Education & Inclusive Communities

Social innovation and higher education landscape in East Asia

Comparative study

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Foreword

I am delighted to present this comparative report which explores the intersection of higher education and social innovation in higher education institutions in East Asia. Developing high quality research and evidence is a key component of the British Council’s Social Innovation programme, which supports higher education institutions (HEIs) in their efforts to identify innovative solutions to the social problems faced by communities in East Asia and the UK. The programme aims to achieve this through brokering innovative partnerships between HEIs, NGOs, business, and governments.

HEIs play a critical role when it comes to finding responses to complex local and global problems, increasingly they are being forced to re-examine their traditional roles as centres of knowledge and learning and adapt to rapidly changing external circumstances. The global pandemic has further intensified the need for HEIs to reimagine their role in communities and to forge new and innovative collaborations and partnerships.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which have been agreed by all UN member states, highlights the urgency of the challenges that are faced. The report highlights how HEIs are collaborating with communities to directly contribute to the SDGs in areas such as health and well-being, quality education, decent work and skills and rising inequality. These trends are a positive sign and highlight the high levels of social innovation already happening in the region, but there is still much to be done.

It is our hope that this report, the findings and recommendations will provide the impetus for further collaboration to take place between HEIs and the social innovators who are at the forefront of delivering positive social change in communities across the region.

On behalf of the British Council I would like to thank the University of Northampton in the UK, BINUS University in Indonesia, the Centre for Social Enhancement Studies in South Korea, the Universiti Teknologi Petronas in Malaysia, the University of the Philippines and the University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam for collaborating with us on the study.

We hope that this research proves useful and that it can both help to guide the strategic direction of HEIs in promoting social innovation across East Asia, and address the shared challenges faced by communities in the UK and East Asia.

Andrew Pearlman, Director of Society East Asia
Acknowledgements

The Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape (SIHE) research team at the University of Northampton’s Institute for Social Innovation and Impact would like to thank the key stakeholders and partners that have made this report possible. First, to our local country research partner universities and research centres, whose support has been critical in co-designing the research, collecting and analysing the data, as well as working on the individual country reports. Without their support, this overall research report would not have been possible. Second, to the British Council, who have worked with us in a spirit of partnership on this project, and provided us with a critical friend and crucial peer-review during the research. Finally, the contributions of the research participants were vital to us in producing this report. The growth in the focus on social innovation and social entrepreneurship in higher education globally has been significant over the last decade, but there still remain significant gaps in our understanding of what research, teaching and community engagement activities universities are engaged in. This report seeks to fill some of these gaps from an Asian perspective, with particular focus on Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines and Vietnam. We hope that this report can also help share some of the fantastic work that is already being undertaken in East and South East Asia, by the scholars and other stakeholders who participated in the research.

Professor Richard Hazenberg, Director of the Institute for Social Innovation and Impact, University of Northampton, UK.
Executive summary

Overview

Social innovation has seen rapid growth in the last decade globally, with increasing numbers of social innovators developing new ideas, government policy to support social innovation emerging, and academics seeking to engage with the concept. Social innovation can be defined as ‘changes in the cultural, normative or regulative structures [or classes] of the society which enhance its collective power resources and improve its economic and social performance’ (Heiscala, 2007:59). Nevertheless, social innovations vary across regions, countries, and even within countries themselves (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Mulgan, 2006). When understanding social innovations role in a globalised world, it can be argued to be both a unifying global construct (Do and Fernandes, 2020), as well as being a form of resistance against globalisation (Roy and Hazenberg, 2019). Social innovation can be top-down or bottom-up; while neither approach is superior, research has identified that bottom-up social innovation tends to produce higher levels of more sustainable impact (Kruse et al., 2014). As social innovation is argued to need to pass the ‘power test’ in empowering communities, perhaps the success of bottom-up initiatives relates precisely to the empowerment that communities feel (Mulgan, 2019: 64).

In July 2019 the British Council commissioned the University of Northampton as the lead UK research team for the ‘Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape Survey’ (SIHE) to take place in Malaysia, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Vietnam. This project built upon the work that the University and the British Council had done through the ‘Building Research Innovation for Community Knowledge and Sustainability’ (BRICKS) project exploring social innovation and social entrepreneurship research and teaching in Hong Kong. Following on from this in August 2019, the University also agreed with the British Council to extend the Social Innovation and Social Enterprise Research and Teaching project to South Korea. The project involves the University of Northampton leading the overall research, while partnering with local research teams in each country. This partnership utilises a cooperative research approach that includes co-management, co-design, co-research and joint dissemination of the project, with the University of Northampton providing research training and mentoring (where required and appropriate), support with the fieldwork during the in-country visits, supervision on the data analysis and report writing, before synthesising all of the data into this overall report. The partner research teams in the project are listed below, and we wish to acknowledge their support, professionalism, dedication (and patience) in the production of this research, without which this report would not have been possible.

- BINUS University, Jakarta, Indonesia (https://binus.ac.id/)
- Center for Social value Enhancement Studies, Seoul, Korea (https://www.cses.re.kr/eng)
- Universiti Teknologi Petronas, Seri Iskandar, Malaysia (https://www.ute.my/Pages/Home.aspx)
The research employed a convergent parallel mixed-methods design (Cresswell, 2015) to map out the current social innovation and social entrepreneurship (from now on for ease this is referred to as social innovation) landscape in higher education institutions (HEIs) across the Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam. This allowed the simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data, utilising desk-based research (review of the academic/grey literature), an online survey, and semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions.

The online survey had a total of 253 respondents from higher education institutions across Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam. Purposive sampling was used in this study, so as to target academics in higher education institutions with existing curricula related to social innovation and higher education institutions with completed/ongoing research projects on social innovations/social entrepreneurship. A total of 76 interviews were conducted involving 78 participants, as well as 27 focus group discussions with 115 participants. Therefore, 193 stakeholders from the higher education ecosystems in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam were engaged in the qualitative phase of the research. These stakeholders included: 1) academics, 2) practitioners (social entrepreneurs, incubators, NGOs, investors/funders); 3) policymakers and government; and 4) students. The choice of interview and focus groups was made based upon stakeholder availability and type during the fieldwork and was made by the local research teams with guidance from the University of Northampton.

The quantitative data analysis was implemented on the data gathered through the online survey and mainly consisted of descriptive statistics analysis, as well as quantifying other research data (e.g. the publication lists). Additional analysis included analysis of variance (ANOVA), cross-tabulation and correlations. These analyses were implemented using Excel and SPSS. For the analysis of qualitative data ‘constant comparative method’ (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Lincoln and Guba, 1985) was applied, utilising the process of ‘immersion’, ‘categorisation’, ‘phenomenological reduction’, ‘triangulation’ and ‘interpretation’. The data from both the datasets were then triangulated together so as to develop a rich understanding of the social innovation ecosystems in each country (see Appendices A-C for a full methodological overview).

Findings

The findings of the research were explored at three levels: the practice level (micro); institutional level (meso); and systemic level (macro). This allows the data to be synthesised and for the research to then make recommendations for change across the three levels of the higher education ecosystem. The key findings to emerge are listed below:
Practice level

- Across social innovation research:
  - A total of 351 publications were identified across the five countries (262 academic publications and 89 non-academic publications).
  - There was a trend over time for increasing numbers of social innovation publications ($R^2 = 0.54$).\(^1\)
  - The majority of the research was empirical, qualitative/mixed-methods research.
  - There is a desire to see more research centred on:
    - business modelling
    - social innovation start-up ecosystems
    - social enterprise success factors
    - social impact measurement
    - social innovation policy implementation
    - case studies for teaching.
  - The barriers/problems with social innovation research included:
    - lack of funding with high-levels of self-funded research or research being conducted with no funding
    - research is too focused on theory with not enough practical relevance
    - lack of recognition of research that has high social impact, but is published in low impact factor journals.

- Across social innovation teaching:
  - A total of 311 modules/courses were identified.
  - There was a trend over time for increasing numbers of modules courses (overall $R^2 = 0.31$).
    - Korea ($R^2 = 0.49$) and Vietnam ($R^2 = 0.45$) had the highest rates of growth over time.
  - The vast majority of modules focused at the undergraduate level.
  - Social innovation teaching was seen as a critical element in student's development, as participants argued that it taught them:
    - communication skills
    - empathy

\(^1\) The highest rate of growth has been seen in South Korea ($R^2 = 0.91$) and Indonesia ($R^2 = 0.79$). The $R^2$ value is the correlation coefficient and relates to the relationship between two variables (here time and number of publications).
▪ problem-solving
▪ analytical thinking.

− The barriers/problems with social innovation teaching are:
  ▪ the quality of accredited curricula across the five countries was low
  ▪ social innovation modules/courses remain dominated by business schools
  ▪ the curriculum remains modular and embedded into wider degree programmes
  ▪ accreditation and quality-assurance processes are not aligned with social innovation principles.

• Across social innovation related community engagement:
  − There were 241 community engagements across the five countries.
  − These engagements involved academics as:
    ▪ board members
    ▪ volunteers
    ▪ officers.
  − Engagements were mainly with NGOs, schools and social enterprises.²
  − Engagement is ad-hoc and driven by individual academics rather than higher education institutions.

**Institutional level**

• With regards to academic collaborations:
  − There were 220 academic collaborations with external organisations:
    ▪ these involved NGOs in the main
    ▪ they were centred on research (especially around capacity-building)
    ▪ Teaching-based collaborations were focused on:
      • engaging invited speakers
      • utilisation of joint teaching
      • use of off-campus activities for students.
  − Inter-higher education institution collaborations were uncommon:
    ▪ specifically, they accounted for only 17.2% of academic collaborations.

² Albeit in South Korea public sector bodies also made up a significant proportion (32%) of collaborator organisations.
• For research funding:
  - There was a lack of funding for social innovation research from higher education institutions:
    ▪ only 13% of social innovation research funded by the academic’s own higher education institution.
    ▪ the self-funding of research accounted for 31.5% of all research funding.
    ▪ this lack of funding was partially due to a lack of awareness of social innovation amongst senior university leaders.
  
• With regards to the training of academic staff:
  - Training represents a critical element of social innovation ecosystem development.
  - Training should be focused on research and teaching:
    ▪ however, currently, the main focus is centred on teaching skills.

• Academic’s levels of trust were high, specifically:
  - they had high levels of trust in their own higher education institutions (median range = 7-9) (scale range 0-10).

Systemic level

• Social innovation definition remains a key issue:
  - This lack of definition is a perceived hindrance to gaining buy-in for social innovation research and teaching.

• Government support for social innovation varies across countries, with:
  - strong government and policy support in Korea
  - moderate government and policy support in Malaysia and Vietnam
  - limited government and policy support in Indonesia and the Philippines.

• Higher education institution performance frameworks can inhibit engagement with social innovation:
  - The focus on journal rankings and impact factors within government and higher education institutions, discourages academic engagement in socially impactful research.
  - There is a need for a greater focus on research impact, as seen in the UK Research Excellence Framework (REF).

• There is a need for greater multi-sector collaboration:
This includes increased engagement between higher education institutions and corporates.

Higher education institutions should target corporate social responsibility (CSR) schemes for support.

- Increased focus on the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is also required:
  - There is currently a split between developing countries (Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Vietnam) and developed countries (South Korea):
    - main focus in Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Vietnam on:
      - SDG 1: No Poverty
      - SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being
      - SDG 4: Quality Education
      - SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth.
    - main focus in Korea on:
      - SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities
      - SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being.

**Recommendations**

The following recommendations have been produced from the cross-country analysis carried out in this report. As with the discussion carried out above, the below nine recommendations are presented at the practice, institutional and systemic levels.

1. **Community engagement and embedded research/teaching (practice):** Ensuring that research and teaching is embedded within the community, with co-design and collaborative principles (i.e. co-researchers or student projects involving real-life community issues) are critical to the development of the social innovation ecosystem. Such learning was also highlighted as being the most impactful for students and their highest preference. In practice, this requires greater collaboration between universities and NGOs/social enterprises, to enable this type of learning to be realised. Higher Education Institutions could also build in more experiential learning (i.e. work placements) into their curricula. This also increases the linkages between higher education institutions and their communities, which enhances some of the other areas outlined below.

2. **Increasing social innovation teaching competency through capability-building (practice/institutional):** The need for high-quality, experiential teaching and learning experiences for students were clearly identified across the five country reports. Capability-building programmes are critical in providing this support, as well as ensuring
that academics are encouraged to engage in social innovation research and community engagement, and that they then use these to inform/support their teaching.

3. **National/global higher education institution partnerships and benchmarking (practice/institutional):** Inter-higher education institution partnerships between universities within the same country, but also globally, enhance higher education institution impact by ensuring that best-practice around social innovation is shared. It also allows for comparisons and benchmarking of performance between similar higher education institutions to highlight areas of institutional strength/weakness that can inform future development. Such partnerships also enhance opportunities for staff/student exchanges. Further, higher education institutions could commit to working towards submissions to the Times Higher Education Impact Rankings, which focus on higher education institution work around a minimum of four SDGs (including SDG 17: Partnership for Achieving the Goals).³

4. **Higher education institution strategic engagement and career tracks (institutional):** Social innovation education and awareness-raising also need to be carried out with senior university leaders/management. This is critical so as to ensure that future embedding of social innovation principles and activities are carried out from an informed position and with the strategic support that is crucial to success. Academic career tracks that also reward research and teaching-led social impact will both encourage greater academic engagement with social innovation, whilst ensuring that the leaders of tomorrow also increasingly emerge from social innovation backgrounds.

5. **Embedding of social innovation across all academic disciplines (institutional/systemic):** Government policy and higher education institution leadership can encourage the embedding of social innovation principles within all degree programmes (existing and new), both with regard to social innovation focused degree programmes, but also elective/compulsory modules focused on social innovation (at least in part) embedded into wider curricula. Recognition of social innovation course content within curricula accreditation and quality assurance frameworks would also enhance the teaching of social innovation.

6. **Funding for social innovation research and teaching (institutional/systemic):** There is a need for additional funding from both within higher education institutions and also from national funding bodies/government to support social innovation research and teaching. Currently, a significant amount of research is unfunded/self-funded, while a lack of funding to develop new courses stymies the growth of social innovation modules and degree programmes.

7. **Cross-sector partnerships (institutional/systemic):** Universities could benefit from engaging in more cross-sector partnerships with private (especially corporates), public (government agencies and public service deliverers) and third (NGOs, charities and social enterprises) sectors. Government policy/funding can support this multi-stakeholder

working, whilst an enhanced focus on incubators within higher education institutions can help to start-up and scale social enterprises.

8. **Impact focused performance management for higher education (systemic):** University systems across the five countries should focus more on social impact and social value creation in their performance management and quality assurance frameworks. For research, this could include assessments of research excellence utilising minimum weightings for university scores (as is seen in the UK Research Excellence Framework (REF) and Hong Kong’s Research Assessment Exercise (RAE)). For teaching, it could involve ensuring that programme accreditation procedures and performance evaluation seek to understand impact and align with the SDGs and can contribute towards a higher education institution’s potential submission to the Times Higher Education Impact Rankings as outlined earlier. Engagement in these types of ranking platforms would encourage greater social responsibility and engagement within social innovation ecosystems.

9. **Common definitional understanding of social innovation across higher education (systemic):** While definitions of social innovation remain difficult subjects even in academia focused on the subject, there is a need within higher education ecosystems to define what constitutes social innovation (both social enterprise and social entrepreneurship). This will enable government policy, higher education institution strategic decisions and academics working on the ground to ensure that they are working towards common objectives based on uniform understanding across the ecosystem. This definition does not have to be top-down, but can be led by higher education institutions, communities and NGOs, and should be combined with awareness-raising on social innovation and related concepts.

**Further research opportunities**

The following areas for further research have been produced from the cross-country analysis carried out in this report. These represent generalised areas for further research that can be carried out across the South East and East Asian regions.

1. **Definitions:** Research should seek to define what social innovation constitutes in each country, and indeed see if conceptualisations of social innovation differ within each country in different regional areas. Ensuring that such definitional work also recognises the different types of social innovation that can emerge within an ecosystem typology at different levels would also support this understanding development.

2. **Personal agency:** What motivates individuals to engage in social innovation and what personal attributes lead to the most successful social innovation projects. Specific focus here on:
   - academics across different disciplines
   - the role of gender
youth engagement.

3. **Social impact:** What is the social impact of social innovation initiatives in higher education institutions (and in wider society)? Specific focus here on:

- social value as a key aspect in evaluating academic funding streams and programmes
- empowering communities and reducing disadvantage
- impact on students’ post-graduation of engaging with social innovation during their studies
- indirect impact of government policy and funding initiatives
- value generated through corporate social responsibility (CSR) and corporate partnerships. Specifically, these include:
  - corporate partnerships that seek to leverage research and development resources towards socially innovative/impactful research and projects
  - corporate social responsibility funds utilised to support social innovations, with corporates using their financial and human resources to deliver social impact.

4. **Incubation, sustainability and scaling:** What are the support needs of social innovators (with the most prominent of these being social enterprises) and other socially innovative organisations and how can they be helped to start-up, scale and remain sustainable entities (economically and socially)? Specific focus here on:

- needs assessments for social enterprises (and socially innovative organisations)
- university incubator efficacy for social enterprises (and socially innovative organisations).

5. **Normalising social innovation:** How can the concepts of social innovation be normalised in wider society and awareness raised of what they are and how they can deliver social impact? Specifically,

- how can social innovation be used to promote social justice?
- how can social innovation be utilised in peace-building initiatives, particularly in areas of substantial conflict?

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4 For more information on social value see [Social Value International](#). This focus on social value and impact could also include approaches to monetise impacts, so as to demonstrate the fiscal benefit delivered by higher education institutions through their social innovation work.
1 Literature review

1.1 Overview

Globally the social innovation ecosystem is rapidly growing, both in terms of scholarly interest in it, but also practitioner work and policy/government focus. Social innovation can be defined as ‘changes in the cultural, normative or regulative structures [or classes] of the society which enhance its collective power resources and improve its economic and social performance’ (Heiscala, 2007:59). The focus on empowerment in social innovation must not be overlooked, as if communities are not empowered through social innovations, and do not recognise that they are empowered, then social innovation can be argued to have failed the ‘power test’ (Mulgan, 2019:64). However, whilst its emergence and spread has been global, it is also important to note that social innovations vary in form across different regional and national contexts (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Mulgan, 2006). Further, social innovation can take many forms and be led by numerous types of organisation/stakeholder including civil society, government, NGOs, private sector stakeholders and universities (Murray, Caulier-Grice and Mulgan, 2010). In recognising the global emergence of social innovation, the dualities of the construct and the tensions that these produce should not be overlooked (and indeed are pertinent throughout this report).

Social innovation has been argued to be both a unifying global construct based upon supra-national social norms (Do and Fernandes, 2020), as well as being a reaction and resistance against globalisation initiated by local communities that feel disempowered/disenfranchised by global systems (Roy and Hazenberg, 2019). Social innovation can also be driven (or hindered) by top-down ecosystem factors such as government policy, or led by bottom-up initiatives including community empowerment. Whilst neither approach is necessarily wrong, research has identified that bottom-up social innovation tends to produce higher levels of more sustainable impact (Kruse et al., 2014). The focus globally on the United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) has also focused attention further on social innovation, as new approach to meeting some of the SDG 2030 targets. Indeed, social innovation activities globally can be categorised into two main areas based upon an ecosystem’s economic development, with a focus in developed countries on SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being, SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities and SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities; while in developing countries the focus is instead on SDG 1: No Poverty, SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being, and SDG 4: Quality Education, and SDG8: Decent Work and Economic Growth (Eichler and Schwarz, 2019).

Social innovation ecosystems in South East and East Asia are at a nascent state of development, in that the wider directed support structures seen in western countries (specifically government funding and policy, well-developed social investment markets, and civil society awareness) are not well-developed. This is not to say that social innovation does not occur across South East and East Asia, merely that its development is more organic than seen elsewhere (perhaps with the exception of South Korea). Across Asia the most prominent form of social innovation is social entrepreneurship and the social enterprises that they create.
(Sengupta and Sahay, 2017). Zahra et al. (2009:519) state that social entrepreneurship ‘…encompasses the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organisations in an innovative manner’, while social enterprises can be viewed as independent, self-sustainable entities that deliver social and environmental (i.e. non-economic) outcomes (Dart, Clow and Armstrong, 2010), utilising market-based approaches to reduce social inequality and improve social mobility through access to opportunities (Nicholls, 2007). Throughout this report for simplicity the term social innovation will generally be used (as this can also encompass social entrepreneurship and social enterprise) however, when these latter two concepts are being specifically referred to, they will be used as appropriate, so as to allow for differentiation in the social innovation activities being undertaken.

