (2019)

Box 30: The advantage of an increase in the visibility of the project (F5)

“The Fabrique Sillysienne” has attracted the interest of other stakeholders”. “The town hall received the visit of the National Meetings of Citizen Participation. This association links together networks that are involved in citizens’ projects”. “The village was also chosen as part of Metropolis - the world's design capital, which increased the visibility of the Fabrique and the village. These very positive and unexpected returns give a higher visibility to the village”. “This visibility makes it possible to attract other inhabitants and eventually to obtain other sources of financing”.

Source: Merlin-Brogniart (2019b)

3 Conclusion

Among the three paradigms of public administration that reflect the different modes of coordination (traditional public administration, new public management and new public governance), social innovation networks with a public service purpose are analytically included in the paradigm of New Public Governance (cf. Desmarchelier et al., 2019a). The corresponding predominant mode of coordination is the multi-actor network associating various public and/or private actors interacting for the co-production of public service. The New Public Governance paradigm combines this “multi-actor network” mode of coordination with a multi-criteria assessment that allows the diversity of institutional rationales of the different agents composing the network to be taken into account. However, in practice, all three models can be identified simultaneously in the same country in varying degrees. The history and culture of the countries strongly influence the choice of models of collaboration between public, private, associative actors and citizens. This mix of paradigms can lead some actors of the networks to have difficulties in switching from one operating rationale to another. Furthermore, the modes of organization and management, the assessment reference system of the institutions in which the actors of the social innovation network are employed may differ from the features associated with new public governance, which is why these innovation networks encounter a certain number of barriers.

Social innovation networks have been categorized into three implementation strategies (top-down, bottom-up and “help it happen”). The choice of the type of strategies is determined by the complexity of the project and by the mode of governance chosen by the stakeholders. The type of strategies selected will also depend on the socio-economic and political history of the country and the control that the government wishes to maintain over some social fields. Thus, for a similar project, the choice of implementation strategies may differ according to the country. Among these three models, we have not identified a model that is more efficient than others. Each model has its advantages and drawbacks. However, the failures or difficulties encountered by the actors in undertaking one type of implementation, or in ensuring the sustainability of the network, may reflect an inappropriate choice relative to the context in which the innovation network was set up.

The case studies confirmed the significant role of the public actor who can either improve the launching of a project, accompany a more ambitious innovation project in an enabled process, or in a top-down or a “help it happen” approach, give the actors the time, resources and funds needed to co-create the innovation. Co-creation, sharing of risks, resources, and time appears to provide an effective way to create value for all the stakeholders. Although the participation of target groups or citizens in the innovation network is not directly mentioned in the national reports, their active participation is also essential for the success of social innovation.

Social innovation networks produce innovations that cover a wide variety of non-technological dimensions of innovation as well as technological aspects. The four most noticeable forms of innovation associated with social innovation are conceptual innovation, organizational innovation, product or service innovations, and process or methodological innovations. The most distinctive

innovation in these social innovation networks is conceptual innovation. This radical type of innovation expresses the search for new ideas, practices, and reflection on social interactions in response to needs that are considered unsatisfactory at a given time.

The barriers encountered by stakeholders in innovation networks are varied. However, the case studies highlight obstacles and constraints that are manageable, once the innovation project is started, rather than intractable obstacles to the development of the project. Changes in institutional or social context, the presence of a leader or an individual acting as “bridge-builder” between actors of different organizations, the nature of the innovation and the innovation process, the support or the involvement of the public sector, are the most important drivers needed for the formation of social innovation networks.

Social innovation networks seem to be increasingly promoted by the government in European countries. However, the success of these networks is conditioned by a certain number of challenges related, on the one hand, to the understanding of the nature of the innovation of such networks and to the modernization of public services, and on the other hand, to the management of collaboration between actors from different organizations and different cultures, as well as to the problems of ensuring the sustainability of these innovation networks and the dissemination of these innovative solutions. These challenges cover three levels:

On the theoretical level, more efforts must be made to clearly define the outlines of social innovation and social innovation networks among stakeholders. Depending on countries and professions, different words and concepts are used in the field of value co-creation and multi-actor cooperation. This multiplicity of terms tends to create confusion among stakeholders. An approach involving such activities as design thinking would help improve understanding of the concept among actors from different backgrounds.

On the methodological level, the most important point is to accompany social innovation networks to develop tools and define metrics that capture all the results and forms of performance of these networks. In this regard, public authorities have an important role to play in striking the right balance between the different types of performance during the decision-making process. Public managers should also be better trained and encouraged to acquire a culture of cooperation, experience as well as a culture of boundary-spanning. To overcome this challenge, public managers need to be well equipped with cooperation and communication tools (such as calls for proposals, rewards) to bring to light the ideas and initiatives of cooperative governance related to social innovation projects.