This report centres upon social innovation in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam and as a consequence this review will focus on social innovation in these five countries. The purpose of this review is to provide a brief overview to these contexts, but in-depth reviews for each country can be found in the local country reports produced by the local academic teams engaged in the ‘Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape (SIHE)’ project. Below in Table 1.1 the socio-economic factors facing each country are detailed, demonstrating the significant differences between the five countries involved in this report, with respect to population, life expectancy, poverty rates, GINI index\(^5\) and the Human Capital Index\(^6\).

### Table 1.1: SIHE country overviews\(^7\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population (millions)</th>
<th>Life expectancy (years)</th>
<th>Poverty rate</th>
<th>GINI (0-100)</th>
<th>Human Capital Index (0-1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>75.8</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>266.7</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>106.7</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>N/K</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite these differences, the five countries represent interesting case-studies in their own right for exploring social innovation ecosystems, especially in relation to higher education, but also as comparators. With regards to the latter, this is because the differences allow us to better understand the barriers/enablers to social innovation in higher education that are common across countries, as well as those that are unique to different types of higher education ecosystem. Indeed, for Vietnam the country represents a transitioning economy and one-party socialist state that has experienced rapid economic growth and poverty reduction (Gabriele, 2016). While it can be easy to overplay the socialist nature of Vietnam’s economy, as Gabriele (2016) notes its socialist identity is far from clear-cut, this nevertheless affects the development

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\(^5\) The GINI index represents a measure of income inequality ranging from 0 (equality) to 1 (inequality), hence a lower score indicates less inequality. See [https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI](https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI).

\(^6\) The Human Capital Index is a measure for assessing how well a country mobilises the economic and professional competencies of its citizens. The scale ranges from 0-1 with a higher score indicating better potential actualisation. See [https://datacatalog.worldbank.org/dataset/human-capital-index](https://datacatalog.worldbank.org/dataset/human-capital-index).

\(^7\) All data in the table obtained from the World Bank (see reference section for full list of World Bank sources).
of the social innovation ecosystems through the concentration of political power, which can be both a positive and a negative factor.

This review explores for these five countries the social innovation education and training available within the higher education sectors in each country. The review is not meant to be exhaustive of the literature (academic and grey) focused on social innovation in higher education in Asia, as this is the purpose of the overall ‘Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape (SIHE)’ project (see each country report for detailed lists of all of the literature identified in each country for social innovation); rather, this review acts to present an overview of the relevant academic and grey literature in existence so as to frame the findings and discussion reported in this report.

1.2 Social innovation and social enterprise in higher education

There is a considerable body of academic and grey literature exploring the role of the higher education sector globally in driving social innovation and especially in developing the social enterprise field. Indeed, data reveals that 98% of higher education institutions have engaged with social innovation at some point (British Council, 2016). Much of this engagement it must be acknowledged, has occurred through small pockets of work within higher education institutions or singular engagements, as opposed to institution-wide commitments to social innovation witnessed in some universities, most notably Ashoka U Changemaker campuses. While these institutional-wide commitments to social innovation are not suitable for every university, where they do exist they should take the form of holistic strategies, with a focus on social innovation in research, teaching, community engagement and operational functions (i.e. procurement). Specifically, creating centres of research excellence focused on social innovation; developing curricula and pedagogical practices that allow for place-based and experiential learning (including networks between higher education institutions and communities) are critical (Alden-Rivers et al., 2015); and ensuring that the university becomes a central hub for the community and local area.

Such developments can take time and can be difficult to implement, with resistance from staff (academic and non-academic), a lack of interest from parts of the student body and a lack of recognition of such work in traditional higher education institution rankings being an issue. Nevertheless, changes globally and within national higher education frameworks are beginning to change this. The focus on the UN’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) globally and the need for countries to implement strategies to achieve the metrics outlined across the 17 SDGs (UN, 2020) presents opportunities for universities. Further, the introduction of new ranking systems such as the Times Higher Education (THE) Impact Rankings, which focus on the impact of higher education institution research and activities in relation to the SDGs also allows

8 See: https://ashokau.org/.
9 By operational functions we are referring to the wider work and functions of universities outside of research and teaching, as higher education institutions are key economic actors in their local areas.
for recognition of social innovation work. At national levels, the introduction of national research excellence frameworks that also recognise the impact delivered by research are also gaining traction, with the Research Excellence Framework (REF) 2021 in the UK and the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) 2020 in Hong Kong weighting research impact as 25 per cent and 15 per cent of a university’s overall score respectively (Research England, 2020; University Grants Committee, 2020). These trends demonstrate a shift in how impact and hence social innovation activities are recognised in higher education, and provide an underpinning for the exploration of SDG alignment within this study. The rest of this section will briefly explore social innovation in higher education in each of the five countries, but full overviews can be found in the local country reports.

In Indonesia, there is a burgeoning but small research focus on social innovation, especially given the size of the country as outlined in Table 1.1. Sengupta et al. (2018) identified 122 research publications focused on social enterprise/social entrepreneurship in the Indonesian context, while our research (as outlined later in Section Three and also in the local country report) has identified a total of 89 publications. With regards to the teaching of social innovation in Indonesia, Zainal et al. (2017) argues that it is the methods utilised to teach students that underpin the success or otherwise of social enterprise/social entrepreneurship education, especially in relation to how moral and business ethics and values are embedded into the curricula. Indeed, research identified that experiential problem-solving was key to creating new social venture creators, with Indonesian universities needing to incubate a social entrepreneurial spirit, develop student’s social entrepreneurial self-efficacy and deliver social value in their communities (Lacap, Mulyaningsih and Ramadani, 2018). The research reported in this paper identifies only 15 social innovation courses currently operating in Indonesian higher education institutions. Which again represents a low return considering the size of the higher education sector, demonstrating the distance yet to be travelled in the country on teaching social innovation. Finally, universities can also lead social innovation initiatives, such as the Universitas Ciputra Surabaya’s ‘River Clinic’, which seeks to protect the water supply of Surabaya (Rani and Teguh, 2016).

In the Philippines context, social innovation within higher education also remains underdeveloped, with limited research (this report identifies 50 publications) exploring social innovation. However, there is a more developed focus on social innovation teaching than seen in Indonesia, with 73 individual modules/courses on social innovation present within Filipino higher education institutions. University engagement is also growing in this area, with a British Council (2017) report titled ‘Reaching the farthest first: the state of social enterprise in the Philippines’ identifying ten higher education institutions/institutes that are actively engaging in social enterprise activities. The report also identified the role of other global NGOs in facilitating this, namely the British Council and Ashoka, as well as the role of some national NGOs also (ibid). This report also identifies a significant number of community engagement roles held by

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12 See: https://www.ref.ac.uk/.
14 This report was partially funded by the European Union.
Filipino academics (62 in total), demonstrating the important role that scholars play at the practice-level. Therefore, this makes research that seeks to understand the role of academics and research council networks in coordinating and promoting social innovation critical (Ng et al., 2016). Nevertheless, while this report is focused on higher education, prior research has also identified the need to expand social innovation education at the secondary and tertiary levels, as access to higher education is not equitable and greater understanding at lower educational levels will drive interest in higher education (British Council, 2015).

In Malaysia, social innovation research is relatively new (British Council Malaysia et al., 2018), with topics of focus including social enterprise and social entrepreneurship and: poverty alleviation; role of higher education institutions; and social innovation. The mapping in this study has revealed 55 publications focused on social innovation in the Malaysian context, as well as 64 modules/courses on social innovation being taught within Malaysian higher education institutions and 47 community engagement activities. With respect to teaching and student engagement, prior research has noted the high level of socially entrepreneurial activities amongst Malaysian students (Rahman et al., 2016). Further, student interest is mediated by factors including: use of role models; outdoor activities; and career options (Wahid et al., 2019). Higher education institutions are viewed as key institutional enablers of student social enterprises, with the personal characteristics required to develop social enterprises enhanced through education (Othman and Wahid, 2014). Malaysian higher education institutions can therefore play a key role in developing knowledge on social innovation, delivering community-based and practice-based social innovation education and by ensuring community engagement networks in their operations. This would complement the already well-developed social innovation education that is occurring through NGOs such as ENACTUS (ENACTUS Malaysia, 2019), MaGIC (2018; 2019) and other youth development/education initiatives.

In Vietnam, the social innovation ecosystem in higher education is nascent, but has been developing quickly, supported by organisations such as British Council and Centre for Social Initiatives Promotion (CSIP) as discussed earlier. Despite the relatively new conceptions of social innovation in Vietnamese higher education institutions, there is already a significant amount of research that has been developed, with a total of 148 publications when including academic and non-academic outputs. Further, this research project has identified 77 individual modules/courses focused on social innovation being delivered in Vietnamese higher education institutions. The development of this academic curriculum, especially around social enterprise, and its success is contingent on the teaching skills of the lecturers (Le, 2014), hence the Training of the Trainers modules run by the British Council to upskills university teachers. However, there remains a need within Vietnamese higher education to engage in more innovative and practice-based teaching methods, including such elements as producing business plans, practical learning within social enterprises and producing funding bids (Le, 2014). The current research also identified 42 community engagement activities being undertaken by academics, another area that is critical in support social innovation more widely, and engaging corporates to leverage in corporate social responsibility (CSR) opportunities (Tran and Doan, 2015). Nevertheless, Vietnam represents an interesting example of a higher education sector that is rapidly scaling its social innovation activities, led by research, albeit in a
way that tends to focus on specific centres of excellence in higher education institutions rather
than wider focus on social innovation across institutions.

Finally, South Korea has perhaps the most developed social innovation ecosystem in higher
education, in line with its more developed socio-economic status and social innovation
ecosystem in general (albeit it must be noted that the majority of the focus is on social
enterprise). From a research perspective there is significant academic focus on definitions of
social enterprise and building culturally relevant models for the Korean context (Bidet, Eum and
Ryu, 2018; Defourny and Kim, 2011; Hwang et al., 2017), as well as the role of policy and
government in building the social innovation ecosystem (Park and Wilding, 2013; Jung, Jang
and Seo, 2015; Jeong, 2015; Lee, 2015). There is also significant research that explores the
role of HEIs in supporting the social innovation ecosystem (Choi and Jang, 2018; Lee and Kim,
2018). The current research has identified a total of 70 publications related to social innovation,
demonstrating a good breadth of research, especially when English language international
publications are examined (see the local country report for a full list of publications). With
regards to teaching, the current research has identified 40 individual modules/courses focused
on social innovation in higher education, while academics reported being engaged in 24
community engagement roles. A number of higher education institutions deliver social
innovation courses at both the undergraduate and post-graduate levels, while CSR also plays a
significant role in supporting social innovation. Table 1.2 below summarises the activity around
social innovation research, teaching and community engagement presented in this section.

Table 1.2: Country higher education ecosystems for social innovation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Publications</th>
<th>Modules/courses</th>
<th>Community engagement</th>
<th>Key features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>• Moderate government support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Strong research &amp; curricula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Moderate international collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Poor CSR engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>• Moderate government support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Moderate research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Strong curricula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Moderate international collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Moderate CSR engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>• Low-levels of government support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Moderate research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Poor curricula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Poor international collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Strong CSR engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>• Low-levels of government support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Poor research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3 Summary

This section has sought to set the scene for the research reported in this paper, and to lay the theoretical foundations for the research aims and questions developed and reported in Section Two. The review has identified the diversity in socio-economic, historical and cultural conditions across the five countries, with South Korea being a highly developed economy and having a highly developed social innovation ecosystem. Conversely, the Philippines has high levels of poverty, and a social innovation ecosystem that is in a nascent state of development and reliant on international NGOs. The economies and social innovation ecosystems of the other three countries within this research (Vietnam, Indonesia and Malaysia) lie somewhere between the Philippines and South Korea in terms of their development and complexity. This is critical in relation to social innovation, as both constructs are culturally embedded and relativistic, meaning that conceptions and needs will differ across the different ecosystems. The local country reports provide in-depth reviews of each country’s context, whilst the reports also detail each country’s data from the current research in-depth. This report is concerned with synthesising the data from these five research projects into a comparative overall research paper, focused on social innovation in higher education across South East and East Asia.
2 Research aims

The research will provide a comprehensive analysis of existing social innovation activities in research, teaching and incubation/community engagement. Specifically, the research will:

- analyse gaps in knowledge, capacity and future ambition of the academic community in this area
- measure proxies to gauge the levels of trust and collaboration that currently exist across academic disciplines, between universities and between universities and society
- identify the barriers to social innovation activities in research, teaching and incubation/community engagement in relation to:
  - funding
  - policy
  - networks/collaboration
  - skills development
  - scale projects (number and impact)
- understand the key social challenges facing each of the five countries and how can these be addressed by social innovation.

The research adopted a mixed-methods approach (online survey\textsuperscript{15} and semi-structured interviews and focus groups\textsuperscript{16}) to answer these research questions (see Appendix A for a full methodological breakdown). The results of the analysis of these datasets is presented in Sections Three and Four, with the discussion of the findings (triangulation) presented in Section Five. Recommendations emerging from this analysis and areas of further research are then presented in Sections Six and Seven.

\textsuperscript{15} See Appendix C.
\textsuperscript{16} See Appendix B.
3 Quantitative results

3.1 Respondent demographics

The quantitative data collection was implemented through an online survey and a paper version of the questionnaire from October to December 2019. The questionnaire was distributed in each country by the research teams and the British Council to academics engaged in the field of social innovation. The main form of distribution consisted of a link circulated through emails inviting the main academics in each country to complete the survey, whilst several reminders were sent during the period of data collection. Alongside this, a snowball sampling frame was implemented, with the academics invited to participate being asked to distribute the link to any other academics relevant for the research. In total, 253 responses were collected: 55 in Indonesia, 50 in Malaysia, 46 in the Philippines, 46 in South Korea, and 56 in Vietnam. The questionnaire focused on several areas with a specific interest towards social innovation, in particular: the demographic characteristics and the affiliation information of the respondents, their academic publications (including book chapters, academic journals, reports) and non-academic publications (newspapers, radio programmes and think tank reports among others), teaching activities, students’ experiences, community service roles and informal collaborations within society, government support, formal collaborations, levels of trust towards several institutions, challenges in promoting social innovation and social enterprises in research and teaching, and the problems and barriers in addressing social problems. A full methodological overview is provided in Appendix A and a copy of the survey can be found at Appendix C. The following sections present the findings from each area of the questionnaire by comparing the results from all countries and highlighting the interesting information that emerged.

The age of the respondents was distributed between 24 years old and 70 years old. The youngest respondents belonged to Vietnam (mean of 34.9), while the oldest belonged to the Philippines (mean of 46.8). Table 3.1 presents the results for all countries.

Table 3.1: Distribution of the respondents’ age by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>South Korea</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>43.18</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data was collected on a voluntary basis and the results are presented in an anonymised format to ensure compliance with ethics. Since the responses were provided on a voluntary basis, each section might present discrepancies between the overall number of questionnaires collected and the number of responses provided to the questions. Whenever the partners provided this information, these discrepancies will be reported.
The majority of the respondents to the survey were female (55 per cent). This pattern is respected by all countries except for Vietnam, in which the majority were male (54 per cent) (Table 3.2).

**Table 3.2: Distribution of the respondents’ gender by country**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>South Korea</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey investigated respondents’ main field of academic expertise. The below Figures (from 3.1 to 3.5) show the respondents’ distributions of their academic focus. Understandably, most of the respondents identified business as the main field of academic expertise, in decreasing order, 50 per cent for Malaysia, 47 per cent for South Korea, 39 per cent for Indonesia, 43 per cent for Vietnam, and 33 percent for the Philippines. This follows a global pattern in which scholarly engagement with social innovation usually occurs in business schools and is focused on social entrepreneurship and social enterprise. It also offers some explanation as to why inter-disciplinary collaboration around key social problems does not occur at systemic levels. Interestingly, 14 per cent of the respondents in Malaysia and 13 per cent in Indonesia selected Arts and Humanities as their main field of expertise. In South Korea, 33 per cent of the respondents allocated themselves under sociology. In the Philippines, the second biggest category after business was social science (17 per cent), while in Vietnam the second most frequent fields of expertise were economics, engineering, and education (all 12 per cent).

**Figure 3.1: Main field of academic expertise in Indonesia**

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18 Although a list of academic fields was provided to the respondents (arts and humanities, business, engineering, geography, health, history, law, medicine, natural sciences, politics, sociology, education, and economics), there was also the possibility to identify additional fields. This produced interesting dissimilarity among the data collected.

19 For the full list of areas of expertise, please consult the country reports.
Figure 3.2: Main field of academic expertise in Malaysia

Figure 3.3: Main field of academic expertise in the Philippines

Figure 3.4: Main field of academic expertise in South Korea
It is clear that in all countries most of the respondents were from ‘research and teaching’ tracks (Figures 3.6 to 3.10), with this track constituting 84 per cent of respondents in Indonesia, 80 per cent in Malaysia, 74 per cent in the Philippines, 73 per cent in Vietnam, and 66 per cent in South Korea. Interestingly, South Korea is the only country in which there was a significant proportion of respondents that belonged to a research track only (30 per cent). This could highlight that there is less incentive to engage in research-only careers in developing countries in South East Asia, as international funding (particularly Overseas Development Aid funding) tends to focus on projects that are practical and directly impactful, rather than being about building knowledge.

Figure 3.5: Main field of academic expertise in Vietnam
Most of the respondents had worked in the field of social innovation for between one and five years (Figure 3.11). For Malaysia and Indonesia, this represents approximately half of the respondents (respectively 56 per cent and 49 per cent). Instead, in the other countries, the responses were more evenly distributed. For the Philippines, 48 per cent of the respondents had worked in social innovation for more than five years. In Vietnam, almost all respondents
had either worked in this field between one and five years (43 per cent) or less than a year (36 per cent). South Korea was the only other country aside from the Philippines where the respondents had worked in the field for longer, with 39 per cent of the respondents having worked in social innovation for more than five years.

**Figure 3.11: Length of the career in social innovation**

The distribution of respondent’s academic position also provides interesting dissimilarities among the countries (Figures 3.12 to 3.16). In Malaysia, Vietnam, and Indonesia most of the respondents were lecturers or senior lecturers (respectively 30 per cent, 47 per cent, and 71 per cent jointly); while in the Philippines 39 per cent of respondents were in senior positions (associate professor/professor/dean/rector) and in South Korea 38 per cent of respondents were researchers or senior researchers.

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20 Although a list of academic roles was provided to the respondents (researcher/senior researcher, lecturer/senior lecturer, associate professor/assistant professor, incubation centre director/manager, professor, instructor/trainer, department chair, programme director, dean/faculty director, rector/vice chancellor/president), it was also given the possibility to identify additional ones to represent dissimilarities among the countries and the higher education system. Moreover, the Indonesian survey contained a slight different list with researcher and senior researcher in two different categories and lecturer senior lecturer in two different categories. This produced interesting dissimilarity among the data collected.
Figure 3.12: Distribution of the academic roles in Indonesia

Figure 3.13: Distribution of the academic roles in Malaysia

Figure 3.14: Distribution of the academic roles in the Philippines
In summary, 55 per cent of the respondents were female, aged between 41-47 years, with a field of expertise was business, they worked in ‘research and teaching’ tracks, and most had worked in the field of social innovation between one and five years. In Malaysia, Vietnam, and Indonesia most of the respondents were lecturers/senior lecturers, in the Philippines associate professors/assistant professors, and in Korea researchers/senior researchers.
3.2 Academic publications

The survey investigated respondent’s academic publications in the field of social innovation by giving them the possibility to report up to five academic publications\(^{21}\). In total, data on 262 academic publications were collected, Table 3.3 below report the breakdown by country.

Table 3.3: Distribution of academic publication by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>262</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All trendlines show an increasing number of academic publications (from Figure 3.17 to 3.21\(^{22}\)). For all countries the annual number of publications increased over time (despite a few annual drops), especially for Indonesia and South Korea (each with a high R-square value of 0.7 and 0.9)\(^{23}\). Moreover, it is interesting to notice that most of the publications in each country began to emerge in 2009/2010.

Figure 3.17: Trend of the number of academic publications in Indonesia

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\(^{21}\) For the full list of academic publications, please refer to the local country reports.

\(^{22}\) The figures include the R-squared value (range -1 to +1), which indicates how much the variation of a variable (in this case the number of publications) is explained by another variable (in this case time). In Figure 3.17 we can see for example that 78.8 per cent of the variation is due to time.

\(^{23}\) When discussing the R-square values, we focus on two key areas. First, the positive/negative nature of the relationship i.e. here, does the number of academic publications increase/decrease over time. Second, the strength of the relationship between the two variables i.e. the higher the figure (closer to 1 or -1) the stronger the positive/negative relationship.
Figure 3.18: Trend of the number of academic publications in the Philippines

Figure 3.19: Trend of the number of academic publications in Malaysia

Figure 3.20: Trend of the number of academic publications in South Korea

Figure 3.21: Trend of the number of academic publications in Vietnam
In addition, the majority of the publications collected were empirical. This is true especially for the Philippines (90 per cent) and Indonesia (73 per cent). The other three countries had a less substantial gap between empirical and theoretical papers (Figure 3.22).

**Figure 3.22: Distribution of the type of publication for each country**

![Distribution of the type of publication for each country](image)

The trends displayed from Figure 3.23 to Figure 3.27 highlight how a substantial proportion, if not the majority, of the academic papers were based on a qualitative approach. For example, 46 per cent of the Vietnamese papers were qualitative, 39 per cent were mixed methods and 21 per cent were quantitative. Again, the Filipino respondents identified a significant proportion of their papers as qualitative (47 per cent), followed by mixed methods (41 per cent) and quantitative (12 per cent). Conversely, where quantitative papers predominated (Malaysia and South Korea) this was followed again by still high numbers of qualitative papers. For example, 45 per cent of the Malaysian papers were quantitative, 42 per cent were qualitative and 13 per cent were mixed methods. Again, 37 per cent of the South Korean papers were quantitative, 36 per cent were qualitative and 27 per cent were mixed methods.
Figures 3.23 to 3.27: Distribution research method developed for the academic publication in (3.23) Indonesia; (3.24) Malaysia; (3.25) Philippines; (3.26) South Korea; and (3.27) Vietnam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Mixed Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(3.23) Indonesia</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3.24) Malaysia</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3.25) Philippines</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3.26) South Korea</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3.27) Vietnam</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The distribution of the funds varied between countries\textsuperscript{24}. In some countries, research grants, higher education institution own funds, and/or self-funded\textsuperscript{25} provided the biggest sources of funding. This was the case for Indonesia, Malaysia, and the Philippines. In Indonesia, the higher education institution own funds and self-funding comprised more than half of the total funding (33 per cent and 30 per cent respectively) (Figure 3.28). In the Philippines, the distribution was similar, with 42 per cent of the total papers either self-funded or higher education institution funded (21 per cent each), albeit with 42 per cent of funds coming from research grants. Similarly, in Malaysia, 34 per cent of the papers were based on research grants and 31 per cent were self-funded. This pattern was not displayed in Vietnam, where the majority of research was self-funded (66 per cent), or in South Korea, where most were not funded (30 per cent). An interesting aspect relates to government funding, as while existing in all countries, this was always at a medium/low level, with the Philippines being the lowest (8 per cent) and South Korea being the highest (24 per cent).

Figures 3.28 to 3.32: Distribution of the types of funds in (3.28) Indonesia; (3.29) Malaysia; (3.30) the Philippines; (3.31) South Korea; and (3.32) Vietnam

\textsuperscript{24} For all the fund-related questions in the survey, all countries except for Indonesia gave the respondents the possibility to select up to two funds.

\textsuperscript{25} This means that the academic funded the research themselves through their own personal resources.
Figure 3.33 shows the distributions of the funding over time. Interestingly, the academic sources of funding through research grants emerged very recently, even within a context where any types of social innovation funding only began to emerge from 2010 onwards. A comparison can be made here with western countries where academic recognition of social innovation (in the form of non-profit organisations began in the 1970’s), with funding for social enterprise research in the UK appearing in the late 1990’s and early 2000’s.

**Figure 3.33: Longitudinal distribution of the types of funds in Indonesia**

**Figure 3.34: Longitudinal distribution of the types of funds in Malaysia**
Overall, the data has revealed that there were 262 academic publications produced across the five countries in the last decade, and the density of these publications increased during this time. These were empirical and mainly qualitative based approaches (either purely qualitative or mixed methods), while the distribution of funding varied between countries and increased over time. Indeed, overall research grants, higher education institution own funds, and/or self-funded research accounted for the biggest proportions. Interestingly, government funding existed in all countries, but always at a small/medium level.
3.3 Non-academic publications/outputs

A total of 89 non-academic publications were provided by the respondents (up to three non-academic publications were collected per participant). South Korea was the country where academics produced more non-academic publications (26 per cent), however, the gap with the other countries was low (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Distribution of non-academic publications by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The annual numbers of non-academic publications in the social innovation field has grown over the last decade across all five countries (Figures 3.38 to 3.42), especially South Korea (R-square of 0.7) and Vietnam (R-square of 0.6). Also in Malaysia, an increasing trend was observed, albeit this growth has reduced in the last two years. On the contrary, Indonesia and the Philippines experienced small decreases over the last few years, however, the Filipino non-academic publications did start to grow again from 2017 onwards.

Figure 3.38: Longitudinal distribution of non-academic publications in Indonesia

Figure 3.39: Longitudinal distribution of non-academic publications in Malaysia

For the full list of non-academic publications, please consult the local country reports.
Figure 3.40: Longitudinal distribution of non-academic publications in the Philippines

Figure 3.41: Longitudinal distribution of non-academic publications in South Korea

Figure 3.42: Longitudinal distribution of non-academic publications in Vietnam

At least 20 per cent of the non-academic publication in all countries were reports (see Figures 3.43 to 3.47), with Indonesia being the country with the lower (21 per cent) and Malaysia the higher (31 per cent) proportions. Moreover, in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Vietnam a big proportion of non-academic publications was online media based resources (respectively 36 per cent, 31 per cent, 40 per cent, and 25 per cent). South Korea presented an almost equal distribution among all types of non-academic publications.
Overall, a total of 89 non-academic publications were produced by participants across the five countries, and annual publication numbers have increased across all countries over time, especially in South Korea and Vietnam. Most of the non-academic publications were reports and online media.
3.4 Teaching activities

Alongside the research outputs (academic and non-academic publications), this research investigated the teaching activities in the social innovation field by allowing the respondents to record up to five teaching activities each\(^{27}\). In total, 311 teaching activities were reported by the respondents, with Indonesia being the country with more activities (25 per cent) and South Korea the one with the least (13 per cent)\(^{28}\).

**Table 3.5: Distribution of the teaching activity by country**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>311</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all countries, the majority of the teaching activities were modules or classes (Figure 3.48). Degree courses focused on social innovation were in the minority, especially in the Philippines, where only 3 per cent of teaching activities were full degree programmes. Conversely, the highest proportion of social innovation degree programmes was found in Malaysia (41 per cent).

**Figure 3.48: Distribution of the type of teaching activity by country**

\(^{27}\) For the full list of teaching activities, including course name, number of participants, type of teaching activity, level, module type, year of implementation, higher education institutions, and funds, please refer to the local country reports.

\(^{28}\) The researchers believe that this low figure for Korea is possibly due to bias in the respondent sample, as Korea has a well-developed focus on social innovation (especially through social enterprise teaching).
Social innovation teaching activities were focused on undergraduate and non-accredited courses (Figures 3.49 to 3.53). In Malaysia 58 per cent of the teaching activities were developed for undergraduates and 30 per cent were non-accredited. In the Philippines, Vietnam and South Korea the split was quite even between undergraduate and postgraduate studies, whilst in Indonesia 80 per cent of the teaching of social innovation was in undergraduate studies.

Figures 3.49 to 3.53: Distribution of the teaching activity course level in (3.49) Indonesia; (3.50) Malaysia; (3.51) the Philippines; (3.52) South Korea; and (3.53) Vietnam
In three of the five countries, the majority of the teaching activities were compulsory, 78 per cent in Indonesia, 61 per cent in the Philippines, and 53 per cent in Malaysia. Conversely, in South Korea and Vietnam teaching activities were in the main elective (67 per cent and 60 per cent) (Figure 3.54).

**Figure 3.54: Distribution of the teaching activity frequency attendance by country**

The number of the newly started teaching activities per annum increased over time across all countries, however, in no cases does the R-square value show a strong relationship between the number of teaching activities and the year of implementation. Interestingly, only in the Philippines and Indonesia, were the teaching activities started before 2000, making these two countries the ones with the older teaching programmes/courses in social innovation.

**Figure 3.55: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities in Indonesia**
Figure 3.56: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities in Malaysia

Figure 3.57: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities in the Philippines

Figure 3.58: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities in South Korea

Figure 3.59: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities in Vietnam
Funding for teaching activities increased over time, except for Indonesia, where all decreased since 2018 (Figures 3.60 to 3.64). However, all types of funding fluctuated through the years. The funding emerging recently are government and higher education institution funds, while some recent teaching activities are not funded at all.

Figure 3.60: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities funds in Indonesia

Figure 3.61: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities funds in Malaysia

Figure 3.62: Longitudinal distribution of the teaching activities funds in the Philippines
In summary, 311 teaching activities were reported by participants and these were mainly social innovation modules or classes. Social innovation teaching activities were focused in general more at the undergraduate level and the non-accredited course level, except for South Korea where the predominant form was postgraduate. In Indonesia, the Philippines, and Malaysia, the majority of the teaching activities were compulsory, while in South Korea and Vietnam they were elective. The number of teaching activities (and the corresponding funds) increased over time in all countries, albeit the growth was not significant and prone to fluctuations. Only in the Philippines and Indonesia, were teaching activities around social innovation commenced before the year 2000.
3.5 Student’s experience

To assess students’ involvement in social innovation at the higher education level, the survey asked the respondents to allocate changes in students’ reactions and environment to social innovation activities on a scale ranging from one (negative change) to five (positive change). Table 3.6 below shows the principal descriptive statistics for each country. All countries presented a mean between 3.9 (Indonesia) to 4.4 (Philippines) showing a good level of student interest in social innovation activities.

**Table 3.6: Distribution of students’ reactions and environment to social innovation activities by country**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>South Korea</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The quality of curricula was reported as low in all countries (Table 3.7), with a mean varying between 2 (for Vietnam) and 2.5 (for Indonesia). This is a low level considering the respondents were asked to allocate the quality and quantity of the curricula on a scale ranging from one (not enough and poor quality) to five (enough and of good quality).

**Table 3.7: Distribution of curricula quantity and quality in social innovation activities by country**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>South Korea</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to our respondents, students preferred either ‘all types of learning’ or ‘project-based learning’. In fact, in all countries, these two categories represented the majority (Figure 3.65). Only South Korea presented a predominant type of learning, with 61 per cent of the respondents selected ‘project-based learning’.
The students' involvement in social innovation at the HE level was also investigated on a scale ranging from one (negative change) to five (positive change). The respondents allocated the changes in students' reactions and environment to social innovation activities on an approximate mean of four (between 3.9 – Indonesia, to 4.4 – Philippines), showing a good level of students' interest in social innovation activities. On the contrary, the quality of curricula (investigated on a scale ranging from one – not enough and poor quality to five – enough and of good quality) was reported as low in all countries, with a mean varying between 2 (for Vietnam) and 2.5 (for Indonesia). Due to the practical and theoretical nature of the social innovation classes, the survey also investigated the preferred types of learning. Students preferred either ‘all types of learning’ or ‘project-based learning’, with only the South Korean respondents choosing ‘project-based learning’ as their predominant favoured type of learning.

### 3.6 Higher education institutions within society

Overall, the respondents reported 251 community engagement activities, with the Philippines providing over one-quarter (27 per cent), with Indonesia and Malaysia over one-fifth (21 per cent) of these collaborations; the remaining countries contributed between 15% (South Korea) and 17 per cent (Vietnam) of the community engagement activities (see Table 3.8).
Table 3.8: Distribution of the community engagement by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>251</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distributions of academic’s community engagement roles varied according to the country and in all countries (except for Indonesia), the roles were spread almost evenly (See Figures 3.66 to 3.70). In Indonesia, majority significant proportion of academic’s roles were centred on volunteering (40 per cent), while in Vietnam this was also the case to a lesser degree (27 per cent). In Malaysia, a third of the respondents were committee members, whilst in South Korea 37 per cent were board members, and in the Philippines 23 per cent were officers. The above figures represent the major roles taken by the respondents, however, as we can see from Figures 3.56 to 3.69, the percentages of the ‘other’ roles do not differ significantly between countries.

Figures 3.66 to 3.70: Distribution of the roles within organisations in (3.66) Indonesia; (3.67) Malaysia; (3.68) the Philippines; (3.69) South Korea; and (3.70) Vietnam

---

30 These ‘other’ responses varied, with the most common being ‘mentor’, ‘trainer’, being the ‘founder/CEO’ of a community organisation, a ‘funder/investor’, and/or supporting community organisations with their monitoring and evaluation.
With respect to the types of organisations that higher education institutions partnered with, in Malaysia and Vietnam the predominant organisational form was NGO (41 per cent and 39 per cent respectively), in the Philippines schools (36 per cent), and in South Korea public bodies (32 per cent). In Indonesia and South Korea, an important share of the respondents’ type of organisation didn’t fall under the categories we suggested in the survey, in fact, respectively 32 per cent and 35 per cent of the respondents selected ‘other’. Moreover, it is interesting to note, that even if social enterprises were selected in all countries, these did not represent the majority in any (see Figures 3.71 to 3.75). This suggests that higher education institution engagement in supporting social enterprises tends to occur through intermediary organisations (i.e. NGOs) as opposed to being directly with the social enterprises themselves.

Figures 3.71 to 3.75: Distribution of the types of organisations in (3.71) Indonesia; (3.72) Malaysia; (3.73) the Philippines; (3.74) South Korea; and (3.75) Vietnam

31 The ‘other’ responses for types of organisations included international governmental organisations (i.e. the United Nations and its ancillaries), government funding bodies, private research institutes and cooperatives.
Overall, the respondents reported 251 collaborations with society. The roles are spread almost evenly, except for Indonesia where the majority of roles are volunteering. The results showed interesting differences between the countries concerning the types of organisations that higher education institutions partner with. Whilst in Malaysia and Vietnam the predominant partner organisations were NGOs, and in the Philippines it was schools, in South Korea it was public bodies. This shows the breadth of different community collaborations that occur across the higher education sectors of the five countries.
3.7 Government support for social innovation

Respondents were asked to rate the level of government support for social innovation on a five-point Likert scale ranging from one to five (with five being the highest level of support). The data reveals low-levels of support across all countries. In fact, the highest level of support was experienced in Malaysia in relation to government support for research (mean of 3.3), while the lowest level of support was experienced by the Vietnamese respondents in relation to financial support (mean of 2.3). Tables 3.9 to 3.13 below outlines these findings.

Table 3.9: Descriptive statistics of the government support in social innovation areas in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Research</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Finance</th>
<th>Networking</th>
<th>Community engagement</th>
<th>Policy support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.10: Descriptive statistics of the government support in social innovation areas in Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Research</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Finance</th>
<th>Networking</th>
<th>Community engagement</th>
<th>Policy support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.11: Descriptive statistics of the government support in social innovation areas in the Philippines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Research</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Finance</th>
<th>Networking</th>
<th>Community engagement</th>
<th>Policy support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
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</table>

Table 3.12: Descriptive statistics of the government support in social innovation areas in South Korea

<table>
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<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Finance</th>
<th>Networking</th>
<th>Community engagement</th>
<th>Policy support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
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<td>Mean</td>
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<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
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<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.13: Descriptive statistics of the government support in social innovation areas in Vietnam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Research</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Finance</th>
<th>Networking</th>
<th>Community engagement</th>
<th>Policy support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.8 Partnerships and Collaborations

The survey investigated the partnerships and collaborations developed at the academic level, overall 220 collaborations were identified. The Philippines provided the highest number of academic collaborations (38 per cent), while South Korea provided the lowest (11 per cent) (see Table 3.14).

Table 3.2: Distribution of the number of collaborations by countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>220</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The academic collaboration partners varied across the countries (Figures 3.76 to 3.80). NGOs were a substantial collaborator in all countries, especially in Malaysia (28%). Considerable collaborations were also implemented between universities, especially in Malaysia and South Korea (31 per cent and 30 per cent respectively). Interestingly, academic collaborations with communities (co-design/co-research) were common, especially in Indonesia (23 per cent), showing higher education institutions involvement in communities. Collaborations were also implemented with social enterprises, especially in South Korea (33 per cent).

Figures 3.76 to 3.80: Distribution of the partner institution in (3.76) Indonesia; (3.77) Malaysia; (3.78) the Philippines; (3.79) South Korea; and (3.80) Vietnam
The survey also explored perceptions of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) most relevant to the main target social issues underpinning academic collaborations, with significant variance between countries (Figures 3.81 to Figure 3.85). In Indonesia, the most relevant SDGs were SDG 4: Quality Education (20 per cent), followed by SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being (14 per cent), and SDG 1: No Poverty (14 per cent). In Malaysia, 27 per cent of the respondents identified SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth and SDG 4: Quality Education (23 per cent) as the main SDGs representing their target issues. SDG 1: No Poverty (19 per cent), SDG 4: Quality Education (17 per cent), and SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth (16 per cent) were the main SDGs identified by the Filipino respondents. In South Korea, the most relevant SDGs were SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities (24 per cent) and SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being (14 per cent). The main SDGs selected by the Vietnamese respondents was SDG 4: Quality Education (30 per cent).
Figure 3.81: Distribution of the SDGs relevant to the issue targeted by the collaboration in Indonesia

- Affordable and Clean Energy
- Decent Work and Economic Growth
- Good Health and Well-being
- Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
- No Poverty
- Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
- Quality Education
- Reduced Inequality
- Responsible Consumption and Production
- Sustainable Cities and Communities
- Other
- Not Reporting

Figure 3.82: Distribution of the SDGs relevant to the issue targeted by the collaboration in Malaysia

- Decent Work and Economic Growth
- Good Health and Well-being
- Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
- No Poverty
- Partnerships for the Goals
- Quality Education
- Reduced Inequality
- Sustainable Cities and Communities
- Others

Figure 3.83: Distribution of the SDGs relevant to the issue targeted by the collaboration in the Philippines

- No Answer
- Affordable and Clean Energy
- Life on Land
- Good Health and Well-being
- Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
- Clean Water and Sanitation
- Sustainable Cities and Communities
- Climate Action
- Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
- Responsible Consumption and Production
- Other
- Decent Work and Economic Growth
- Quality Education
- No Poverty
The respondents were also asked to state which beneficiary groups they felt were most linked to the individual SDGs. In Indonesia, the most relevant beneficiaries were the socially/economically disadvantaged (40 per cent) related to SDG 1: No Poverty; children and youths, the socially/economically disadvantaged, students, and women were all (equally) linked to SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being; while students (56 per cent) were the most linked with SDG 4: Quality Education (Table 3.15). In Malaysia, the main beneficiary of SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth was the community (50 per cent), while for SDG 4: Quality Education it was students (50 per cent) (Table 3.16). The Philippines also rated the socially/economically disadvantaged (44 per cent) as the main beneficiaries of SDG 1: No Poverty; with students (62 per cent) linked with SDG 4: Quality Education; and the socially/economically disadvantaged (31 per cent) with SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth (Table 3.17). In South Korea, the most relevant beneficiary group for SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities was the community (24 per cent); while for SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being it was the community, elderly, and women (all 33 per cent) (Table 3.18). Finally, in Vietnam SDG 4: Quality Education was mainly with students (80 per cent) identified as the main beneficiary group (see Table 3.19).
### Table 3.3: Distribution of the beneficiaries for the SDGs in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDG</th>
<th>Children and youths</th>
<th>Socially economically disadvantaged</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Minor/indigenous</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
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<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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</table>

### Table 3.4: Distribution of the beneficiaries for the SDGs in Malaysia

<table>
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<tr>
<th>SDG</th>
<th>Children and youth</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Elderly</th>
<th>Minor/Indigenous</th>
<th>People with disabilities</th>
<th>Socially economically disadvantaged</th>
<th>Stuents</th>
<th>Unempl oyed</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
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<td>No Poverty</td>
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<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>13%</td>
<td>38%</td>
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### Table 3.17: Distribution of the beneficiaries for the SDGs in the Philippines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDG</th>
<th>Comm unity</th>
<th>Socially economic disadvantaged</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Children And youth</th>
<th>Minor/Indigenous</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Unspecified</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
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<td>6%</td>
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<td>6%</td>
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<td>62%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>8%</td>
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<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
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<td>20%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>67%</td>
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<td>50%</td>
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<td>50%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
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<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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</table>
Table 3.18: Distribution of the beneficiaries for the SDGs in South Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDG</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Elderly</th>
<th>Minor/indigenous</th>
<th>Socially economic disadvantaged</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
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<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean Water and Sanitation</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero Hunger</td>
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<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.19: Distribution of the beneficiaries for the SDGs in Vietnam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDG</th>
<th>Children and youth</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Socially economic disadvantaged</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Climate Action</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender Equality</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace, Justice &amp; Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most of the collaborations were implemented to deliver training and capacity building, except in Indonesia. In fact, 42 per cent of the collaborations in Malaysia, 42 per cent in the Philippines, 35 per cent in South Korea, and 32 per cent in Vietnam were aimed at training and capacity building support. In Indonesia, most of the respondents selected ‘other’ (37 per cent)\(^{32}\), suggesting that important collaborations in this country were aimed at other activities than those listed in the survey (see Figures 3.86 to 3.90).