On the political level, it is crucial to continue to offer different types of support to innovation networks (top-down, bottom-up and “help it happen”) and to improve their functioning (e.g. reviewing legislation in some cases), since the efficiency of these implementation strategies depends on the context in which they are carried out. Moreover, as we have emphasized in this research, it is necessary to strengthen local public policies towards this type of networks, because it is often at the local level that social innovation networks are conceived and developed, in response to territorial issues with the dynamics of territorial actors.

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5 APPENDIX

Appendix 1: The 25 Case-studies

DANISH CASE STUDIES

CASE STUDY 1: CYCLING WITHOUT AGE

CASE STUDY 2: GRENNESSMINDE

CASE STUDY 3: MIND YOUR OWN BUSINESS

CASE STUDY 4: BYBI

CASE STUDY 5: E-BRO AND JOBINTRA

FRENCH CASE-STUDIES

CASE STUDY 1: THE MAIA METHOD

CASE STUDY 2: ZERO LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYED TERRITORY (TZCLD)

CASE STUDY 3: THE BOOSTER PROGRAMME

CASE STUDY 4: THE MELTING POTES PROGRAMME

CASE STUDY 5: THE SAILLYSIENNE "FABRIQUE": THE PARTICIPATORY GARDEN

HUNGARIAN CASE-STUDIES

CASE-STUDY 1: JÁRÓKELŐ ASSOCIATION – JAROKELO.HU

CASE-STUDY 2: ESÉLYKÖR – CIRCLE OF OPPORTUNITY

CASE-STUDY 3: CÉDRUSNET

CASE-STUDY 4: NO BAD KID – PRESSLEY RIDGE HUNGARY FOUNDATION

CASE-STUDY 5: BAGÁZS PUBLIC BENEFIT ASSOCIATION

NORWEGIAN CASE-STUDIES

CASE STUDY 1: FLEXIBLE RELIEF FOR DEPENDENTS

CASE STUDY 2: THE STRENGTH OF CONNECTING VULNERABLE GROUPS

CASE STUDY 3: REFUGEES AS RESOURCES IN RURAL AREAS

CASE STUDY 4: DRIVE FOR LIFE (DFL)

CASE STUDY 5: REESTABLISHING PERSONAL NETWORKS FOR PEOPLE WITH DEMENTIA

SPANISH CASE-STUDIES

CASE-STUDY 1: LIBRARY OF SAN FERMIN

CASE-STUDY 2: ANTROPOLOOPS

CASE-STUDY 3: ELDERLY WITH INTELLECTUAL DISABILITY

CASE-STUDY 4: MADRID CENTRAL. WITHOUT GREEN, LIFE FLOURISHES

CASE-STUDY 5: PLAN FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT IN LA RIOJA 2016-2019

Appendix 2: Recommendations

- 1- Ensure that the search for social innovation networks is not limited to technological innovations.
- 2- Set up collaborative and cross-sectoral project proposals in order to identify or encourage the development of PSINSIs.
- 3- Provide local authorities increased flexibility to implement policies that encourage, support and collaborate with territorial social innovation networks.
- 4- Top-down approaches should be made more flexible by bringing more negotiation into the innovation process (e.g. integrate local actors — public bodies, associations — and end-users) or may be converted to a “help it happen” strategy to achieve a balance between imposed and negotiated projects. Favouring other types of implementation strategies when an implementation strategy is not working well can reactivate the project.
- 5- Promote mutual knowledge sharing and collective learning between network partners by providing increased opportunities for cross-collaboration in situ within the professional framework of each of the stakeholder.
- 6- When setting up a multi-stakeholder network, time should be allocated to exchange best practices and the most appropriate tools for sharing information should be studied.
- 7- Encourage public officials to develop a culture of cooperation and experience sharing
 - Focus recruiting efforts on bringing in new employees from different backgrounds and introduce training practices that foster a culture of experimentation
 - Enrichment of the tools available to public actors, including project management strategies and cooperation methodologies
 - Organizational changes: decompartmentalization of public policies
- 8- Instil a boundary-spanning mind-set among (public) managers
- 9- Secure the project and massively disseminate and communicate on good initiatives.
 - The financial security of the project: getting out of the annual budgeting process
 - Reducing the uncertainty created by leadership changes that occur with the turnover of elected officials
 - Scale-up issues: accept that there are limitations in project reproducibility.