**Figure 3.86: Distribution of the types of activity in Indonesia**

![Distribution of the types of activity in Indonesia](image)

**Figure 3.87: Distribution of the types of activity in Malaysia**

![Distribution of the types of activity in Malaysia](image)

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\(^{32}\) These other responses included: business support (28 per cent); mentoring/coaching (18 per cent); fundraising (18 per cent); online support (9 per cent); ecosystem building (9 per cent); community engagement (9 per cent); and humanitarian work (9 per cent).
Figure 3.88: Distribution of the types of activity in the Philippines

Figure 3.89: Distribution of the types of activity in South Korea

Figure 3.90: Distribution of the types of activity in Vietnam
Respondents were also asked to state the funding types that had supported their academic collaborations, with the data revealing that most of the funding came from NGOs/foundations, governmental, or higher education institutions (See Figures 3.91 to 3.95). In Indonesia and Malaysia, NGOs/foundations, accounted for 26 per cent and 27 per cent of the monies respectively. Higher education institutions funds were more prominent in the Filipino (27 per cent) and Vietnamese (23 per cent) collaborations, whilst in South Korea, 37 per cent of the collaborations used governmental funds and 21 per cent came from NGOs/foundations.

**Figure 3.91: Distribution of the types of funding in Indonesia**

- NGO/Foundation: 26%
- HEI Own Funds: 2%
- Research Grant: 18%
- Government Funding: 21%
- Foreign Funds: 14%
- Self Funded: 14%
- No Funding: 5%
- Other: 14%

**Figure 3.92: Distribution of the types of funding in Malaysia**

- NGO/Foundation: 27%
- HEI Own Fund: 4%
- Research Grant: 19%
- Government Funding: 17%
- Self-Funded: 15%
- Foreign Funds: 2%
- No Funding: 10%
- Others: 6%
Figure 3.93: Distribution of the types of funding in the Philippines

Figure 3.94: Distribution of the types of funding in South Korea

Figure 3.95: Distribution of the types of funding in Vietnam
The next tables (from 3.20 to 3.24) present the distributions of the funding types in relation to the target issues represented by the SDGs. In Indonesia and Malaysia, most of the SDGs were linked to government funding, research grants, and NGOs/foundations. In the Philippines, South Korea, and Vietnam, the relationship between the funding types and the SDGs varied more, with all funding types being predominant in at least one SDG.

Table 3.5: Distribution of the types of funding for the SDGs in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Government funding</th>
<th>Research grant</th>
<th>HEI own funds</th>
<th>NGO/foundation</th>
<th>Self-funded</th>
<th>Foreign funds</th>
<th>No funding</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
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<td>20%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
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<td>Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
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<td>33%</td>
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<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
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<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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</table>

Table 3.21: Distribution of the types of funding for the SDGs in Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Government funding</th>
<th>Research grant</th>
<th>HEI own funds</th>
<th>NGO/foundation</th>
<th>Self-funded</th>
<th>Foreign funds</th>
<th>No funding</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
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<td>Quality Education</td>
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<td>14%</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

33 Please note, that as Tables 3.20 to 3.24 represent the funding sources for each SDG area, the rows sum horizontally. For example, for Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure government and research grant funding accounts for 50% each, accounting for 100% of all funding in relation to the SDG.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>HEI own funds</th>
<th>Government funding</th>
<th>NGO/ foundation</th>
<th>Self-funded</th>
<th>Research grant</th>
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<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.6: Distribution of the types of funding for the SDGs in South Korea

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<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Government funding</th>
<th>Research grant</th>
<th>HEI own funds</th>
<th>NGO/ foundation</th>
<th>Self-funded</th>
<th>Foreign funds</th>
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<th>Other</th>
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<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
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</table>
### Table 3.7: Distribution of the types of funding for the SDGs in Vietnam

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<th>Research grant</th>
<th>HEI own funds</th>
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<th>Self-funded</th>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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<td>20%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peace, Justice &amp; Strong Institutions</td>
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<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The main barriers encountered by our respondents in collaborating externally were diverse (Figures 3.96 to 3.100). A lack of funding was experienced by all countries, especially by Vietnam (52 per cent), Malaysia (42 per cent), and the Philippines (37 per cent). Indonesian respondents' difficulties were mainly due to a lack of policy support (33 per cent); while 35 per cent of the South Korean respondents did not encounter any barriers at all.

**Figures 3.96 to 3.100: Distribution of the main barriers in collaborating in (3.96) Indonesia; (3.97) Malaysia; (3.98) the Philippines; (3.99) South Korea; and (3.100) Vietnam**
The next tables (from 3.25 to 3.29) present the distributions of the barriers in collaborating in relation to the target issues represented by the SDGs. In Indonesia, most of the SDGs were linked to a lack of policy support. Given that government support for academic collaborations in Indonesia accounts for 20 per cent of funding, this perceived lack of policy support suggests that the funding in place is not being properly directed. For Malaysia, the Philippines, and Vietnam it was a lack of funding that affected most of the targeted issues; whilst for South Korea it was a lack of engagement from communities (or no barriers)\(^34\). This data suggests that to better support social innovation in higher education, a coordinated approach that involves government policy and funding, strategic support from universities and community engagement is key. Indeed, engagement with NGOs more broadly by Universities would also allow for increased multi-stakeholder platforms to be adopted, that critically included communities (and engaged them).

**Table 3.8: Distribution of the type of barriers in collaborating for the SDGs in Indonesia**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Lack of engagement from communities</th>
<th>Lack of funding</th>
<th>Lack of policy support</th>
<th>Lack of university support</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^34\) Given that not all respondents allocated a barrier to each SDG they worked in, and given that responses are sometimes split across 17 SDGs, in places the numeric sample-sizes per cell are low i.e. <5. This makes meaningful statistical analysis (Chi-squared) difficult and so the data here should be treated as participant inclinations as to the barriers inherent to each SDG area, as opposed to robust, meaningful relationships.
### Table 3.9: Distribution of the type of barriers in collaborating for the SDGs in Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Lack of funding</th>
<th>Lack of university support</th>
<th>Lack of policy support</th>
<th>Lack of engagement from communities</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero Hunger</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnerships for the Goals</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.10: Distribution of the type of barriers in collaborating for the SDGs in the Philippines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Lack of funding</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Lack of policy support</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Lack of engagement from communities</th>
<th>Lack of university support</th>
<th>No answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Poverty</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate Action</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean Water and Sanitation</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life on Land</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.28: Distribution of the type of barriers in collaborating for the SDGs in South Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Lack of funding</th>
<th>Lack of university support</th>
<th>Lack of policy support</th>
<th>Lack of engagement from communities</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean Water and Sanitation</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice Strong Institutions</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero Hunger</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.29: Distribution of the type of barriers in collaborating for the SDGs in Vietnam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Lack of engagement from communities</th>
<th>Lack of funding</th>
<th>Lack of policy support</th>
<th>Lack of university support</th>
<th>Lack of effective collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality Education</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Equality</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Justice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Institutions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Inequality</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate Action</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section has presented the results related to the collaborations developed by academics. Overall, 220 collaborations were identified. Considerable numbers of collaborations were implemented with NGOs, universities, communities, and social enterprises. The SDGs most relevant to the main target issues varied according to the countries, however, the most predominant were SDG 1: No Poverty, SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being, SDG 4: Quality Education, and SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth. The beneficiaries varied accordingly, however, with the main groups identified being communities, the socially/economically disadvantaged, students and women. Most of the collaborations were implemented to deliver training and capacity building, except for in Indonesia where the majority of the respondents selected other. The type of funds used to support these collaborations differed according to the country; however, the main funding types were NGOs/foundations, government or higher education institutions. In Indonesia and in Malaysia, these funding types (NGOs/foundations, government or higher education institutions) were the ones more linked to the SDGs. Conversely, in the Philippines, South Korea, and Vietnam, the relation in between the funding types and the SGDs was more diverse, with all funding types being predominant in at least one SDGs. A lack of funding was experienced by all countries as a barrier to collaboration.
3.9 Trust

Data on trust was collected from the participants, as trust is a key mediator of collaboration. Indeed, without trust, it is much harder for stakeholders to collaborate and to build partnerships. Respondent’s levels of trust towards several institutions were investigated in the survey using a scale ranging from zero (No Trust) to ten (complete trust) (Table 3.30). Lower levels of trust were reserved for politicians and political parties. In particular, trust in politicians was low in Indonesia (median of four), Malaysia (median of five), South Korea (median of three), and Vietnam (median of five), while political parties had low trust in Indonesia (median of four), Malaysia (median of five), the Philippines (median of four), and South Korea (median of three). Understandably, the institutions with the highest levels of trust were the respondents’ own higher education institutions, with South Korea being the lowest (median of seven) and the Philippines being the highest (median of nine).

Table 3.11: Distribution of the level of trust by countries (median levels)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>South Korea</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal system</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National government</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politicians</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political parties</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Nations</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own higher education institution</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner institutions</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil society</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other higher education institutions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Alongside the levels of trust towards institutions, the levels of trust towards civil society were also investigated (using a scale ranging from one=strongly disagree to five=strongly agree). When asked if people are basically honest (Figure 3.101), most of the countries’ respondents agreed or remained neutral, with Indonesia being the highest (57 per cent of the respondents replied agree) and Vietnam being the lowest (38 per cent of the respondents replied agree). The same pattern was experienced when respondents defined their level of trust towards people (Figure 3.102). In particular, most of the countries’ respondents almost evenly agreed or remained neutral, except for in the Philippines where the majority agreed (54 per cent). The level of agreement increased, even more, when respondents were asked if people are basically good and kind (Figure 3.103). In fact, in all countries, more than 50 per cent agreed, except for in South Korea where 41 per cent agreed and 39 per cent remained neutral. The responses differed when we consider if people are trustful of others (Figure 3.104). In Malaysia and the Philippines, the majority agreed (59 per cent and 50 per cent respectively); whilst in Indonesia, South Korea, and Vietnam a significant proportion remained neutral (43 per cent, 46 per cent, and 41 per cent respectively). Understandably, most of the people agreed or strongly agree when questioned if they are trustful (Figure 3.105), with the highest being the Vietnamese (52 per cent of the respondents strongly agreed). The last item investigated if most people will
respond in kind when they are trusted by others (Figure 3.106). In all countries, the majority agreed (with the lowest being the Philippines – 52 per cent and the highest Malaysia – 68 per cent), except for Vietnam where the majority strongly agreed (46 per cent).

Figure 3.101: Distribution for the question ‘most people are basically honest’ by country

Figure 3.102: Distribution for the question ‘most people are trustworthy’ by country
Figure 3.103: Distribution for the question ‘most people are basically good and kind’ by country

Figure 3.104: Distribution for the question ‘most people are trustful of others’ by country

Figure 3.105: Distribution for the question ‘I am trustful’ by country
In summary, lower levels of trust were experienced towards politicians and political parties, while, the institutions with the highest levels of trust were the respondents own higher education institutions. Moreover, when interrogated on the levels of trust towards civil society, the respondents expressed a good (by agreeing) or impartial position (by remaining neutral) to most aspects. This demonstrates the relatively strong levels of trust in civil society and educational institutions across East and South East Asia, versus low levels of trust in political institutions. The data here shows that personal trust, trust in universities, partner organisations and civil society is high. However, trust in politicians, the legal system and government in general is low. This therefore makes top-down collaborations less likely, and also aligns with the barriers identified by academics in relation to policy and funding. This also demonstrates the need for more bottom-up collaboration, and suggests that NGOs working in partnership with higher education institutions and communities, are better placed to drive collaborations centred on social innovation. This would align with the research findings identified earlier, that bottom-up social innovation can deliver higher levels of sustained impact (Kruse et al., 2014), and shows how higher education institutions and scholars could actively seek out alternative forms of support away from government and traditional funding streams.
3.10 Challenges in promoting social innovation and social enterprises

The most frequent challenge in promoting social innovation in research and teaching was funding across all five countries, specifically, 27 per cent in Malaysia, 30 per cent in Indonesia, 25 per cent in the Philippines, 21 per cent in South Korea, and 19 per cent in Vietnam. The second most frequent challenge (as well as other less prominent challenges) varied across the different countries. However, the main challenges were related to curriculum and degree programme development, lack of policy frameworks, and human resources. In Indonesia, 17 per cent selected curriculum and degree programme development and 15% identified a lack of policy frameworks (Figure 3.107). In Malaysia, 15 per cent of the respondents identified a lack of policy frameworks and 14 per cent identified human resources as a challenge (Figure 3.108). Again, human resources (22 per cent) and curriculum and degree programme development (15 per cent) were identified as challenges by the Filipino respondents (Figure 3.109). In South Korea, the second most frequent were human resources (19 per cent) and lack of interest from students and faculty members (14 per cent) (Figure 3.110). Finally, Vietnamese respondents identified management support (18 per cent) and human resources (15 per cent) as the main challenges (Figure 3.111).

Figure 3.107: Distribution of the challenges in promoting social innovation in Indonesia

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Respondents were given the possibility to select up to three challenges that they and their organisation are facing in promoting social innovation research teaching.
Figure 3.108: Distribution of the challenges in promoting social innovation in Malaysia

Figure 3.109: Distribution of the challenges in promoting social innovation in the Philippines

Figure 3.110: Distribution of the challenges in promoting social innovation in South Korea
The actors with the lead responsibility for overcoming these challenges varied; however, most respondents indicated government and higher education institutions as most important. The government was predominantly identified by Malaysian respondents as the lead actor, especially for a lack of policy frameworks (67 per cent) and student employability (72 per cent) (Table 3.32). In the Philippines, the government was mainly responsible for funding (63 per cent), a lack of policy frameworks (75 per cent), and personal agency (100 per cent) (Table 3.33); while in Indonesia, the main leading responsible actor was higher education institutions, especially in relation to a lack of interest from students and faculty members (80 per cent) and curriculum and degree programme development (71 per cent) (Table 3.31). In both South Korea and Vietnam, higher education institutions were recognised as responsible for a lack of interest from students and faculty members (84 per cent and 94 per cent respectively) (Tables 3.34 and 3.35).

Table 3.31: Distribution of the leading responsible actor by challenges in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>HEIs</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private sector</th>
<th>Intermediaries</th>
<th>NGOs/charities</th>
<th>Social enterprises</th>
<th>All actors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management support</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding/finance</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest from students and faculty members</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal agency</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resources</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of policy frameworks</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

36 Alongside the several categories suggested in all surveys, the Indonesian survey allowed the respondents to select ‘all actors’.
### Table 3.12: Distribution of the leading responsible actor by challenges in Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Social enterprises</th>
<th>HEIs</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>NGOs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management support</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding/finance</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest from students and faculty members</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resources</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of policy frameworks</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student employability</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum and degree programme development</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other challenge</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.13: Distribution of the leading responsible actor by challenges in the Philippines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>HEIs</th>
<th>Social enterprises</th>
<th>Intermediaries</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private sector</th>
<th>No answer</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Funding/finance</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum and degree programme development</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of policy frameworks</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management support</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.14: Distribution of the leading responsible actor by challenges in South Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>HEIs</th>
<th>Intermediaries</th>
<th>NGOs/charities</th>
<th>Private sector</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Social enterprises</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management support</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding/finance</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest from students and faculty members</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal agency</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of policy frameworks</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student employability</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum and degree programme development</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.15: Distribution of the leading responsible actor by challenges in Vietnam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>HEIs</th>
<th>Intermediaries</th>
<th>NGOs/charities</th>
<th>Social enterprises</th>
<th>Private sector</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>n/a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management support</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding/finance</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest from students and faculty members</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In summary, the most frequent challenge in promoting social innovation was funding across all countries, followed mainly and in different proportions by curriculum and degree programme development, lack of policy frameworks, and human resources. The main actors identified as responsible to overcome these challenges were government and higher education institutions.

### 3.11 Summary

The quantitative data collection investigated several areas related to social innovation, including: academic and non-academic publications, teaching activities, community engagement and academic collaboration, students’ experiences, government support, levels of trust towards several institutions, challenges in promoting social innovation and social enterprises in research and teaching, and the problems and barriers in addressing social problems. Most of the respondents were female (except in Vietnam), and with a mean age ranging between 41 and 47 years. Understandably, most of the respondents’ field of expertise was business and they mainly worked in ‘research and teaching’ tracks. In addition, most of the respondents had worked in the field of social innovation for between one and five years.

Interesting dissimilarities arise when the respondent’s academic role was considered. In Malaysia, Vietnam, and Indonesia most of the respondents were lecturers or senior lecturers, associate professors or assistant professors in the Philippines, while in South Korea they were researchers or senior researchers.

In the last decade, the respondents across the five countries produced a total of 262 academic publications. These were mainly empirical, and either purely qualitative or mixed methods in their design. Moreover, a total of 89 non-academic publications were reported, most of which were identified as ‘reports’ and ‘online media’. Overall, the number of publications by year increased across all countries over the period considered, and this is more evident especially in South Korea and Vietnam. As was identified in the literature review, the social innovation ecosystem at the higher education level in South Korea is more developed with respect to the other four countries, whilst the Vietnamese ecosystem is relatively nascent (but developing quickly). In general, funding supporting academic publications increased over time, although it was provided in different forms across countries. Research grants, higher education institution

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37 It is important to note here that these titles confer different meanings in different countries and so inferring potential hierarchies in respondent’s academic positions across countries should be avoided.
own funds, and/or self-funded research accounted for the biggest proportions in total funding, with government funding generally representing a smaller amount in all countries.

In total, 311 teaching activities were reported, these being mainly modules or classes at the undergraduate level and the non-accredited course level. Conversely, South Korean respondents reported postgraduate level teaching activities as the most predominant form, confirming that South Korea is perhaps the country with the most developed social innovation ecosystem in higher education. In Indonesia, the Philippines and Malaysia, the majority of these teaching activities were compulsory, while in South Korea and Vietnam they were elective. Although in all countries, an increase over time in the number of teaching activities and in the corresponding funds can be identified, this growth was subject to a significant degree of fluctuation. One section of the survey investigated also the most frequent challenge in promoting social innovation in research and teaching. The main challenge identified was funding across all countries, followed by curriculum and degree programme development, lack of policy frameworks, and human resources (in different proportions). The mains actors identified as responsible to overcome these challenges were government and higher education institutions.

The next aspects investigated by the data collection were partnerships, both at the civil society and academic levels. Overall, the respondents reported 241 collaborations with civil society. The various roles taken by the respondents in the collaboration were spread evenly. Conversely, when asked about the types of organisations that higher education institutions partner with, the respondents provided interesting dissimilarities across the five countries. Indeed, in Malaysia and Vietnam the predominant partner organisations within collaborations were NGOs, in the Philippines the major partners were schools, whilst in South Korea collaborations were mainly with public bodies. With respect to academic collaborations, 220 collaborations were identified by the respondents. As identified in the literature review, in countries with lower economic development the importance of social networks arose; in fact, the Philippines provided over one-quarter of the overall collaboration with civil society and two-fifths of the academic publications. Moreover, Indonesia provided over one-fifth of the collaborations and one-quarter of the academic collaborations, correlating with the trend identified in prior research for social networks being one of the key assets of the social enterprise ecosystem (Sengupta et al., 2018). Most of these collaborations were implemented with NGOs, universities, communities, and social enterprises. As the literature review emphasised, these institutions are the types most commonly involved in the social innovation ecosystem.

The most relevant SDGs to the main target issues vary by country. Notwithstanding this variation the most predominant SDGs were: SDG 1: No Poverty; SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being; SDG 4: Quality Education; and SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth. Understandably, the types of beneficiaries varied accordingly. However, the main groups of recipients were ‘communities’, the ‘socially/economically disadvantaged’, ‘students’ and ‘women’. Most of the academic collaborations were developed to deliver training and capacity building, except in Indonesia where the majority of the respondents selected ‘other’ (focused on international governmental organisations). The main types of funding used to support these collaborations were NGOs/ foundations, government or higher education institutions, albeit there was a degree of variability across countries. Moreover, especially in Vietnam, Malaysia, and the
Philippines, a lack of funding was a clear barrier to collaboration. On a positive note, all countries except for Vietnam experiences a relative lack of barriers to social innovation.

The survey explored students’ involvement in social innovation at the higher education level, the quality of the curricula, and the preferred types of learning. Students’ participation was considered according to a scale ranging from one (representing a negative change in students’ reactions and environment to social innovation activities), through to five (representing positive change). The respondents allocated the changes in terms of engagement at an approximate mean of four (between 3.9 – Indonesia, and 4.4 – Philippines), showing a very good level of students’ interest in social innovation activities. The quality of curricula was investigated again according to a scale ranging from one (i.e. not enough and poor quality) to five (i.e. enough and of good quality). This was reported as low in all countries, with a mean varying between two (for Vietnam) and 2.5 (for Indonesia). Lastly, respondents were asked to indicate the students preferred types of learning. Respondents from all countries preferred either the categories ‘all types of learning’ or ‘project-based learning’. South Korean respondents were the only ones to report ‘project-based learning’ as their students favoured type of learning, stressing that not only was the research based on culturally relevant models (as emerged from the literature review), but also the teaching activities. This aligns with prior research that identified the need to develop place-based and experiential curricula and pedagogical practices (Alden-Rivers et al., 2015).

The level of government support for social innovation was investigated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from one to five (with five being the highest level of support). The data reveals low levels of government support across all countries, with the highest level identified by Malaysian respondents concerning government support for research (mean of 3.3), and the lowest level identified by Vietnamese respondents with respect to financial support (mean of 2.3). These results highlight how the support from the government, despite growing government interest/policies, remain inadequate across the five countries (even in Korea). Levels of trust towards several institutions and civil society were also explored, with the answers revealing low-levels of trust in politicians and political parties, while respondents own higher education institutions were considered relatively more trustworthy. As higher education institutions can play a central role in the progress of social innovation ecosystem, the trust given to them might help in boosting this development. With respect to trust in civil society, the respondents indicated a good level or impartial position to most aspects investigated. This suggests that bottom-up social innovation in partnership with the community and community organisations (including NGOs) could deliver strong social innovation collaboration and impact.

Lastly, the survey also investigated the main social problems in all five countries. Health and well-being (especially in Indonesia, Malaysia, and Vietnam), education (especially in Indonesia, Malaysia, and Vietnam), and poverty (especially in Malaysia and the Philippines) were selected as prominent social problems. Conversely, inequality, lack of decent work and economic growth, as well as barriers to sustainable cities and communities were identified by South Korean respondents as the major social problems. Some of these findings align with the socio-economic factors highlighted in the literature review, for example, the Filipino poverty rate was the highest among the countries of this study (World Bank, 2019a). Nonetheless, the insights from the quantitative data collection demonstrate how the respondent perceptions go beyond indicators. For example, the South Korean respondents identified inequality as a major social
problem, even if South Korea is the country with the lowest GINI index amongst the five countries. In all five countries, the government was identified as the key actor in overcoming these different social problems.
4 Qualitative results

4.1 Introduction

The Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape (SIHE) project aims to develop a mapping study of social innovation and social enterprise in higher education institutions in Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam, and South Korea. In order to cover the areas that were not included in the survey and to more deeply explore the landscape of social innovation research and teaching in higher education institutions, semi-structured focus groups and interviews were developed for academics, practitioners, and policy makers. The lists of questions are attached in Appendix B.

For the interviews, questions were asked about the basic demographic information of the participants and their organisation, general questions about social innovation, the role of higher education institutions in boosting social innovation, research, education, and teaching trends, policy support, community engagement, external funding and financial support, and general challenges of the country. For focus groups, questions were asked about collaborations between different stakeholders in the field, including higher education institutions, government, non-government organisations, social enterprises, and private companies. For recruiting experts in social innovation research and teaching in each country, the local research team collected multiple documents, including journal articles, book chapters, news articles, and other media coverage. In addition, each local research team created a list of 1) academics who are involved in social innovation research and teaching in higher education institutions; and 2) social innovation degree and non-degree programmes in higher education institutions, so as to make a potential interviewees list.

The focus groups and interviews were conducted by the local research teams, as well as the lead research team between October and December 2019. Before the focus groups and interviews, the lead research team provided the guidelines for the focus groups and interviews to make sure that local researchers in each country had a similar level of understanding of data collection and data analysis methods. The lead research team also delivered quantitative and qualitative methods training workshops in each country between October and November 2019. This section aims to provide a comprehensive summary of the qualitative data analysis results. First, we will provide a summary of focus group and interview sessions and the number of participants in each country. Second, common themes identified by the five countries will be explained. Third, country-specific themes will also be explained. Lastly, in conclusion, we will provide a summary of the findings of the qualitative data analysis.

4.2 Focus group and interview

This section provides a summary of focus group and interview sessions and the number of participants in each country. As Table 4.1 shows, 106 focus group and interview sessions were organised by the five countries. In total, 29 focus group and 77 interview sessions were hosted
by the local country teams. The Malaysian team organised the highest number of focus group sessions (eleven). The Indonesian team organised seven focus group sessions while the Korean team organised six and Vietnamese team organised four focus group session. The Philippines team organised only one focus group session.

For interview sessions, the Vietnamese team organised the highest number of interviews (23). The Indonesian team held 21, the Philippines team had 15, the Malaysian team had nine, and the Korean team had seven interviews. In sum, most countries conducted more interviews than focus group sessions except for Malaysia. In Malaysia, the local team conducted more focus groups than interviews, as a regional level of collaborations between HEIs towards social innovation is one of the core issues to emerge from the country.

### Table 4.1: Number of focus group and interview sessions by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sessions</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus group</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 provides a summary of the number of focus group and interview participants by country. In total, 195 people participated in the focus group (118 people) and interviews (77 people). In Malaysia, 61 people participated in the qualitative fieldwork, broken down for focus groups (52 people) and interviews (nine people), which is the highest number of focus group and interview participants among the five countries. The second-highest number of participants was 45 individuals in Indonesia, as 24 people participated in the focus groups, and 21 people participated in interviews. In Vietnam, 20 people participated in the focus group, and 23 people participated in interviews, giving a total of 43 participants. As the Philippines organised only one focus group, the number of participants is relatively small compared to Malaysia, Indonesia, and Vietnam. In the Philippines, eight people participated in the focus group, and 17 people participated in interviews. The number of focus group and interview participants was lowest in Korea, with 21 in total.

### Table 4.2: Number of focus group and interview participants by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sessions</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus group</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.1 show the number and percentage of focus group and interview participants by profession in each country. Academics comprised the majority of the participants (101 people), with the second largest group of participants being practitioners (32 people), including social entrepreneurs, NGO professionals, investors, incubators, as well as employees of private organisations. Finally, policy makers (26 people), students (21 people), and higher education institution leaders (15 people) participated in focus groups and interviews for the project.
Table 4.3: Number of focus group and interview participants by profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholders</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academics</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University leaders</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policymakers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioners</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>45</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>195</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1: Focus group and interview participants by profession (%)

4.3 Common themes

Table 4.4 shows that 33 themes were identified by the local research teams. The Malaysian team identified the highest number of themes (12). The Korean team identified the second highest number of themes (nine). Meanwhile, other local teams identified three to five themes.

Table 4.4: Number of themes by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The local research teams identified the above themes based on the categories, which emerged from the units of analysis. In total, 105 categories were identified as Table 4.5 shows, while 411 units of analysis emerged from the interviews and focus groups across the five countries (see Table 4.6).
Table 4.5: Number of categories by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: Number of unit of analysis by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>107</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To develop common themes between the five countries, first, we compared and contrasted the themes developed by each country. As some themes, such as activities and awareness, are too general for comparison, we compared and contrasted the categories identified by the local teams to generate common themes as well as country-specific themes. Through this process the five most common themes across Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam and South Korea have been identified by the lead research team. The most common themes are: 1) social innovation research and teaching; 2) conceptualising social innovation; 3) government support; 4) partnership and collaboration; and 5) social innovation ecosystem. categories, re-categorisation, and common themes are summarised in Table 4.7, while each theme and sub-theme is discussed in sections 4.4 through to 4.8.

Table 4.7: Common themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common themes</th>
<th>Recategorisation</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Korea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social innovation research and teaching</td>
<td>Importance of social innovation research and teaching</td>
<td>Role of social innovation</td>
<td>Awareness and advocacy</td>
<td>Change advocates</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>The context of higher education institution in boosting social innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limitations of social innovation research and teaching</td>
<td>Challenges in social innovation</td>
<td>Financing, profitability and operational sustainability</td>
<td>Barriers to development of social innovation teaching and research</td>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>Challenge of social innovation education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding social innovation projects</td>
<td>Non-financial barriers</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Funding support</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common themes</td>
<td>Recategorisation</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social innovation research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of support</td>
<td>Trends of current and future social innovation research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social innovation trend in research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social innovation research focus</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social innovation teaching</td>
<td>Positive social innovation trend</td>
<td>Curriculum development</td>
<td>Different types of social innovation teaching</td>
<td>Social innovation courses and programmes</td>
<td>New pedagogical approach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training</td>
<td>Capacitating social innovation initiatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptualisation</td>
<td>Conceptualising social innovation</td>
<td>Social innovation challenges</td>
<td>Understanding and operational definition of social innovation</td>
<td>Understanding of social enterprise</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government support</td>
<td>Government support</td>
<td>Policy and programme opportunities</td>
<td>Macro-ecosystem</td>
<td>Government strategy</td>
<td>Positive effects of external support for boosting social innovation research and education in universities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impact investment as part of the policy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership and collaboration</td>
<td>Collaborations</td>
<td>Cross-sector partnerships and collaboration</td>
<td>Collaborations</td>
<td>Higher education institutions collaboration</td>
<td>Collaborating with external actors for social innovation education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Networking and collaboration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Personal-based</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Social innovation research and teaching

4.4.1 Importance of social innovation research

The importance of social innovation research was also emphasised by the participants from the five countries. It is mainly because social innovation research could enhance the knowledge of social innovation, suggest an effective way of teaching social innovation in higher education institutions, and provide policy suggestions to support social innovation. The interviewees said that social innovation research is necessary:

‘Yes, of course, because a lot of research these days, you see that it’s very fundamental. Everything is important. You need the research because you want to understand about the behaviour.’ – (AA12 – Malaysian academic)

‘Universities also contribute to these policies because one of their main functions is research, and research helps shaping and orientating policy.’ – (DA24 – Vietnamese academic)

Indeed, the social innovation field has received growing attention from many researchers in the five countries. As many researchers recognise the importance of social innovation research,
various research areas of social innovation are identified. They are social innovation ecosystem, performance and impact of social enterprise, determinants of social entrepreneurial intentions, social innovation education, social innovation policies, the role of stakeholders in the social innovation field, and impact measurement.

‘My current concern is heavily focused on social impact assessment, because I believe they are the factors that will handle the story of social enterprises.’ – (DA24 – Vietnamese academic)

‘We study the effects of human capital, social capital, and personality traits on the social entrepreneurial intention.’ – (DA11 – Vietnamese academic)

Still, many areas should be further investigated according to our findings, including business modelling, social innovation start-up ecosystems, social enterprise success factors, impact measurement, social innovation policy implementation, and case studies for teaching. For example, the interviewees in Vietnam and the Philippines suggested that researchers conduct studies on the key success factors of social enterprises and criteria for social impact measurement, to investigate necessary support for the growth of social enterprises:

‘The reason why we did that research initially is really to help us, because we needed the teaching cases in our management courses. Usually the case studies that are used are not from the Philippines and have a very Western perspective. What we wanted to do was for our own students – and this is something we can share with other universities – for our own students to learn about social enterprises here in the Philippines.’ – (CA4 – Filipino academic)

‘I think the first thing for universities, the two functions of the university are teaching and doing research. On the subject of social enterprises, universities play a crucial role. The first thing is about research on ... research on ... It can go from the concept, policies, experiences of countries on social enterprises development, etc. which is research on both theoretical and practical issues about social enterprises.’ – (DD25 – Vietnamese university leader)

Conversely, in Korea, it was argued that more research on social innovation is needed. In Korea, recently, the number of social innovation and social economy degree programmes in higher education institutions has increased. However, there remains limited research on the effectiveness of social innovation teaching and career choices of students in social innovation degree programmes. For example, EC3 stated that:

‘We would love to know how the talent that we help foster enters the field of social economy, due to their being so many possible routes. It would be great to know what responsibilities they are assuming in the field, and how much they are contributing.’ – (EC3 – Korean policymaker)

4.4.2 Limitations of social innovation research
Researchers in the five countries also pointed out the limitations and difficulties of conducting social innovation research. First, limited funding opportunities are considered as one of the biggest barriers to social innovation research:

‘In research, for example, if I want to make packaging for rice out of rice stalk, because we are not a rich company we have to wait. We wait for someone who wants to fund that research. There are so many innovations, but the limitation is funding.’ – (CB21 – Filipino practitioner)

Second, a higher burden for academics to publish more publications in higher-ranking journals and to teach at the same time, limits research opportunities on social innovation:

‘That is one of the things that we are actually weak in the Philippines - we are not a publishing country. You can take a look at, not only in social entrepreneurship. In many instances, we’re lagging behind in terms of publications because you are expecting lecturers and professors to churn out publications while they are teaching and that’s quite difficult. There’s less incentive for faculty members to publish. It’s a deterrent.’ – (CA12 – Filipino academic)

‘The trend of social enterprises is not hot enough for me to throw myself in and find the best gaps. That is the most difficult thing because when I do research, I have to find a good gap, the one that at least can target Q3 journals or higher.’ – (DA15 – Vietnamese Academic)

Third, some research is not creating an impact in society. The interviewees also criticised that research outcomes are not applied or implemented in the field:

‘Think of why many scientific research topics are unusable. It’s because they didn’t research on the problems of the market. Working on that topic does not solve the problem of the market, society or the community. So, it’ll forever be a piece of paper, and can hardly by put it into practice.’ – (DC29 – Vietnamese policymaker)

‘We always say that it’s research and development (R&D). I think a lot of our research is about publishing, delivering, reading your paper. We wanted to go away from that because the rest of the academe is doing that. We want to make sure we involve ourselves in doing research that will end up in prototype development.’ – (CA23 – Filipino academic)

4.4.3 Importance of social innovation teaching

Although social innovation education is relatively new in all five countries, the importance of teaching social innovation in higher education institutions was emphasised. It was argued that higher education institutions foster talented people who can work in the social innovation field in the future. The interviewees also viewed social innovation teaching as enabling the students to develop empathy, problem-solving, analytical thinking, as well as communication skills as they are assigned to solve social issues that communities and the world face:

‘I think universities and academic institutions really have responsibility to making sure that whatever they teach is relevant to the real world.’ – (CA4 – Filipino academic)
For example, in Vietnam, the interviewees see higher education institutions as a social enterprise that fosters young people’s interest in social issues in the social development of the country:

‘Our target group is the younger group who can later become social entrepreneurs. But they are also the consumers of products and services of social enterprises. Therefore, they’ll know it when they are aware of it, and the development of social enterprises will be a good impact on the development of social enterprises in Vietnam.’ – (DA16 – Vietnamese academic)

In Malaysia, social entrepreneurship is taught to cultivate an entrepreneurial mindset among graduates to be a job creator instead of a job seeker:

‘What we do here is we polish up the entrepreneurial skills and move these students into studying up business in the campus, and also for these students or a big group of students to actually choose entrepreneurship as a career choice for moving from a job seekers framework to a job creating framework.’ – (AA14 – Malaysian academic)

Despite this common perception, many universities have yet to integrate social innovation into their degree programmes and university-wide curriculum.

### 4.4.4 Limitations of social innovation teaching

First, in most countries, social entrepreneurship is taught as a part of entrepreneurship:

‘In terms of social entrepreneurship there are no particular policies for social entrepreneurship. In fact, it is part of entrepreneurship education. Actually, it pretty much belongs to the start-up business now, all the cost to teach social entrepreneurship is covered by entrepreneurship education.’ – (DA18 – Vietnamese academic)

In Malaysia, every public university delivers entrepreneurship courses as a compulsory subject across faculties. Often, social entrepreneurship is taught as a part of these entrepreneurship courses:

‘…we embed a few chapters in social entrepreneurship when teaching entrepreneurship subject. But we are working to actually create an elective subject for social entrepreneurship.’ – (AD6 – Malaysian university leader)

Second, there are not many degree programmes in social innovation across the five countries. For example, in Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, and the Philippines, social innovation are being taught through elective and non-credit courses, workshops, and talks from social entrepreneurs.

‘We will do programmes during the enrolment of students. So all the students, we will give them an introduction from the forum. Okay, so they are exposed…. nobody can graduate without taking the subject.’ – (AA14 – Malaysian academic)

‘Teaching activities [on social innovation] are mainly extra-curricular activities.’ – (DD38 – Vietnamese university leader)
Finally, the interviewees emphasised that it is hard to change university structures or policies to embed social innovation teaching in their degree programmes and credit-courses:

‘One of the most difficult challenge is the university bureaucracy.’ – (BA2 – Indonesian academic)

‘In order for social innovation to grow, the management teams of the universities have to be proactive. However, it requires convincing the management teams, and that requires organisational efforts, people, and budgets.’ – (EA11 – Korean academic)

4.5 Conceptualising social innovation

Conceptualisation of social innovation is one of the common themes that emerged among the five countries. While not many Korean interviewees mentioned a need for conceptualising social innovation, interviewees in the other four countries mentioned that social innovation should be clearly defined. Interviewees in Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia and Vietnam revealed that there is a diverse understanding of social innovation across the country:

‘…there is a little bit awareness of this thing called social enterprise. But my personal opinion is people are still silent on this, there are different interpretations of this, this concept of social enterprise.’ (AD5 – Malaysian university leader)

‘The thing with social enterprise is there's no globally accepted definition... The reason why there is no globally accepted definition is because there are different countries operating contexts. So, if I were a student from the Philippines and I am learning about how social enterprises run in the UK, it's totally different because the legal form is different, operating context is different.’ – (CA4 – Filipino academic)

The interviewees also mentioned that social innovation is still new to academics, as well as policymakers:

‘I think that most of us, not most of it, most people don’t understand what social enterprise is. It is a new phenomenon either you become a pure entrepreneur or just making money out of people becoming an entrepreneur or you become a corporate social responsibility (CSR).’ – (AA13 – Malaysian academic)

‘I must say this is a new concept for the system in Vietnam. Well, people will start to acknowledge it ... At present, if you write preliminary articles explaining what social enterprise is, and factors that have impact on success ... it is enough to initiate a new trend.’ – (DD39 – Vietnamese university leader)

Often, the term social innovation is understood in relation to social causes, and disadvantaged groups of people and communities:

‘The way I look at how I would define social enterprise … as a profitable business that creates a strong impact to society, community or the environment.’ – (AC4 – Malaysian policymaker)
‘Social enterprise is an enterprise … organisation … so it is included in the third sector [movement] … [it is aiming to] solving social problems with business approaches.’ – (BA27 – Indonesian academic)

‘Social innovation are new ways of doing things. A social enterprise is a body or a group that is promoting innovations making sure that it is disseminated or applied in communities in a sustainable manner.’ – (CC9 – Filipino policymaker)

‘Enterprises are established in pursued of social goals, and recently the concept of social enterprises is understood as enterprises that create social impact.’ – (DA24 – Vietnamese academic)

Still, differences between social enterprise and charity, non-profit organisation or corporate social responsibility (CSR) have not been clearly addressed across the region.

‘Sadly, when we're talking about social innovation, social innovation is really not a big thing here in the country yet. If you mentioned social innovation, people would confuse it about social entrepreneurship or about another social things and not really use the term social innovation.’ – (CB3 – Filipino practitioner)

‘From the Vietnamese people’s point of view, social enterprises in general are identical to charity organisations. These charity organisations receive funding and proceed to end when all funds go exhausted. They are not sustainable.’ – (DD39 – Vietnamese university leader)

4.6 Government support

All five countries emphasised the role of government in supporting social innovation in higher education institutions. Each country has different levels of government support toward social innovation research and teaching and these are now discussed in turn, in relation to each individual country.