D.6.2.2. LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS PRODUCE WITHIN WP6

1. List of publications

Scupola, A., Fuglsang L., Gallouj F., Hansen A.V. (2021), Understandings of Social Innovation within the Danish Public Sector: A Literature Review, *Administrative Sciences*

<https://doi.org/10.3390/xxxxx>

Hansen, A.V. Fuglsang, L., Gallouj, F., Scupola, A. (2021), Social Entrepreneurs as change makers: expanding public service innovation networks for social innovation *Public Management Review* (in press)

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2021.1916065>.

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020a), Mapping Social Innovation Networks: Knowledge Intensive Social Services as Systems Builders, *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, vol. 157, August.

<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0040162519315288>

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020b), User's involvement in value co-creation: the more the better?, *European Management Review*, vol. 17, n° 2, p. 439-448.

<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/emre.12365>

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020c), Towards a servitization of innovation networks: a mapping, *Public Management Review*, vol. 22, n° 9, p. 1368-1397.

<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/14719037.2019.1637012>

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020d), "Public service innovation networks (PSINs): an instrument for collaborative innovation and value co-creation in public service(s)", *European Review of Service Economics and Management*, 2020-2, n° 10, p. 133-169.

<https://classiques-garnier.com/european-review-of-service-economics-and-management-2020-2-n-10-varia-public-service-innovation-networks-psins.html>

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2019), "Innovation in public services in the light of public administration paradigms and service innovation perspectives", *European Review of Services Economics and Management*, 2019-2, n° 8, p. 91-120.

<https://classiques-garnier.com/european-review-of-service-economics-and-management-2019-2-revue-europeenne-d-economie-et-management-des-services-n-8-varia-innovation-in-public-services-in-the-light-of-public-administration-paradigms-and-service-innovation-perspectives.html>

Desmarchelier B. (2019) Service Economies and Complexities, *Handbook of Service Science, Volume II in Service Science: Research and Innovations in the Service Economy* book series, Springer Switzerland, chap 31, vol 2, p.711-728

<https://www.springer.com/gp/book/9783319985114>

2. Abstracts of publications

2.1. Publications

Hansen, A.V. Fuglsang, L., Gallouj, F., Scupola, A. (2021), Social Entrepreneurs as change makers: expanding public service innovation networks for social innovation, *Public Management Review*.

Abstract: Social innovation, in the context of public innovation, has gained increased attention in the literature, and is approached relative to the third sector, to social enterprises, or as practices initiated by the public sector. However, the interplay among these actors in enabling social innovation is still underexplored. Therefore, the article investigates the role of social entrepreneurs from outside the public sector in enabling public sector innovation networks. Since social innovation is inherently relational, four cases demonstrating how social entrepreneurs have pushed the boundaries of public sector services, and hence expanded public innovation networks, are analysed.

Scupola, A., Fuglsang, L., Gallouj, F., Hansen, A.V. (2021), Understandings of Social Innovation within the Danish Public Sector: A Literature Review, *Administrative Sciences*, 11: x.

Abstract: Social innovation is an emerging theme within innovation theory, and so is the concept of public service innovation networks for social innovation (PSINSIs). The purpose of this article is to explore how social innovation in Danish public services is conceptualised and enacted through the lenses of public service innovation networks for social innovation. To do this, a thorough integrative review of the literature dealing with the Danish context is conducted. The Danish context is interesting in order to investigate these network arrangements, firstly because they are not well understood in the context of the Nordic welfare states, which Denmark is part of, and then because municipalities and civil society have historically had a mutually dependent relationship in Denmark. The article highlights that social innovation is framed in several ways in the Danish public sector. In particular, the results show that the literature can be grouped according to four themes: (1) samskabelse (co-creation), (2) collaboration with civil society, (3) social entrepreneurs and social innovation and (4) public-private innovation partnerships. Moreover, the article presents and discusses a number of Danish empirical projects that may be understood through the lens of the PSINSI framework. Hence, the paper contributes with new theoretical perspectives, in addition to contributing to practice.

Keywords: social innovation; public sector; networks; integrative review

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020a), Mapping Social Innovation Networks: Knowledge Intensive Social Services as Systems Builders, Technological Forecasting and Social Change, vol. 157, August.

Highlights:

- The literature on social innovation over-emphasizes on social entrepreneurs.
- We show that social innovations can also be routinized.
- New actors, the Knowledge Intensive Social Services (KISS), bring funds, knowledge and contacts to social entrepreneurs.

- We observe growing and increasingly self-organized networks of social innovation.

Abstract: Social innovations are often seen as the product of social entrepreneurs. This paper instead asserts that social innovations are also routinized. This is the result of the appearance of a new type of actors: Knowledge Intensive Social Services (KISS). Like Knowledge Intensive Business Services (KIBS), KISS are consultancy organizations that provide their clients with specific knowledge to assist them in their innovation efforts. KISS differ from KIBS in that KISS agents are specializing in social innovations. KISS also involve third party agents - public and private - in the service relationship. We show that these connecting activities are creating growing social innovation networks. Despite being very dependent on the initial KISS actor, such networks can become more robust by interacting with other social innovation networks.

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020b), User's involvement in value co-creation: the more the better?, *European Management Review*, vol. 17, n° 2, p. 439-448.

Abstract: Literature on value co-creation often postulates that a greater degree of co-production increases the potential of value co-creation. To test this hypothesis, we build a computational model of value proposition inspired by March's model of organizational learning. The model allows us to represent various cases of co-creation: (i) without co-production, (ii) with downstream co-production, and (iii) with upstream co-production. Repeated simulations are partly supporting the literature. On one hand, we find that deeper involvement of consumers into the value offering process increases the potential for value co-creation. On the other hand, we find that co-production can increase inequalities of satisfaction among consumers. Also, while scenarios with learning consumers offer the highest potential for value co-creation, a negative relationship emerges between the number of learning consumers and organizational performance.

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020c), Towards a servitization of innovation networks: a mapping, *Public Management Review*, vol. 22, n° 9, p. 1368-1397.

Abstract: This article is dedicated to a consideration of the tertiarization of innovation networks. While the concept of traditional innovation network has been the object of an extensive literature, new expressions of the innovation network appear in a service economy: in particular Public Private Innovation Networks in Services, Market Service Innovation Networks, Public Service Innovation Networks and Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovation. They reflect the rise of market and non-market services and of the public-private relationship in collaborative innovation. Based on a literature survey, this article investigates these different expressions of innovation networks and sheds light on the different roles played by public services in each of them.

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2020d), "Public service innovation networks (PSINs): an instrument for collaborative innovation and value co-creation in public service(s)", *European Review of Service Economics and Management*, 2020-2, n° 10, p. 133-169.

Abstract: This article is devoted to a new network form that is developing within the New Public Governance paradigm, namely "Public Service Innovation Networks" (PSINs). PSINs are multi-agent

collaborative arrangements that develop within public service(s), spontaneously or at the instigation of local, national or European public policies. They mobilize a variable number of public and private agents, especially citizens, to co-produce innovations and ultimately contribute to value co-creation. Based on a review of the literature and on empirical work carried out under two European funded projects, this article aims to deepen the definition and description of PSINs, especially in comparison with other known network forms, and to examine in particular how PSINs are formed and function to co-create, more or less efficiently, value in public service(s) through innovation.

Keywords: public service, network, innovation, value, co-creation, co-production, collaboration

Desmarchelier B., Djellal F., Gallouj F. (2019), “Innovation in public services in the light of public administration paradigms and service innovation perspectives”, *European Review of Services Economics and Management*, 2019-2, n° 8, p. 91-120.

Abstract: “Service Studies” and public management are two fields of research that have developed separately, although they share a common target (services delivery). This paper is an attempt to enhance the dialogue about service production and innovation among the paradigms of public administration (Traditional Public Administration, New Public Management and New Public Governance) and the analytical perspectives used in service studies (Assimilation to the goods logic, Demarcation and Integration).

Keywords: Innovation, services, public services, public administration, new public management, new public governance

Desmarchelier B., (2019) Service Economies and Complexities, Handbook of Service Science, Volume II in Service Science: Research and Innovations in the Service Economy book series, Springer Switzerland, chap 31, vol 2, p.711-728

Abstract The economic literature on services has for a long time been dominated by an industrialist bias which considers services as unproductive. This point of view was progressively replaced by a more positive integrative framework that takes into account possibilities of non-technological innovations. However, this framework does not constitute a theory of the growth of services and business services. We show the proximity between the integrative framework and the complex systems, and we argue that theories of the dynamics of such systems offer promising explanations for these two phenomena. In a systemic perspective, services are catalysts –i.e. actors who increasingly complexify the economic system - by taking part to various production and innovation processes at the same time.

2.2. Conference papers

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2018), Services in Innovation Networks and Innovation Networks in Services: from Traditional Innovation Networks (TINs) to Public Service Innovation Networks (PSINs), 28th RESER Conference, “Services in the age of contested globalization”, 20-22 September, Gothenburg, Sweden.