4.6.1 Different levels of government support across the five countries

a. Advanced legal system and policies toward social innovation in higher education institutions – South Korea

Among the five countries, South Korea has established an advanced legal system and policies for promoting social innovation. For example, the Ministry of Employment and Labor (MoEL) established the Social Enterprise Promotion Act (SEPA) in 2006 in order to certify social enterprises that fit the government criteria. Moreover, as a part of 3rd Master Plan to Promote Social Enterprise (2018 – 2022), the Ministry of Employment and Labor and the Ministry of Education selected the Leader Universities in Social Economy. These selected higher education institutions deliver social economy education programmes for undergraduate and postgraduate students, as well as for social entrepreneurs (sometimes these groups might be one and the same). As results of strong government and policy support, the Korean interviewees complimented the government in supporting social innovation:
‘It is a positive that the state-led promotion of social enterprise has resulted in a very fast development of social enterprises.’ – (EA13 – Korean academic)

‘The Ministry of Science and ICT is currently spending around 1 trillion Won (approximately £687,131,500) toward developing technology to solve social issues, and I was able to benefit from some of that during this research project.’ – (EA7 – Korean academic)

b. Increased government attention towards social innovation – Malaysia and Vietnam

The Malaysian and Vietnamese governments’ attention towards social innovation has increased more recently. In Malaysia, the Office of the Prime Minister established an agency called the Malaysian Global Innovation and Creativity Centre (MaGiC) in 2014. MaGiC provides social entrepreneurship training programmes for undergraduate and postgraduate students, academics, as well as to the public who are interested in the concept. Moreover, the Ministry of Entrepreneur Development and Cooperatives (MEDAC) and MaGiC introduced a Social Enterprise Accreditation (SE.A) guideline in 2019, which defines social entrepreneurship and supports social entrepreneurship activities in Malaysia. The Malaysian interviewees attended the training programmes for academics, organised by MaGiC, to build a network with other social entrepreneurship educators and to further study (social) entrepreneurship education:

‘Some of us go to the masterclass in order to become certified trainers. We all met during the MaGiC programme and we all disbursed and disseminated the knowledge to the respective community.’ – (AD1 – Malaysian university leader)

‘…so social enterprise is basically something that I've looked into ever since I actually in 2016 me with a group of lecturers from others basically we were brought by MaGiC to visit Stanford University under their Entrepreneurship Education Programme.’ – (AD6 – Malaysian university leader)

In Vietnam, the 2014 Enterprise Law provides a legal definition of social enterprise and approves social enterprise as a registered enterprise. In 2017, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) approved the 1665 project, which nurtures entrepreneurial attitudes in the younger generation. The Ministry of Education and Training has also collaborated with the British Council Vietnam to promote social entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions. Indeed, the 1665 project encourages universities to incorporate entrepreneurship education into their degree programmes:

‘Why does my university incorporate entrepreneurship education into the programme? Frankly speaking, it is due to the project 1665 because when the project is approved, all universities must have a start-up club or an incubator, and must initiate at least two ideas by 2020, and five ideas by 2025, for example. We will have a funding or some support.’ – (DA18 – Vietnamese academic)

Although the 1665 project focuses on promoting entrepreneurship, one of the policy-makers who participated in the interviews noted that the project also promotes socially entrepreneurial mindset for students:

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39 MaGiC is now managed under the Ministry of Entrepreneur Development and Cooperatives (MEDAC).
... the intention of the project is not only to promote entrepreneurship, but also to expand to three areas of small-, medium-sized enterprises, innovation, and social impact business.’ – (DC29 – Vietnamese policymaker)

c. Limited policy frameworks and support toward social innovation – Indonesia and the Philippines

Compared to South Korea, Malaysia and Vietnam, Indonesia and the Philippines have relatively limited policy frameworks and support toward social innovation. In the Philippines, the existing policies aim to support innovation and entrepreneurship in general, more so than social innovation specifically. For example, the Innovative Start Up Act (RA 1137) and the Youth Entrepreneurship Act (RA 10679) are the major legal frameworks that promote an entrepreneurial mindset among all levels of students in the Philippines. Apart from general entrepreneurship, there is a legal effort to define social enterprise and support social entrepreneurship activities in the Philippines. For example, the ‘Poverty Reduction through Social Entrepreneurship (PRESENT)’ Bill is pending in Congress. The interviewees in the Philippines expressed their hope that the bill would be passed soon:

‘At the moment, the Philippines is very good with policies. What we want is preferential attention for social enterprises. That is something that we don’t have yet right now. That is the landscape that I hope would be established soon when we have the bill passed into law.’ – (CA12 – Filipino academic)

Meanwhile, in Indonesia participants argued that there is little government focus or support towards social innovation and there is no legal or policy definition of social enterprise in Indonesia40. The interviewees in Indonesia look forward to receiving the government support on social innovation:

‘That’s it, just like what I said. [social innovation ecosystem] was not supported because the [higher education institution and government] system didn’t … hmm, not yet supporting … when it’s supporting [social innovation teaching] it’s going to remarkable’ – (BD1 – Indonesian university leader)

4.7 A Need for government and policy support towards social innovation for higher education institutions

Regardless of the level of government and policy support towards social innovation for higher education institutions, interviewees in the five countries emphasised that the role of the government and policies is crucial in supporting social innovation for higher education institutions. Many higher education institutions in the five countries work closely with their respective governments on social innovation, entrepreneurship, and community development projects. Nevertheless, the interviewees noted that more financial support should be given by the governments to encourage social innovation teaching, research, and community

engagement in higher education institutions. Moreover, the participants emphasised that awareness of social innovation could be increased with strong government and policy support. Indeed, the interviewees in Korea admitted that social innovation policies supported the growth of social innovation in general.

‘Why do I have to contribute to social enterprise? As society develops, what can I benefit from it? The Vietnamese government has yet to show it. The Vietnamese government does not know that, so what can you do to help me achieve my socio-economic development strategy? And what can social enterprise do for it? We won’t be able to invest if you don’t have any value, right?’ – (DB23 – Vietnamese practitioner)

‘Social innovation is difficult unless you create a dynamic, fluid ecosystem. Instead of expecting universities to cooperate voluntarily, we need to have policies that support organisations gather and create synergy.’ – (EA2 – Korean academic)

4.8 Partnership and collaboration

The research findings show that partnering and collaborating with stakeholders can increase the impact of social innovation research and teaching, awareness on social innovation, and funding opportunities. Academics in each country collaborate with various stakeholders, including higher education institutions, government, non-government organisations, and social enterprises within and outside of their countries. This section will explore these partnerships in relation to research and teaching.

4.8.1 Partnerships and collaboration for research

The interviewees in South Korea, the Philippines and Indonesia mentioned that collaborating across different departments within a university is crucial in increasing the impact of social innovation research. Departments within a university are expected to support each other to manage social innovation related projects, as social innovation research is considered as inter- and multi-disciplinary studies as CB21 emphasised:

‘Research. We are willing to collaborate on research. Maybe universities can also give linkages, or proper education towards what we are doing... A training module for a whole year and then we can study the set of partners that were taught.’ – (CB21 – Filipino practitioner)

Academics often collaborate with NGOs for collaborative research in the social innovation field. For example, currently researchers in Malaysia and Vietnam often collaborate with NGOs to conduct joint research projects on how best to provide capacity-building support to social innovators. The skills required are often centred on business planning/skills, social impact measurement and understanding global models of social innovation through knowledge transfer. Together with collaboration with NGOs, collaboration with governments was also mentioned as a means of seeking more funding opportunities for social innovation research:

‘A more specific example will be… we are working towards a new agenda, a new vision of aging. So, what we have in place is NGO that’s done a little bit of measurement in
terms of the research because the idea is to do the research with community hand in hand at the same time.’ – (AD1 – Malaysian academic)

‘The NGO we have now is World Vision, UNICEF, UN-FBA. At one point we worked with The Asia Foundation, Sunlife Foundation, and Coca-Cola. Currently we have partnership with Sunlife and Coca-Cola. They have a very good campaign now: World Without the Waste. We are not leaning onto their product because it's really not healthy, but we are partnering with them strategically.’ – (CB3 – Filipino practitioner)

4.8.2 Partnerships and collaboration for teaching

Partnership and collaboration with practitioners, including social entrepreneurs and incubators, is often mentioned with a need for joint teaching. For some countries such as Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia and South Korea, universities and practitioners often collaborate to develop curriculum:

‘We helped to develop business and curriculum for entrepreneurship programme for campuses.’ – (BB6 – Indonesian practitioner)

‘When I taught in my course, during my teaching process, I found that if we had our own network and wanted to invite any of them, for example, I can do that. The department is not against it. It's encouraged if it can make our teaching more efficient, so we have the right to request from external sources.’ – (DA1 – Vietnamese academic)

In Korea, the interviewees perceive that curriculum development solely by professors is a problem:

‘Professors have hardly any experience running a company, so the gap between the classroom curriculum and the realities of the field may be significant. It is important to come up with a curriculum that is realistic, but how we do that is a problem.’ – (EC1 – Korean Policymaker)

Therefore, partnership and collaborating with external organisations for teaching should be emphasised:

‘The university provides scholarships and support for the students to help them carry out the mentoring programme, and our organisation manages them. For example, we invite external instructors who specialise in facilitation or design thinking to provide training for the students who want to do their work properly.’ – (EB2 – Korean practitioner)

Academics from the five countries also invite social entrepreneurs to bring real-world case studies to the classroom:

‘… we actually get actual entrepreneurs to become the judges, because when we go there, we as the main organiser, and also the lecturer we try not to intervene in the judging process. So, what we did is that we went there to teach them, and how to actually fine tune the ideas in the initial poster exhibition pitch.’ – (AD6 – Malaysian university leader).
‘Having social entrepreneurs as guest lecturers to inspire students or have modules where they can experience being a social entrepreneur is better than teaching theoretically.’ – (DA17 – Vietnamese academic)

4.9 Social innovation ecosystem

4.9.1 Social innovation ecosystem at an early development stage

The interviewees in the five countries perceived that the national social innovation ecosystem is still at an early development stage:

‘We’re still in the beginning stage. I think even in Asia, if you compare with Vietnam, Korea, I don’t know maybe Indonesia is ahead of us also. I think we’re in the beginning stage.’ – (CA23 – Filipino academic)

‘I think that the social enterprise ecosystem is growing, but there are some concerns. There is a definite lack of players who contemplate social solutions currently in the field. Everyone wants to work in an office, and not engage with real problems that are happening in the scene.’ – (EA14 – Korean academic)

The participants emphasised the growth of the social innovation ecosystem as a means to contribute to the social economy, which can contribute to the environment as well as job-creation. In Vietnam, the participants perceive that a few components of the social innovation ecosystem, such as policy support and financing opportunities, exist in the field. However, it was repeatedly mentioned that those components are not properly and systematically developed and connected to each other:

‘Technically speaking, the ecosystem has not been formed properly. If it is called an ecosystem, then it should be a system where there are a mission and a clear strategy. In Vietnam, there are only scattered components, they’re yet to be systematic, and yet be called an ecosystem.’ – (DA11 – Vietnamese academic)

In Malaysia and Indonesia, the participants urged the government to support building a sustainable social innovation ecosystem, while the role of higher education institutions and the community was emphasised.

‘…the university, the community, the government must like have an ecosystem like the university have the knowledge. Most of the time, the knowledge is not being transferred to the community. The government must also have specific things or plan what they want to increase for the country in terms of economy. Basically, if they to do in agriculture or technology, so basically what they have to do to plan.’ – (AD11 – Malaysian university leader)

4.10 Country-specific themes
In this section, country-specific themes will be discussed. Each country has different emphasis and findings from the qualitative analysis results. This section will provide an opportunity to look at the uniqueness of each national context of the social innovation field in terms of research and teaching at higher education institutions.

4.10.1 Malaysia

a. Engaging with communities as a part of social innovation teaching

In Malaysia, engaging with communities is considered an important part of social innovation teaching. In order to increase the students’ understanding of social innovation, HEIs often send their students to the community where the students can observe cases of social innovation in real life. Academics often involve villagers in class when the students develop a business proposal as a part of degree programmes. The students are expected to develop a business plan, which can help the villagers and minority groups such as indigenous people (Orang Asli) in Malaysia:

‘It is quite persuasive nowadays, that they want their students to go and experience real life in the community kind of innovations with social entrepreneurship.’ – (AC4 – Malaysian policymaker).

‘… we try to penetrate the awareness not only to the normal citizens, we tried to capture the small group of people including this Orang Asli (indigenous people) the minority group.’ – (AD5 – Malaysian university leader)

b. Social innovation activity impact measurement

Academics in Malaysia employ several approaches to measuring the impact of social innovation teaching activities. For example, some academics use a feedback diary, which enables the students to reflect and write what they learn every day. Some universities use the Customer Service Index\(^1\) or interviews to measure the success rate of social innovation relevant activities performed by their university. Some universities even include activities with social enterprises or social entrepreneurs as a key performance indicator (KPI) and measure its impacts using the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

‘We measure right after the programme. For example, we always do CSI, the Customer Service Index. So, the best one is actually measuring what is before and after, what is the retention of knowledge they have after they attended the programme.’ – (AA12 – Malaysian academic)

‘We are working very closely with what our factors emissions regarding SDGs. So which is our centre holding very tightly about is SDG AIDS, which helps in economic growth. So social enterprises or social entrepreneurs is a part of our key performance indicator.’ – (AD5 – Malaysian university leader)

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\(^1\) Customer Service Index measures overall satisfaction among customers. In this context, customers are students, and service is an educational programme.
4.10.2 The Philippines

a. Commercialising research

In the Philippines, unlike other countries, the term ‘commercialising research’ was mentioned. Researchers in the Philippines aim to commercialise their research in order to generate income for their higher education institutions. Creating social innovation related products or social enterprises is considered as an outcome of research, which potentially can help the university-wide entrepreneurship programmes. Commercialising research emphasises translating academic research into practice and creating a bigger impact in society, rather than aiming to be published:

‘In our case, what we really want to do is commercialise the research. Maybe there's a social impact purpose behind that, because we always say we have to utilise research in order to benefit society.’ – (CA5 – Filipino academic)

b. Passionate students

The participants mentioned that young people and students are generally passionate about social issues. They have a desire for meaningful work, hence they pursue careers outside of the corporate sector. Many students in the Philippines search for opportunities to work in the social innovation field, and consequently are perceived to be important actors in the social innovation sector:

‘I think students have always been interested. This generation is searching for meaning. A lot of them are searching for meaning. They want to do something that is having purpose or that's making sense.’ – (CB6 – Filipino practitioner)

4.10.3 Indonesia

a. Academics and higher education institutions as a change agency

In Indonesia, the role of social innovation scholar groups as an agency who make changes within a university has been emphasised. It shows that academics recognise themselves as a powerful agency, which can influence other stakeholder groups to make changes in the social innovation field. Academics often use their positions to influence organisational changes within their university. For example, academics who are in an administrative position influence their university to introduce social innovation schemes. Moreover, it was observed that senior executives of universities often led changes in adopting social innovation teaching within a university:

‘I changed the syllabus when I became the head of department…… I often asked other deans to include social enterprise teaching.’ – (BA2 – Indonesian academic)

Although academics recognise the power of social innovation scholars in making changes within universities, promoting social innovation teaching at a university level has not been easy in Indonesia. The interviewees specified that this is because many universities focus on achieving a higher global ranking instead of creating social impact:
‘Global ranking shouldn’t be the only objective … it is wrong …. [we need to have] policies that [promotes] lecturers with movements and great impacts … [we need to agree on] the measurements and the principles.’ – (BA22 – Indonesian academic)

The university bureaucracy, poor management of resources across the university, and misconception of the entrepreneurship teaching are also mentioned as barriers of social innovation research and teaching in Indonesia:

‘The main challenge is the misconception of the entrepreneurship teaching [in many campuses]. I see that people tend to think that at the end of the classes, students should open a reseller business. What should be taught is the ability to think critically for the social entrepreneurial aims … they become agents in society who have critical thinking.’
– (BA14 – Indonesian academic)

4.10.4 Vietnam

a. Lack of student interest in social innovation

The participants argued that students in Vietnam are not very interested in learning social innovation. Some interviewees mentioned that some students feel uncomfortable with learning social innovation as this topic is new for them, and social innovation often talks about social changes. Therefore, in Vietnam, the participants expect to change the mindset of students towards social innovation by performing new learning methods and encouraging families to discuss social issues at home:

‘Basically, everyone wasn’t taught to pay attention to society when they were young, I think for me, I was mostly ignored when I talked about that topic.’ – (DA7 – Vietnamese academic)

‘In fact, not all students are interested in social enterprise topics […] Many students don’t like it because it’s new. It’s a change and students often react against anything that change.’ – (DA16 – Vietnamese academic)

b. Lack of impact measurement of teaching

Measuring the impact of teaching could also provide evidence that social innovation teaching has positive impacts on the students. Currently, the impact of social innovation teaching at higher education institutions is not sufficiently measured in Vietnam:

‘While building the training programme, the school’s attitude standards said a lot about the contribution to society but the school hasn’t standardised it into something specific and assessable.’ – (DA17 – Vietnamese academic)

c. The role of stakeholders in higher education institutions

As the participants perceive the social innovation ecosystem as not being systematically developed in Vietnam, the role of higher education institutions was emphasised as promoting a (social) entrepreneurial culture by teaching, research, and communicating with various stakeholders in the field. Naturally, the importance of training lecturers was also addressed:
‘And the next is we must also pay attention to the training of lecturers. We may have to take them to long-term training courses to obtain specific qualifications. It is possible to obtain a bachelor, master, or doctorate degree for specific majors.’ – (DD40 – Vietnamese university leader)

It was argued that leaders of higher education institutions and the social innovation field should be aware of the importance of training teaching staff for improving their knowledge and understanding of social innovation, as teaching staff can create the direct impacts on students.

‘The university leaders must focus on this issue, and put it into the key performance indicators (KPI) too. If it’s voluntary, I’m not sure every lecturers of the school will voluntarily learn something new that doesn't cater to their career or career advancement.’ – (DA17 – Vietnamese academic)

4.10.5 South Korea

a. Limitations of government and policy support

Whilst the Korean participants had experienced an advanced legal system and policy support towards social innovation, they also had observed several limitations of this strong government and policy support. They admitted that the government has been leading the growth of social innovation sector in South Korea:

‘It is a positive that the state-led promotion of social enterprise has resulted in a very fast development of social enterprises.’ – (EA13 – Korean academic)

However, strong government intervention has influenced stakeholders to focus more on paperwork and evaluating their work according to the criteria given by the government to receive funding:

‘The government has its own style, so social enterprises are defined, standardised, and certified according to that style. Among organisations who received the government funding, only ventures that managed the paperwork are able to survive.’ – (EA8 – Korean academic)

Therefore, often the focus on social impact is forgotten. Additionally, the policy and financial support on social innovation is often given for a short period of time, which is not very supportive when trying to build a sustainable social innovation ecosystem:

‘The policies on social enterprise promotion is fixated on short term results. There is a need for a reinforcement of the processes that build social enterprise ecosystems. Also, there is a need for more specialised education on social enterprises.’ – (EA10 – Korean academic)

b. Undergraduate and postgraduate degree programmes on social innovation

Compared to other countries, there are relatively higher numbers of universities running undergraduate and postgraduate degree programmes on social innovation in Korea. Again, the influence and financial support from the government, such as the Ministry of Employment and
Labor and Ministry of Education, enabled the higher education institutions to establish degree programmes on social innovation:

‘Recently, with the rise in the importance of social innovation and the beginning of the government’s educational support programme – Link Project, we thought that we could carry out the founding ideology of our university.’ – (EA11 – Korean academic)

In Korea, degree programmes on social innovation started from establishing postgraduate courses and then moving to undergraduate courses. This is mainly because establishing a postgraduate course is easier than establishing an undergraduate course in Korean higher education institutions. Therefore, the existence of social innovation undergraduate degree programmes shows the high interests of higher education institutions, academics, students, the government, private sector, and society in social innovation. Participants emphasised that undergraduate social economy leadership courses enabled the students to learn social missions and start their career in the social economy sector.

‘Although there isn’t immense scrutiny into the areas in which students end up after completing these social economy leadership courses, there are many cases in which students learn about social missions and enter the social economy after their undergraduate courses.’ – (EC3 – Korean policymaker)

c. Limited collaboration between higher education institutions

The participants mentioned that collaboration between higher education institutions to support social innovation is limited in Korea. Higher education institutions aim to achieve a higher ranking every year; hence, higher education institutions see each other as competitors in terms of said ranking. As academics have a burden to publish more publications focused on higher rankings, they often feel that they do not have enough time and opportunity to collaborate with academics in other higher education institutions:

‘There have been no noteworthy cases of inter-university cooperation for social innovation. It simply isn’t established and lively yet. There is cooperation with institutions outside of college. I think it’s too early to expect cooperation because universities have their own standards and levels of preparation for social innovation.’ – (EA13 – Korean academic)

‘Cooperation is difficult even within a school. Everyone is also busy worrying about their own performance, so they are hesitant to spend money on cooperation between universities. Expanding the cooperation scope externally is difficult when even internal cooperation is not working.’ – (EA4 – Korean academic)

This tendency of limited collaboration between higher education institutions was observed more in the Seoul Metropolitan area where most top-ranked universities are competing with each other. Some interviewees suggested that universities in metropolitan areas collaborate with universities in regional areas to develop collaborative projects:

‘It’s possible to gather about three schools and have each one recruit students to run a joint project. I think it’s possible to connect universities in the metropolitan areas with
rural universities so that students can solve regional problems together.’ – (EA5 – Korean academic)

4.11 Summary

In this chapter, common and country-specific themes were discussed among the five countries, including Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam and Korea. In the five countries, the importance of social innovation research and teaching, limitations of social innovation research and teaching, conceptualising social innovation, government support towards social innovation teaching research, partnership and collaboration, and social innovation ecosystem were identified as common themes of the topic: social innovation research and teaching in higher education institutions. Although the five countries are located in the Asia Pacific Region and share some cultural and historical backgrounds, each country has different focuses on the social innovation topic. In summary:

1) The Malaysian participants emphasised the importance of engaging with communities for teaching and measuring the impact of teaching, returning to the themes explored in the literature review in relation to community engagement through teaching, the high degree of socially entrepreneurial behaviour amongst Malaysian students, and the key role that higher education institutions can play in driving this (Rahman et al., 2016; Wahid et al., 2019).

2) The participants from the Philippines mentioned the term ‘commercialising research’, which can support university programmes by creating a bigger research impact on society. This is an area that can act as a catalyst for driving the in-depth institutional engagement that is beginning to emerge in the country (European Union et al., 2017). They also see the students in the Philippines as being passionate about social issues and working in the social innovation field.