Abstract: This article is dedicated to a consideration of the tertiarization of innovation networks. While the concept of traditional innovation network (TIN) has been the object of an extensive literature, new expressions of the innovation network appear in a service and sustainable development economy: in particular Public Private Innovation Networks in Services (PPINS), Public Service Innovation Networks (PSINs) and Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovation (PSINSIs). They reflect the rise to prominence of market and non-market services and of the public-private relationship in collaborative innovation. This article investigates and compares these different expressions of innovation networks. In particular, it sheds light on the different roles played by public services in each of them.

Keywords: market services, public services, innovation, networks

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2018), Users' involvement in value co-creation: The more the better? 28th RESER Conference, "Services in the age of contested globalization", 20-22 September, Gothenburg, Sweden.

Abstract: Literature on value co-creation often postulates that a greater degree of co-production increases the potential of value co-creation. To test this hypothesis, we build a computational model of value proposition inspired by March's model of organizational learning (1991[16]). The model allows to represent various cases of co-creation: (i) without co-production, (ii) with downstream co-production, and (iii) with upstream co-production. Repeated simulations are partly supporting the literature on co-creation. Indeed, on one hand we find that deeper involvement of consumers into the value offering process increases the potential for value co-creation, but on the other hand we find that - when confronted with contradictory information emanating from the organization and consumers - value co-creation potential is higher when employees follow existing organizational routines.

Keywords: Value co-creation, organizational learning, modelling

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., (2018), "Functional Service Economy, partnerships and social innovations", 28th International RESER Conference: "Services in the Age of Contested Globalization", 20th to 22th September 2018, Gothenburg, Sweden.

Abstract: The aim of this paper is to analyse business models within the Functional Service Economy (also called Product-service systems) seeking to create social innovation. A particular emphasis is made on original forms of cooperation of actors (public-private or associative). Having delimited the boundaries of social innovations, the place given to Service Economy within sustainable business models is examined. An analysis of the links between The Functional Service Economy and social innovations is carried out. The innovative and "sustainable" content of these partnerships is questioned. A typology of the business models of Functional Service Economy in the field of social innovation is finally proposed. Difficulties encountered by these original partnerships are discussed.

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2019), Public service innovation networks (PSINs): an instrument for collaborative innovation and value co-creation in public service(s), R-D Management conference “The innovation challenge: bridging research, industry and society, Ecole Polytechnique, HEC, Paris, 17-21 June 2019.

Abstract: This article is devoted to a new network form that is developing within the New Public Governance paradigm, namely “Public Service Innovation Networks” (PSINs). PSINs are multi-agent collaborative arrangements that develop within public services (sectoral perspective) or within public service (functional perspective), spontaneously or at the instigation of local, national or European public policies. They mobilize a variable number of public and private agents, especially citizens, to co-produce innovations and ultimately contribute to value co-creation. Based on a review of the literature and on empirical work carried out under two European funded projects, this article aims to deepen the definition and description of PSINs, especially in comparison with other known network forms, and to examine in particular how PSINs are formed and function to co-create, more or less efficiently, value in public service(s) through innovation.

Keywords: public service, network, innovation, value, co-creation, co-production, collaboration

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2019), Mapping Social Innovations: Knowledge Intensive Social Services (KISS) as Systems Builders, R-D Management conference “The innovation challenge: bridging research, industry and society, Ecole Polytechnique, HEC, Paris, 17-21 June 2019.

Abstract: Contrary a widely shared opinion in the literature, this paper brings evidence that social innovations are getting more routinized. This process is not the result of a change in technological regimes in the social economy, but the result of the appearance of new type of actors: the knowledge intensive social services (KISS), which are equivalent to KIBS but for the social economy. Like KIBS, they provide their clients with specific knowledge assisting them in their (social) innovation efforts. A major difference with KIBS is that KISS are also connectors bridging public, private and social actors. We bring evidence that these connecting activities are generating increasingly sophisticated networks.

Keywords: Social Innovations, Innovation Systems, Technological Regimes, Networks.

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., (2019), Social innovation networks and territorial dynamics, R-D Management conference “The innovation challenge: bridging research, industry and society”, Ecole Polytechnique, HEC, Paris, 17-21 June 2019.

Abstract: Social innovation networks are multi-agent collaborative networks that are increasingly recognized by public actors, especially in the “new public governance paradigm”, as key players in social innovation in a context of increasing wicked problems. They bring into play a variable number of associative, public and private agents in order to co-produce social innovation. This research demonstrates that these innovation networks produce organizational and methodological tools in order to increase the institutional and organizational proximity of actors of a territory. The success of

these networks is based on the variety of actors and their mutual legitimacy in their field of competence. Among the new forms of public management, the help it happen process seems to be favoured to experiment and carry out the projects.