3) Unlike other countries, the Indonesian participants focused on the power of academics to make positive changes within universities to introduce social innovation schemes. Indeed, Sengupta et al. (2018) have argued that one of the strengths of the Indonesian ecosystem is the role of social networks within it. Academics ability to utilise these within and outside their higher education institutions is crucial in driving change across the higher education ecosystem.

4) Students in Vietnam are not very interested in social innovation relevant topics. Therefore, the Vietnamese academics emphasised the role of higher education institutions and lecturers to promote the (social) entrepreneurial culture of the country. Academics can therefore utilise innovative teaching methods to raise this awareness (Le, 2014), as well as engaging with corporates and other key stakeholders to drive wider interest in social innovation (Tran and Doan, 2015).

5) Lastly, the Korean participants focused more on the limitations of government and policy support towards social innovation research and teaching in higher education institutions, as the Korean participants had experienced advanced legal and policy support since 2006. Although there are many social innovation relevant degree programmes, partnership and collaborations between higher education institutions were not very active.
in Korea. There is therefore a need for both government and policymakers (Park and Wilding 2013; Jung, Jang, and Seo 2015; Jeong 2015; Lee 2015) and higher education institutions (Choi and Jang, 2018; Lee and Kim, 2018) to work to overcome these collaborative barriers, and create institutional and funding frameworks that reward social innovation partnerships and engagement.

The interview and focus group data has therefore revealed a rich and in many places vibrant ecosystem for social innovation across the five countries, albeit with different limitations in each country that are based on historical, cultural and institutional factors. Whilst some ecosystems such as Korea are highly developed, others including Indonesia and the Philippines remain less so, and further work by all stakeholders is required to drive growth in social innovation within higher education ecosystems.
5 Discussion

The aim of this research is to understand the social innovation related research, teaching and community engagement activities within higher education ecosystems across the South East and East Asia region. Further, the research seeks to understand how these are enabled/constrained at the practice, institutional and wider ecosystem levels within each higher education ecosystem. In doing so the research builds upon the Building Research Innovation for Community Knowledge and Sustainability (BRICKS) report for Hong Kong (Hazenberg, Wang, Chandra and Nicholls, 2019), but extends this work by also exploring conceptions of trust in key institutions and embedding ideas of social impact within the UN’s SDG framework. The findings as presented in Sections Three and Four will now be discussed in relation to the prior literature and triangulated together to form a holistic analysis. The discussion at each level will be shaped in relation to the three main pillars of focus (research, teaching and community engagement). This discussion will then lead to key recommendations being made (Section Six) and areas for future research identified (Section Seven).

5.1 Practice level

Across the five countries there was a generally well-developed research base, especially given the nascent nature of the social innovation ecosystems more widely in each country (with the exception of South Korea). A total of 351 publications focused on social innovation were identified across the five countries (262 academic publications and 89 non-academic publications), with a general trend across the five countries for increasing numbers of publications over time (combined $R^2 = 0.54)^{42}$. As discussed in Section Three, the majority of the research conducted is empirical, qualitative/mixed-methods research, but there is an increasing focus on quantitative research and a desire amongst participants to see a greater focus on business modelling, social innovation start-up ecosystems, social enterprise success factors, social impact measurement, social innovation policy implementation and case studies for teaching. Indeed, and as was identified in the Building Research Innovation for Community Knowledge and Sustainability (BRICKS) report (Hazenberg et al., 2019), there is a need to better understand the antecedents of social innovation, the consequences of such initiatives and the measurement of this value creation (Van der Have and Rubalcaba, 2016; Unceta, Castro-Spila and Garcia-Fronti, 2016). This demonstrates the upwards trend for social innovation research and publications across the five countries and shows that each higher education ecosystem is broadly matching the trends for increased social innovation research seen globally.

However, there were a number of limitations in relation to social innovation research identified in the interviews, with participants from all five countries arguing that a lack of funding was constraining research (further supported by the data showing high-levels of self-funded research or research being conducted with no funding). Issues surrounding research being too focused on theory with not enough practical relevance, as well as a lack of recognition of

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42 The highest rate of growth has been seen in South Korea ($R^2 = 0.91$) and Indonesia ($R^2 = 0.79$).
research that has high social impact, but is published in low impact factor journals, were also identified. These issues relate to concepts of the need for relational universities that are able to deliver innovation and impact in their localised communities (Gibbons, 2000; Castro-Spila and Unceta, 2014). The issue of ‘blue-sky academic research’ was one identified within the Hong Kong ecosystem (Hazenberg et al., 2019), whilst a lack of recognition of research impact is a global issue. Global examples of regulatory frameworks that reward research impact can be found in other higher education ecosystems, with the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) 2020 in Hong Kong⁴³ and the Research Excellence Framework (REF) 2021 in the UK⁴⁴, both recognising the practical/policy impact of research in their ranking assessments (accounting for 15% and 25% of a higher education institution’s overall score respectively). Further, issues relating to funding are not uncommon in other disciplines, with research funding (at least from traditional academic funders) having low application success rates generally (UK Research and Innovation (UKRI) figures show a 26-30 per cent success rate for competitive applications across England⁴⁵). Indeed, Suresh (2012) identified that a lack of quality consistency in the peer-review process for research funding applications, alongside coordinated framework across countries, regions and the world, is impeding the ability of scientific research to solve some of the social and environmental challenges facing humanity. Nevertheless, it is clear that these are issues that are hindering the social innovation research process at the practice-level in Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam and Korea.

Social innovation teaching has also experienced significant growth in recent years, with most countries seeing significant growth in the numbers of modules/courses focused on social innovation since 2010⁴⁶. Korea (R² = 0.49) and Vietnam (R² = 0.45) had the highest rates of growth over time, albeit positive trends were seen across all countries (overall R² = 0.31). A total of 311 modules/courses focused on social innovation were identified, with the vast majority of these being modules focused at the undergraduate level. Social innovation teaching was seen as a critical element in student’s development, as participants argued that it taught them communication skills, empathy, problem-solving, and analytical thinking, which are all key attributes required for the world of work. Indeed, this links into prior research that identified these as key attributes in social innovation education and in creating students that can change the world for the better (Elmes et al., 2015; Alden-Rivers et al., 2015).

However, there were also issues identified with social innovation teaching across the higher education ecosystems. Our data reveals that despite strong student interest in social innovation, the quality of curricula across the five countries was low. The research has identified that social innovation remains too dominated by business schools, while most curriculum remains modular and embedded into wider degree programmes, rather than their being degree programmes specifically focused on social innovation. The creation of such programmes is also not helped by the accreditation and quality-assurance processes within universities, which tend to be conservative and not aligned with SI principles. The need for more ‘place-based’ curriculum is critical in social innovation education (Elmes et al., 2015), but does not always occur, certainly

⁴⁴ See: https://www.ref.ac.uk/.
⁴⁵ UKRI (2019) award data at UKRI Tableau.
⁴⁶ Albeit some courses have existed on the topic since the 1970’s (Philippines) and 1980’s (Indonesia).
not in the five countries explored in this report. Indeed, universities are not always traditionally place-based organisations focused on local issues, as their focus is often on larger national and global frameworks (such as rankings). This overlooks the types of campus/community collaborations that can be key to driving social innovation (Nichols et al., 2013), and through which student engagement in the community is critical. This type of bottom-up led social innovation has also been evidenced as key to driving high levels of impact through innovation (Kruse et al., 2014). Finally, a lack of impact measurement in relation to the impact delivered by social innovation teaching was also discussed with participants arguing that this formed part of higher education institutions’ lack of institutional engagement in social innovation (see section 5.2 for more on this).

Community engagement was also an issue explored in the research, with the data revealing that there were 241 community engagements across the five countries, with a significant number of these engagements involving academics engaging as board members, volunteers or officers for community organisations (especially NGOs, schools and social enterprises). However, these were in general individual decisions made by academics to support local organisations, which while laudable, did not have wider strategic or institutional support behind them. Such activities are still very important, and the report does not seek to downplay this as they act as part of the process of community embeddedness for higher education institutions. However, they represent the informal elements of the ecosystem (formal academic collaborations are explored in section 5.2). Higher education institutions therefore taking a strategic role in supporting social innovation orientated collaborations would be powerful in driving growth in this area.

5.2 Institutional level

At the institutional level, a number of features were explored, with academic collaborations, formalised training programmes, inter-higher education institution partnerships and collaborations, strategic buy-in from senior academic leaders in higher education institutions, and trust in institutions all being examined. These will now be discussed in relation to social innovation, with relationships drawn with the wider literature and the other factors identified at the practice and systemic levels.

Academic collaborations with external organisations (N = 220) often involved engagement with NGOs and were centred on research (especially around capacity-building), while teaching-based collaborations were centred on invited speakers, joint teaching and off-campus activities for students. As was noted earlier, the need for collaborative research around innovation and place-based learning around teaching are both essential elements in driving social innovation (Nichols et al., 2013; Elmes et al., 2015). Therefore, there presence across the ecosystems should be welcomed. However, the majority of collaborations were led by individuals through their own social networks, rather than being driven by institutional partnerships between the higher education institutions and partners at a wider level. These collaborations can therefore

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47 Albeit in South Korea public sector bodies also made up a significant proportion (32 per cent) of collaborator organisations.
be referred to by what Tracey (2012:511) identified as ‘academic bricoleurs’, who use their networks to drive social innovation research and teaching. This demonstrates a lack of institutional engagement with social innovation across the ecosystems, which will be explored further shortly.

However, inter-higher education institution partnerships and collaborations centred on research and teaching were also not common. Indeed, of the 220 academic collaborations identified in the data, only 38 (17.2%) were between universities, with community organisations and NGOs accounting for the majority of these. Indeed, in Korea there were no social innovation based academic collaborations with other universities reported at all. While collaboration between higher education institutions is not always easy, as they are often direct competitors, collaboration to drive social innovation is critical. Further, there remains a lack of interest globally in social innovation, with research showing that universities were only engaged in 14.9 per cent of over 1,000 social innovations mapped around the world (Domanski, Anderson and Janz, 2019). This is not a new issue, with collaboration between higher education institutions a wider issue, and one identified also within the Hong Kong ecosystem in the Building Research Innovation for Community Knowledge and Sustainability (BRICKS) report (Hazenberg et al., 2019).

As was noted earlier, there are also issues surrounding both awareness/knowledge of social innovation amongst higher education institution senior leaders, but also around institutional strategic buy-in and funding for social innovation activities. The data in this report reveals that only 13 per cent of social innovation research identified across the five ecosystems was funded by the academic’s own higher education institution, with self-funding of research accounting for 31.5 per cent of all research funding methods. This is in part down to a lack of awareness or knowledge of social innovation amongst senior university leaders, as was acknowledged during the interviews. However, wider education programmes for senior academics are of paramount importance, if strategic buy-in to social innovation is to be enhanced. Certainly, prior research has identified the importance of decisive leadership and clear strategic direction when seeking to implement innovation for sustainable development in higher education institutions (Barnard and Van der Merwe, 2016); while attempts to integrate research and teaching strategies require effective strategic planning at senior levels (Lapworth, 2004). Prior research has also identified that reflective practices, mentoring and the embedding of institutional structures to implement senior leadership’s vision based upon new learning are critical in making higher education institutions true learning organisations (Gentle and Clifton, 2017). This suggests that ‘train the trainer’ models centred on social innovation are delivering only half the solution, with education for senior leadership within higher education institutions also critically needed to drive social innovation engagement.

This leads us onto the issue of training for university lecturers, which was also identified in this research as a critical element of social innovation ecosystem development. While this training should be focused on research and teaching, the majority of the focus within the data was centred on teaching skills. It was recognised that there is a need for enhanced quality of teaching that can lead to the better quality, embedded curricula discussed earlier. Alden-Rivers

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48 As noted earlier, this relates to academics funding their research through their own personal resources.
et al. (2015) argued for the need to train academics on how to teach social innovation so that they would have the capability to introduce and deliver innovative teaching methods. Further, lecturers need to have the skills to teach social innovation and solve complex problems, if they are to impart this knowledge on to students to do the same through experiential learning (Cederquist and Golük, 2016). Enhanced knowledge of what constitutes social innovation, how best to teach it, and the design of innovative modules/courses will only enhance social innovation curricula across South East and East Asia’s universities.

Finally, trust was explored within the survey, with the focus here on participants’ trust in their own higher education institution (wider issues of trust are discussed below in section 5.3). The data revealed that levels of trust in the academic’s own higher education institution was relatively high, with median levels ranging from seven to nine (scale range zero to ten). This certainly compares favourably when compared with trust in other institutions such as government and the legal system (see section 5.3). This data suggests that relationships between lower-level academics and their institutions is actually strong, providing a solid foundation for the development of social innovation within universities, if the right strategies and support can be put in place. Indeed, as was noted in Section 3.9, Trust is a key component in building collaborations and promoting social innovation either within or between organisations, as well as with communities (Sanzo et al., 2015; Morais-da-Silva, 2019), and so the tendency for academics to have high levels of trust in their own higher education institution bodes well for the creation of new institutional level partnerships to develop social innovation. High levels of trust were also held by academics in relation to civil society (communities and NGOs) suggesting that this also represents an area that future social innovation collaborations can thrive in.

5.3 Systemic level

The exploration to this point has focused on the social innovation related factors that have emerged at the practice and institutional levels within the higher education ecosystem. However, wider systemic factors are also significant shapers of how a social innovation ecosystem develops, even more so when the sector in question is higher education, with the connections to policy, regulation and government funding that this entails. This section will explore these systemic factors, with a specific focus on definitional issues surrounding social innovation (both social enterprise and social entrepreneurship), government support for social innovation through funding and curriculum development, research impact/performance frameworks, trust in wider societal institutions, the role of multi-sector collaborations and the impact of the SDGs in focusing attention on social problems.

Definition (or lack of) with respect to social innovation was a key issue raised during the interviews, as it was seen as a hindrance to raising-awareness of the concepts and therefore gaining buy-in for social innovation research and teaching within universities. This is a global problem, with definitional haziness a characteristic of the field of social innovation (Oeij et al., 2019) and a plethora of definitions for social innovation, social enterprise and social entrepreneurship in use throughout academia, government and policy. While some of the
countries had legal frameworks codifying what constitutes a social enterprise (notably Korea and Vietnam), this did not prevent issues of definition being a factor. This is an issue that is likely to continue, but if higher education sectors in the five countries can develop definitions and conceptual clarity, this will certainly help the development of the social innovation ecosystem. Indeed, this is an area that higher education institutions could potentially take the lead, as whilst the preference in most of the countries’ interview data was for top-down government work on this, higher education institutions collaborating with communities and NGOs to develop definitions of social innovation and social entrepreneurship that have local resonance, could help to deliver better conceptual frameworks whilst ensuring community buy-in. This would also allow communities to be empowered and to feel empowered around social innovation (Mulgan, 2019). Such definitional and empowerment work should also be combined with a large-scale awareness-raising campaign to increase knowledge of social innovation amongst the public.

Government support for social innovation was also explored in the data, with the findings revealing strong government and policy support in Korea, while Indonesia and the Philippines were characterised by a lack of government engagement. The support required includes increased funding for social innovation research and teaching, as well as policy initiatives to encourage the adoption of social innovation principles across a wide-array of disciplines (albeit there is a recognition here that this will be challenging). Nevertheless, in a world that increasingly sees higher education as a means to develop entrepreneurial, employable and socially conscious young people, the focus within social innovation on these attributes (Alden-Rivers et al., 2015) and on delivering ‘place-based’ learning (Elmes et al., 2015) should be welcomed by governments. This type of engagement between higher education institutions and government (or lack of in places) may be a factor behind the lack of trust that the academic respondents to the survey had in key institutions. While trust in their own higher education institution was high (as shown earlier), trust in government, the legal system and politicians was low (albeit trust in the UN was higher, whilst trust in civil society was also high). This disconnect between the systemic and practice levels though may damage the ability to grow social innovation through innovative policy and funding streams and suggest challenges in achieving top-down approaches to social innovation across the five countries.

The frameworks within which university performance is assessed also present challenges to growing social innovation in higher education, especially in relation to research. Indeed, a focus on journal rankings and impact factors within government and higher education institutions, means that academics are discouraged from engaging in research that whilst being very socially impactful, is ultimately published in what are perceived to be lower quality journals. This was an issue identified within the Hong Kong ecosystem as well (Hazenberg et al., 2019), whilst the need for impact driven research excellence frameworks was also identified earlier in the report in the literature review and in section 5.1. Indeed, the Research Excellence Framework (REF) 2021 in the UK49 and the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) 202050 in Hong Kong both have research impact embedded into their scoring systems (25 per cent and 15 per cent), incentivising higher education institutions to focus more on the social impact of research as

49 See: https://www.ref.ac.uk/.
opposed to just journal quality/impact factors (Research England, 2020; University Grants Committee, 2020).

Multi-sector collaboration and the need for engagement between higher education institutions and corporates (especially in relation to corporate social responsibility policies) were also identified by the participants as critical. Indonesia’s ecosystem leads the way here, with the government’s focus on corporate social responsibility and introduction of legislation to encourage corporate engagement with communities and sustainability issues helping to drive academic engagement also (Waagstein, 2011). This is an area where the UN’s SDGs can also play a role, with the focus on the social problems facing each country framed within the research as related to the SDGs.

In relation to the SDGs, social innovation could provide a framework for delivering on SDG 5: Gender Equality, as this research has shown that aside from in Vietnam, the majority of academic participants in this research were female (55 per cent). Indeed, in Indonesia and the Philippines this figure was as high as 59 per cent, while even in Vietnam 46 per cent of scholars were female. This represents a systemic shift when compared with other scholarly areas of study, with the proportion of female scientists in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) subjects globally being only 29 per cent (UNESCO, 2015). This is an area of the social innovation ecosystem in higher education that should be celebrated, with further research utilised to better understand why this trend has developed and how similar structural influences can be used to encourage higher levels of female participation in other areas of higher education.

Finally, academic collaborations seeking to solve problems related to other SDGs identified that across the four developing countries (Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Vietnam), the main SDG focus was on SDG 1: No Poverty; SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being; SDG 4: Quality Education; and SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth. In Korea, the focus was on SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities and SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being. In relation to social innovations and the SDGs, research by Eichler and Schwarz (2019) has demonstrated a split between SDG focus in developing and developed countries, with SDG/social innovation alignment in the former being centred upon SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth, SDG 1: No Poverty, SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being, and SDG 4: Quality Education. For developed countries their research showed that the key focuses of social innovation programmes were SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities, SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being and SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities (ibid). This aligns with the findings identified in this report, demonstrating that social innovation across the five countries are aligning in a typical fashion with global SDG focus based upon economic development. Given the disconnect between national/local governments identified in this research, and this alignment with global social innovation focus on the SDGs, it could be that the UN framework can become a lever for driving interest and growth in social innovation across the five higher education ecosystems.
6 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been produced from the cross-country analysis carried out in this report. As with the discussion carried out in Section Five, the below nine recommendations are presented at the practice, institutional and systemic levels.

1. Community engagement and embedded research/teaching (practice): Ensuring that research and teaching is embedded within the community, with co-design and collaborative principles (i.e. co-researchers or student projects involving real-life community issues) are critical to the development of the social innovation ecosystem. Such learning was also highlighted as being the most impactful for students and their highest preference. In practice, this requires greater collaboration between universities and NGOs/social enterprises, to enable this type of learning to be realised. Higher education institutions could also build in more experiential learning (i.e. work placements) into their curricula. This also increases the linkages between higher education institutions and their communities, which enhances some of the other areas outlined below.

2. Increasing social innovation teaching competency through capability-building (practice/institutional): The need for high-quality, experiential teaching and learning experiences for students were clearly identified across the five country reports. Capability-building programmes are critical in providing this support, as well as ensuring that academics are encouraged to engage in social innovation research and community engagement, and that they then use these to inform/support their teaching.

3. National/global higher education institution partnerships and benchmarking (practice/institutional): Inter-higher education institution partnerships between universities within the same country, but also globally, enhance higher education institution impact by ensuring that best-practice around social innovation is shared. It also allows for comparisons and benchmarking of performance between similar higher education institutions to highlight areas of institutional strength/weakness that can inform future development. Such partnerships also enhance opportunities for staff/student exchanges. Further, higher education institutions could commit to working towards submissions to the Times Higher Education Impact Rankings, which focus on higher education institution work around a minimum of four SDGs (including SDG 17: Partnership for Achieving the Goals).^51

4. Higher education institution strategic engagement and career tracks (institutional): Social innovation education and awareness-raising also needs to be carried out with senior university leaders/management. This is critical so as to ensure that future embedding of social innovation principles and activities are carried out from an informed position and with the strategic support that is crucial to success. Academic career tracks that also reward research and teaching-led social impact will both encourage greater academic engagement.

with social innovation, whilst ensuring that the leaders of tomorrow also increasingly emerge from social innovation backgrounds.