SCUPOLA A., FUGLSANG L., (2019), Theoretical and empirical evidence of public service innovation networks for social innovation (PSINSIs) in Denmark: A Systematic Literature Review, R-D Management conference “The innovation challenge: bridging research, industry and society, Ecole Polytechnique, HEC, Paris, 17-21 June 2019.

Abstract: The study’s main contribution consists of the systematic review of the concept and application of public service innovation networks for social innovation (PSINSIs) in the particular Danish context. It is based on a systematic search of documents from Google and key web sites of Danish governmental and research organizations. The paper highlights that the concept takes several forms and names in the Danish literature, thus contributing to theory. The results show that the literature on PSINSIs can be grouped according to 4 themes: 1) ‘Samskabelse’ (co-creation), 2) collaboration with the civil society, 3) social entrepreneurs and social innovation, 4) public-private innovation partnerships. The review presents and discusses a number of Danish-based PSINSIs projects, which are the base for interesting learning lessons, thus contributing also to practice.

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., (2019), An integrative innovation network: the MAIA method, RNI, Forum Innovation IX, and Summer School, Innovation for health Innovation for Life, Napoli, Italy. 17-19 July.

Abstract: The integration method has been defined as a method seeking to develop a long-term common governance between autonomous actors and organizations with the aim of coordinating their interdependencies to enable them to cooperate in the realization of a collective project. This research analyses the MAIA integration method as multi-stakeholder social innovation networks aiming to solve public issues. The process of dissemination of the method, as well as the nature of the innovations and the innovation dynamics created by these innovation networks, are identified. This research demonstrates that these innovation networks are based on the production of organizational and methodological tools in order to increase the institutional and organizational proximity of actors of a territory. The nature of the obstacles of innovation are highlighted.

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2019), Mapping Social Innovation Networks, XXIXth International RESER Conference, “Services and the future of the workforce”, Ceuta, 12-14 September.

OBJECTIVES: Social innovations entertain an ambiguous relationship with networks: on one hand, one of their main outcomes is to generate (not for profit) relationship between agents (providers and users), but on the other hand they are easily attributed to single innovators, like Muhammad Yunnus in the case of the micro-credit (Mulgan, 2006; 2007). We argue that this ambiguity reflects insufficient investigation of the process of social innovation, both at the empirical and theoretical levels (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014). In this context, our objective in this paper is to fill-in this gap by exploring the structure of existing networks aiming at producing social innovations. [SEP]

METHODOLOGY: We construct temporal networks of social innovation based on publicly available information. Networks are distinguished based on a classification of their main actors, whether they are manufacturing organizations, public or market services, or emanations of the third sector (Desmarchelier, Djellal, Gallouj, 2018). In each case, we aim at assessing the degree of proximity of social innovation networks' structures with those of (standard) innovations. Successful innovation networks are indeed displaying small-world properties and they are robust to the random removals of agents (Newman, 2001; Albert et al., 2000), which generates spillover effects among agents as well as a significant lifespan of these networks (Desmarchelier and Zhang, 2018). [SEP]

EXPECTED RESULTS: A better understanding of the properties of networks aiming at social innovations can be important for explaining the production process of these innovations, as well as their success or failures in the diffusion phase.

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2019), Innovation in Public Services in the Light of Public Administration Paradigms and Service Innovation Perspectives, XXIXth International RESER Conference, "Services and the future of the workforce", Ceuta, 12-14 September

Abstract: "Service Studies" and public management are two fields of research that have developed separately, although they share a common target (services delivery). This paper is an attempt to enhance the dialogue about service production and innovation among the paradigms of public administration (Traditional Public Administration, New Public Management and New Public Governance) and the analytical perspectives used in service studies (Assimilation to the goods logic, Demarcation and Integration).

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., (2019), Social innovation networks, co-creation and innovation dynamics: the case of civic service projects, XXIX International RESER Conference, "Services and the future of the workforce", September 12th-14th 2019, Ceuta, Spain.

Abstract: While innovation networks are the subject of numerous studies, little re-search has been carried out on social innovation networks. This article analyses social innovation networks related to civic service. A particular emphasis is placed on the role of civic service associations in these networks. The results indicate that civic service associations promote social innovation both through their efforts to influence politicians to change the law and through their ability to create and boost innovation networks through their partnerships. Public actors, associations and young volunteers are all involved in the production of innovation of these networks. The search for institutional proximity and organisational proximity by civic service local offices contributes to these innovation dynamics.

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., (2019), Social innovation networks, innovation processes and territorial dynamics, Research Centre of Economic Analysis and Public Policy Conference: *Innovation, Networks in regional development, The role of entrepreneurs, universities, municipalities and NGOs*, November 29-30th, Corvinus University, Budapest, Hungary.

Abstract: Social innovation networks are multi-agent collaborative networks that are increasingly recognized by public actors, especially in the "new public governance paradigm", as key players in social innovation in a context of increasing wicked problems. They bring into play a variable number

of associative, public and private agents in order to co-produce social innovation. This research explores to what extent these innovation networks co-produce organizational and methodological tools in order to increase the institutional and organizational proximity of actors of a territory. The success of these networks is based on the variety of actors and their mutual legitimacy in their field of competence. Among the new forms of public management, the help it happen process seems to be favoured to experiment projects in fields traditionally monitored by the government

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2021), Collaborating for social innovation in public services: inside the black box of public service innovation networks for social innovation (PSINSIs), 30th RESER International Congress. Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, January 21st-22nd, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain.

Abstract: This paper is given over to “Public Service Innovation Networks for Social Innovation” (PSINSIs), a multi-agent structural arrangement set up for the collaborative production of social innovation in public services. It begins by putting forward an analytical framework that makes it possible - from both the morphological and the functional points of view - to distinguish PSINSIs from other expressions of the innovation network concept. Then, using a rich set of empirical material collected within the Co-VAL European research project and consisting of 24 in-depth PSINSIs case studies undertaken in five European countries, it attempts to enter the black box of PSINSIs in order to better understand both the nature of social innovation at work and the modes of formation and functioning of these networks.

Key words: innovation networks, public services, social innovation

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2021), Which innovation regime for public service innovation networks for social innovation (PSINSIs)? lessons from a European cases database, 30th RESER International Congress. Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, January 21st-22nd, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain

Abstract: This article is devoted to collaborative systems that are being established, within public services, to design and implement social innovations. These systems, which we refer to by the acronym PSINSIs (for “public service innovation networks for social innovations”), reflect a dual process of servitization (the rise of services in the network) and de-marketization (the rise of the non-market dimension) of the traditional innovation network notion. Drawing on a database of 24 case studies collected in 5 European countries (France, Denmark, Hungary, Spain, Norway) and 5 areas of wicked social problems (elderly, education, minorities, long-term unemployment and environmental issues), this article aims to discuss how PSINSIs fit into the entrepreneurial and routine innovation and learning regimes described by evolutionary economics. Beyond these general categories, it highlights the diversity of the configurations of these regimes and their interactions.

Key words: innovation network, public service, social innovation, innovation regime

DESMARCHELIER B., DJELLAL F., GALLOUJ F. (2021), Characteristics of cities and social entrepreneurship, 30th RESER International Congress. Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, January 21st-22nd, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain.

Abstract: Entrepreneurship nurtures a virtuous circle with cities: on one hand, it fosters cities' employment (Audretsch et al., 2015), while on the other hand large urban areas generate externalities and opportunities for entrepreneurial activities (Bosma and Sternberg, 2014). It is thus not surprising that complex economic activities tend to concentrate themselves in large cities (Balland et al., 2020). Drivers of this virtuous circle are knowledge and resource spillovers, which can arise from either specialization or diversity – that is within-sector or cross-sectors externalities (Glaeser et al., 1992).

Our objective in this paper is to assess if these externalities also favor social entrepreneurship, which we define as the set-up of a company whose primary objective is to address social needs. In this perspective, we merge an exhaustive dataset of social companies in France with socio-economic variables covering more than 34,000 cities across the country.

This study will be useful for either confirming or putting into perspective the strand of literature that postulates fundamental differences between social and other forms of entrepreneurship (Moulaert and Mac Callum, 2019; Mulgan, 2006). Furthermore, significant externalities as explanatory variable for the emergence of social companies would suggest that, counter-intuitively, these firms are more likely to be created in favored economic areas instead than in the poorest places.

HANSEN, A.V. FUGLSANG, L., GALLOUJ, F. & SCUPOLA, A.(2021), Social Entrepreneurs as change makers: expanding public service innovation networks for social innovation, 30th RESER International Congress: Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, 21-22nd January, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain.

Abstract: Social innovation, in the context of public innovation, has gained increased attention in literature, and is either approached relative to the third sector, to social enterprises or as practices initiated by the public sector. But the interplay between these differing actors in enabling social innovation is still underexplored. Therefore, the article investigates the role of social entrepreneurs from outside the public sector as enabling public sector innovation networks. Since social innovation is inherently relational four cases of how social entrepreneurs have been able to push the boundaries of public sector services, and hence expand public innovation networks, are analyzed.

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., FUGLSANG L., MAGNUSSEN S., PERALTA A RØNNING R., SCUPOLA A (2021), “A European state-of-the-art of Public Service Innovation Network for Social innovation”, 30th RESER International Congress: Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, 21-22nd January, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain.

Abstract: In the field of collaborative governance, governments tend to increasingly involve various actors to innovate in meeting social needs in terms of public services. This paper analyzes the key dimensions related to this type of governance in the scientific and grey literature of several European

countries. Five research streams have been identified. One key dimension appears common to all countries: social entrepreneurship. Differences between countries are explained by the existence of different forms of welfare state.

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., FUGLSANG L., KATONA M., MAGNUSSEN S., PERALTA, A., REVESZ É, RØNNING R., ROSTA, A., SCUPOLA A., VORRE HANSEN A. (2021), “Public Service Innovation Network for Social Innovation: A European overview”, 30th RESER International Congress: Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, 21-22nd January, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain.

Abstract: In the context of the modernization of public management in Europe, the attention paid to social entrepreneurs for innovation is increasingly important. This paper reveals that these actors significantly contribute to the development of collaborative governance aimed at improving social innovation related to public service through their role as initiator, boundary spanner or network leader. However, the public sector actors involved in the governance also have a significant role to play in enabling these innovations to emerge. This paper analyzes the forms and processes of innovation taken by this multi-actors collaborative governance. It is based on the study of 25 case studies associated with five countries of the European Union.

MERLIN-BROGNIART C., KATONA M., LIEFOOGHE C., ROSTA, M. (2021), “The critical role of the State in the emergence and scaling-up process of social innovation networks”, 30th RESER International Congress: Value Co-creation and Innovation in the New Service Economy, 21-22nd January, Alcalá de Henares, Madrid, Spain.

Abstract: In the context of social innovation, collaborative governance and in particular innovation networks has gained importance. This paper focuses on the potential for scaling up according to the institutional arrangements and context of different countries. A grid for analyzing the degree of state control of citizens' and local initiatives is proposed in order to study the different forms and intensity of scaling up.

2.3. Other papers

MERLIN-BROGNIART, C., FUGLSANG, L., MAGNUSSEN, S., RØNNING, R., PERALTA, A., RÉVÉSZ, É., RUBALCABA, L., SCUPOLA, A., Social innovation and public service: a literature review of multi-actor collaborative approaches in five European countries

Abstract: In the field of collaborative governance, governments tend to increasingly involve or rely on various actors to innovate in meeting social needs in terms of public services. This paper identifies the major themes related to this type of collaborative governance by carrying out a conceptual analysis of the scientific and grey literature of five European countries. Depending on the country, different concepts are found in the field of co-creation and multi-actor collaboration about social innovation. One theme appears common to all countries: social entrepreneurship. The literature review reflects that governments consider social entrepreneurs as drivers of social innovation. The other themes (Public private partnership, collaboration with the civil society, co-creation- coproduction process,

territorial innovation), whose prevalence varies across countries, are explained by the existence of different forms of welfare state. The research provides a mapping of these major themes on social innovation. It discusses the specificities of collaborative governance by theme and highlights the impact that the history of the national welfare state has on social innovation initiatives and forms of collaborative governance.

MERLIN-BROGNIART, C., FUGLSANG, L., HANSEN A. V., KATONA, M. MAGNUSSEN, S., RØNNING, R., PERALTA, A., RÉVÉSZ, É., ROSTA, M., RUBALCABA, L., SCUPOLA, A., Social entrepreneurs in multi-actor innovation networks for public service: from initiators to boundary-spanners

Abstract: In the context of the modernization of public services in Europe, the attention paid to the role of social entrepreneurs for innovation is rising. However, research on the involvement of social entrepreneurs in multi-actor innovation networks is still understudied. This article is theoretically and empirically positioned in the field of social entrepreneurship. It is based on the analysis of the innovation processes of fifteen social innovation networks located in five European countries. The research reveals that social entrepreneurs significantly contribute to the development of social innovation networks focusing for public service. Social entrepreneurs can take the role of initiator, boundary-spanner or network leader. However, these collaborative innovation efforts are often strongly connected to the commitment and enabling role of the public actor.