5. **Embedding of social innovation across all academic disciplines (institutional/systemic):** Government policy and higher education institution leadership can encourage the embedding of social innovation principles within all degree programmes (existing and new), both with regard to social innovation focused degree programmes, but also elective/compulsory modules focused on social innovation (at least in part) embedded into wider curricula. Recognition of social innovation course content within curricula accreditation and quality assurance frameworks would also enhance the teaching of social innovation.

6. **Funding for social innovation research and teaching (institutional/systemic):** There is a need for additional funding from both within higher education institutions and also from national funding bodies/government to support social innovation research and teaching. Currently, a significant amount of research is unfunded/self-funded, while a lack of funding to develop new courses stymies the growth of social innovation modules and degree programmes.

7. **Cross-sector partnerships (institutional/systemic):** Universities need to engage in more cross-sector partnerships with private (especially corporates), public (government agencies and public service deliverers) and third (NGOs, charities and social enterprises) sectors. Government policy/funding can support this multi-stakeholder working, whilst an enhanced focus on incubators within higher education institutions can help to start-up and scale social enterprises.

8. **Impact focused performance management for higher education (systemic):** University systems across the five countries should focus more on social impact and social value creation in their performance management and quality assurance frameworks. For research, this could include assessments of research excellence utilising minimum weightings for university scores (as is seen in the UK Research Excellence Framework and Hong Kong’s Research Assessment Exercise). For teaching, it could involve ensuring that programme accreditation procedures and performance evaluation seek to understand impact and align with the SDGs and can contribute towards a higher education institution’s potential submission to the *Times Higher Education Impact Rankings* as outlined earlier. Engagement in these types of ranking platforms would encourage greater social responsibility and engagement within social innovation ecosystems.

9. **Common definitional understanding of social innovation across higher education (systemic):** While definitions of social innovation remain difficult subjects even in academia focused on the subject, there is a need within higher education ecosystems to define what constitutes social innovation (both social enterprise and social entrepreneurship). This will enable government policy, higher education institution strategic decisions and academics working on the ground to ensure that they are working towards common objectives based on uniform understanding across the ecosystem. This definition does not have to be top-down, but can be led by higher education institutions, communities and NGOs, and should be combined with awareness-raising on social innovation and related concepts.
Table 6.1 overleaf details the individual recommendations from each country that have been used to create the synthesised list above\textsuperscript{52}.

Table 6.1: Recommendations for enhancing social innovation in higher education ecosystems across the five countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Practice level</th>
<th>Institutional level</th>
<th>Systemic level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>• Research informing teaching and vice-versa</td>
<td>• Continued capability building/training on social innovation for scholars</td>
<td>• Develop a comprehensive, multi-level research agenda for social innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increasing social innovation teaching competencies</td>
<td>• Meso-level collaboration within/between higher education institutions to prevent silo working</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>• Embedded curriculum with practitioners focused on projects/problem-solving</td>
<td>• Higher education institution funding to support social innovation research and to create new social innovation degree programmes</td>
<td>• Change to performance management frameworks for higher education institutions (focus on impact)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• International partnerships &amp; benchmarking against global curricular</td>
<td>• Private partnerships with corporates to fund social innovation activities</td>
<td>• Systemic changes to higher education focused on empathy-building for faculty and students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Deeper community engagement for delivering research, teaching and impact</td>
<td>• Inter- higher education institution partnerships to enhance impact</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>• Embedded curriculum with practitioners focused on projects/problem-solving</td>
<td>• Higher education institution career tracks that recognise social innovation focused research, teaching and community work</td>
<td>• Embedding of social innovation across all academic disciplines within higher education institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• International partnerships &amp; benchmarking against global curricular</td>
<td>• Innovative funding streams for social innovation activities from private/public and third sectors</td>
<td>• Government funding/policy to support partnership working across higher education institutions on social innovation (including incubation programmes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Deeper community engagement for delivering research, teaching and impact</td>
<td>• Partnerships between higher education institutions and practitioners to enhance the higher education experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Social innovation support for university alumni</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>• Deeper community engagement for delivering research, teaching and impact</td>
<td>• Higher education institution research to lead development of social innovation, working alongside development programmes</td>
<td>• Develop common definitions/understanding of social innovation across higher education institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Embedding of social innovation across all academic disciplines within higher education institutions</td>
<td>• Multi-sector collaboration between private/public/third/ higher education sectors on social innovation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{52} Not all of the below recommendations have been incorporated into the above list, as some were considered too country specific.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Practice level</th>
<th>Institutional level</th>
<th>Systemic level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Vietnam | - Increasing social innovation teaching competencies  
          - Enhanced opportunities for academics to engage in social innovation research  
          - Deeper community engagement for delivering research, teaching & impact  
          - Continued capability building/training on social innovation for scholars  
          - Increase awareness/knowledge of social innovation amongst higher education institution senior leadership  
          - Government to use social impact measurement to recognise systemic impact  
          - Government funding/policy to support partnership working across higher education institutions on social innovation | - Increased funding for social innovation research, including wider geographical focus  
   | Vietnam | | - Increased financial incentives for social innovation organisations |
7 Further research opportunities

The following areas for further research have been produced from the cross-country analysis carried out in this report. These represent generalised areas for further research that can be carried out across the South East and East Asian regions.

1. **Definitions:** Research should seek to define what social innovation constitutes in each country, and indeed see if conceptualisations of social innovation differ within each country in different regional areas. Ensuring that such definitional work also recognises the different types of social innovation that can emerge within an ecosystem typology at different levels would also support this understanding development.

2. **Personal agency:** What motivates individuals to engage in social innovation and what personal attributes lead to the most successful social innovation projects. Specific focus here on:
   a. academics across different disciplines
   b. the role of gender
   c. youth engagement.

3. **Social impact:** What is the social impact of social innovation initiatives in HEIs (and in wider society)? Specific focus here on:
   a. social value as a key aspect in evaluating academic funding streams and programmes\(^{53}\)
   b. empowering communities and reducing disadvantage
   c. impact on students’ post-graduation of engaging with social innovation during their studies
   d. indirect impact of government policy and funding initiatives.
      a. Value generated through corporate social responsibility and corporate partnerships. Specifically, these include:
         i. corporate partnerships that seek to leverage research and development resources towards socially innovative/impactful research and projects
         ii. corporate social responsibility funds utilised to support social innovations, with corporates using their financial and human resources to deliver social impact.

4. **Incubation, sustainability and scaling:** What are the support needs of social innovators (with the most prominent of these being social enterprises) and other socially innovative organisations and how can they be helped to start-up, scale and remain sustainable entities (economically and socially)? Specific focus here on:
   a. needs assessments for social enterprises (and socially innovative organisations)
   b. university incubator efficacy for social enterprises (and socially innovative organisations)

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\(^{53}\) For more information on social value see [Social Value International](https://www.socialvalueinternational.org). This focus on social value and impact could also include approaches to monetise impacts, so as to demonstrate the fiscal benefit delivered by higher education institutions through their social innovation work.
5. **Normalising social innovation**: How can the concepts of social innovation be normalised in wider society and awareness raised of what they are and how they can deliver social impact? Specifically:
   
a. how can social innovation be used to promote social justice?
   
b. how can social innovation be utilised in peace-building initiatives, particularly in areas of substantial conflict?

Table 7.1 overleaf details the individual areas for future research to emerge from each country that have been used to create the synthesised list above.

### Table 7.1: Opportunities for future research across the five countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Future research opportunities$^{54}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>• Defining social innovation at the individual, institutional and ecosystem levels within Indonesia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Exploring what it means to be a social innovation academic, what individual characteristics drive personal agency in this area, how do institutional environments enable/constrain behaviour and how can individuals shape the wider social innovation ecosystem?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o What geographical differences exist i.e. most scholarly attention in ‘Indonesia’ is actually focused on Java?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o How can female scholars be encouraged to engage with social innovation and do barriers for them differ to their male counterparts?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• How can academia effectively engage with communities in a manner that encourages empowerment and reduced disadvantage?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>• Higher education institution motivation to engage in social innovation and the impact that is delivered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Is higher education institution engagement in social innovation a good thing and does it lead to beneficial impacts in communities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Understanding of the historical origins of social innovation in Korea and higher education, and using this to map out likely future directions of travel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o What does the Korean social innovation ecosystem compare with higher education sectors internationally?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• How closely do higher education institutions’ work with communities align with their organisational mission statements and intentions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>• How do higher education institutions fund/support the wider social innovation ecosystem and what is the return on investment of this (economically and socially)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o What is the efficacy of university incubators around social innovation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• How do strategic partnerships with the private/public/third sectors create social value and enhance the student experience?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• How can higher education institutions raise public awareness of social innovation and use this to channel resources from the wealthy into social innovation initiatives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Within this how can society be rebalanced along social justice and citizens be encouraged to engage in social innovation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>• Carry out needs assessments for social enterprises to understand how they can be encouraged to sustain and scale.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^{54}$ Not all of the below recommendations for future research have been incorporated into the above list, as some were considered too country specific.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Future research opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|         | • How can youth engagement with social innovation be encouraged, and what are their motivators and reward structures?  
         | • What is the impact of research/teaching on students during and after their studies? |
| Vietnam | • What is the direct impact of research in communities and in supporting social innovation?  
         |   o How can this data be used to leverage increased funding and policy-support for social innovation research in higher education?  
         | • What is the impact of research/teaching on students during and after their studies?  
         |   o How can this data be used to leverage increased funding and policy-support for social innovation courses/modules in higher education? |
References


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83. Suresh, S. (2012). Global challenges need global solutions: Subra Suresh sets out the institutional reforms needed for collaborative action among international research-funding agencies to tackle the challenges humanity faces. *Nature*, 490(7420), 337-338.


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Appendices

Appendix A – Methodology

Research Design
The research employed a convergent parallel mixed-methods design (Cresswell, 2015) to map out the current social innovation (SI) and social entrepreneurship (SE) landscape in higher education institutions across the Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam. This allowed the simultaneous and separate collection of quantitative and qualitative data, producing a broad picture from multiple angles. The study involved desk-based research (review of the academic and grey literature), quantitative data collection through an online survey, and qualitative data collection through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions.

Country Specific Literature Reviews
A desk-based review with regards to social innovation and social entrepreneurship research/teaching landscapes was performed to explore country-specific trends and issues so as to: identify the leading HEIs for social innovation and social entrepreneurship in each country; identify the research that has/is taking place from academic, practice and policy perspectives in each country; discern what government support is available for promoting social innovation/social entrepreneurship research/teaching in higher education (and the education system at large) in each country; and pinpoint what additional support is available to support social innovation/social entrepreneurship research/teaching in HE, including from foundations, impact investors, corporates and NGOs. The literature reviews also allowed for the identification of proxy measures for trust and collaboration used in the survey. This in-depth review helped develop a holistic map of the social innovation and social entrepreneurship ecosystems in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam.

Measures and Participants
The online survey had a total of 253 respondents from higher education institutions (HEIs) across Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam. Purposive sampling was used in this study, so as to target academics in HEIs with existing curricula related to social innovation/social entrepreneurship and HEIs with completed/ongoing research projects on social innovations/social entrepreneurship.

A total of 76 interviews were conducted involving 78 participants, as well as 27 focus group discussions with 115 participants. Therefore, 193 stakeholders from the HE ecosystems in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, South Korea and Vietnam were engaged in the qualitative phase of the research. These stakeholders included: 1) Academics, 2) Practitioners (Social Entrepreneurs, Incubators, NGOs, Investors/Funders); 3) Policy-makers and Government; and 4) Students. The choice of interview and focus groups was made based upon stakeholder availability and type during the fieldwork.
Data Collection

Online Survey:
The online survey was designed to assess the quantity and quality of social innovation/social entrepreneurship related research, teaching and community engagement (see Appendix C). The survey also contained proxy measures to assess the levels of trust and collaboration across the academic sector. The survey was aimed solely at academics and university staff, as the other stakeholder groups’ perceptions were explored in the semi-structured interviews and focus groups. The link to the online survey was disseminated through the networks of the local research teams, a database built during the desk review, and social media (Facebook and Twitter) and personal networks. Snowball sampling was also carried out so as to increase the number of respondents.

Interviews and Focus Group Discussions:
Semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were designed to explore the social innovation/social enterprise research, teaching, and community engagement that is already occurring across the five countries, as well as to understand the barriers to collaboration between higher education institutions and different stakeholder groups. It also helped the researchers identify additional themes not covered in the survey and explore deeper understandings of those themes that emerged. Specific interview schedules were produced for each of the three main stakeholder groups listed below, as well as a specific guide for the focus groups (see Appendix B). Interviewees were asked to read and sign the consent form prior to the interviews/FGDs commencing. The interviews were audio-recorded and fully transcribed prior to analysis.

Analysis
The quantitative data analysis was implemented on the data gathered through the online survey and mainly consisted of descriptive statistics analysis, as well as quantifying other research data (e.g. the publication lists). Additional analysis included Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Cross-tabulation and correlations. These analyses were implemented using Excel and SPSS.

For the analysis of qualitative data (semi-structured interviews and focus group discussion), the ‘Constant Comparative Method’ (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Lincoln and Guba, 1985) was applied. The Constant Comparative Method is an iterative procedure designed for the qualitative analysis of text and is based on ‘Grounded Theory’ (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This method of analysis focuses on a process where categories emerge from the data via inductive reasoning rather than coding the data according to predetermined categories (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). The researchers engaged with the five stages of the Constant Comparative Method listed below (McLeod, 1994):

- Immersion – discernibly different concepts called “units of analysis” are identified from the data
- Categorization – “units of analysis” with similar meanings are grouped together under a “category”, based on a rule of inclusion
• Phenomenological reduction – “themes” emerge from the “categories” and are reported by the researchers
• Triangulation – additional data are used to validate and support researchers’ interpretations of the “themes”
• Interpretation – overall interpretation in relation to prior research or theoretical models

The data from both the quantitative and qualitative datasets were used together through a process of triangulation to support each other and develop a rich understanding of the social innovation and social entrepreneurship ecosystems in each country.
Appendix B – Consent form and interview questions

Consent Form
Research being conducted as part of the SIHE project

This research is being conducted as part of the ‘Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape’ research being carried out in Malaysia, Indonesia, Philippines, Vietnam and South Korea. The project provides an innovative and impactful approach to supporting the development of social innovation and social entrepreneurship in universities across the five countries. The research is being conducted by the Institute for Social Innovation and Impact at the University of Northampton, UK. The Institute is an external research partner.

Your participation in today’s interview that is part of the research is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw at any time. The interview will be audio recorded to ensure that we are able to obtain the richest dataset from the session. The recordings will be transcribed for analysis. All data will be stored in a confidential manner, which means that no-one outside of the research team will have access to the transcriptions or recordings.

The information from today’s interview will be used to compile a report exploring the wider social innovation/social enterprise ecosystems in Malaysia, Indonesia, Philippines, Vietnam and South Korea, that will be presented at conferences and also published publicly. The research data may also be used by the University of Northampton for the production of journal papers. All quotes provided by yourself will be presented only in an anonymous form in the report, so that you are not identifiable in the wider research. This means that it will not be possible to identify you by name or connect the information you have given to any of your personal details. However, it is important to be aware that given the context of what you discuss, some people within the SIHE project may be able to identify you from the quotes.

Should you wish to access the findings from this research then you can contact a member of the research team at their email below. Your participation in this research is very much valued and is extremely important to the research team in allowing them to understand the impact of the programme.

If you are happy to take part in this research and proceed with the interview, then please complete the section below.

Name: ....................................................... Signature:
........................................................................
Date ........................................

Professor Richard Hazenberg richard.hazenberg@northampton.ac.uk, Dr Toa Giroletti toa.giroletti@northampton.ac.uk and Dr Jieun Ryu jieun.ryu@northampton.ac.uk at the University of Northampton.
1. Information about the Participant and Their Organisation

1-1. Please tell me a little about your role at your University and your work on social innovation and social enterprise?

1-2. Is your work and department also related to a health issue?
   - If yes, which key health issue is addressed?
   - Who is the partner organisation?
   - What are outcomes and impacts?

2. General Questions about Social Innovation and Social Enterprise

2-1. Can you describe how social innovation and social enterprise are defined in [insert country name]?
   - What is a source of the definition that you provided?
   - How social innovation and social enterprise are related to each other?
   - Any keywords?

2-2. Can you describe how you see the social innovation / social enterprise ecosystem in [insert country name]?
   - Is it new or mature? Why?
   - Is it a growing sector? Why or why not?

2-3. Who are main stakeholders of the social innovation / social enterprise ecosystem in [insert country name]?
   - Government departments and agencies
   - Universities
   - Social enterprises / social entrepreneurs
   - Finance sector (social finance organisations and investors)
   - Networking organisations
   - Local communities
   - Others

3. The Role of Higher Education Institutes in Boosting Social Innovation and Social Enterprise

3-1. What role you think universities can play in boosting social innovation and social enterprise? Is one more important than the others?
3-2. Do you work/collaborate with other organisations or stakeholders for boosting social innovation and social enterprise in [insert country name]?
   • If yes, can you please give an example?
     o Which organisation / stakeholder?
     o Which topic? (social innovation, social enterprise, social impact…)
     o What purpose?
       ▪ Research: data collection, data analysis, writing publications
       ▪ Teaching: Curriculum development and design, curriculum delivery
       ▪ Incubation: incubating and accelerating students or faculty established social enterprises
       ▪ Others?
     o How long have you collaborated on this project?
     o Outcomes / Impacts

4. Research

4-1. What are the current/future research trends in the social innovation and social enterprise field in [insert country name]?

4-2. (IF APPLICABLE) What are your main research interests in relation to social innovation and social enterprise?

4-3. (IF APPLICABLE) What are your main challenges in relation to social innovation and social enterprise research?
   • Funding
   • Publishing
   • Collaboration
   • Others

5. Education & Teaching

5-1. What are teaching trends in the social innovation and social enterprise field in [insert country name]?
   • Innovative teaching methods

5-2. (IF APPLICABLE) In relation to teaching, what are your main challenges in relation to:
- Utilising research to inform teaching?
- Collaborating with other partners (HEIs, NGOs, SEs etc.)?
- Engaging students with social innovation?
- Measuring the quality of teaching?

5-3. Do you think there is sufficient/high quality curriculum to teach social innovation and social enterprise in universities? Why or why not?
- If yes, could you please give some examples of the curriculums?
  - Which university?
  - What topic?
  - Developer/lecturer?
  - Teaching method?
  - Outcomes/impact?

5-4. What curriculum should be developed in the future to teach social innovation and social enterprise in universities?

5-5. Please describe how students engage with social innovation and social enterprise education and how this has changed.

5-6. Please tell me how you and your university measure the quality of social innovation and social enterprise courses and programs.
- Qualitative or Quantitative?
- What are criteria?
- Student satisfaction measurement
- Job placement: number of students who are working in the social innovation field after graduation?

6. Policy

6-1. Are there any government policies supporting social innovation and social innovation research and teaching in universities in [insert country name]?
- If yes, can you please name the policy?
- How is the policy supporting social innovation and social enterprise research and teaching in universities?
- When did it start?

6-2. Please provide, if any, recommendations for the policy developments on social innovation and social enterprise research and teaching.

7. Community Engagement
7-1. (IF APPLICABLE) Please tell me about your community engagement work?

7-2. (IF APPLICABLE) In relation to community engagement, what are your main challenges in relation to:
- Funding?
- Securing partnerships?
- Linking KE to teaching/research?

8. External Funding and Financial Support

8-1. How do you see the financial landscape of social innovation and social enterprise research and teaching in [insert country name]?
- Are there enough external funding available for the sector?
- Do you think external funds are well distributed within the sector?
- Please consider the type of funds:
  - Government funding
  - Private funding
  - Religion-based funding
  - Donation
  - Others

9. General Challenges

9-1. In relation to your expertise and perception of what is the most pressing social problem facing [insert country name], please pick one and tell me how you think the social innovation ecosystem can be used to solve/reduce the issue?
- Student education
- Elderly/Ageing
- Children/Youth
- People with disabilities
- Gender
- Unemployment
- Minority ethnic groups
- Social/Economic Disadvantage

10. Closing Question

10-1. Is there anything that I haven’t asked you that you think is important or wish to discuss?
SIHE Interview Questions
[Practitioner / Social Entrepreneur / Incubator / Intermediary / Non-profit Professional]

1. Information about the Participant and Their Organisation

1-1. Please tell me about your organisation?
   • Industry/Sector
   • Main social objective
   • Main business activities
   • Age of the organisation
   • Size of the organisation
   • Main customers/target beneficiaries

1-2. Is your work and organisation also related to a health issue?
   • If yes, which key health issue is addressed?
   • Who is the partner organisation?
   • What are outcomes and impacts?

1-3. Please tell me a little about your role at your organisation and your work on social innovation and social enterprise?

2. General Questions about Social Innovation and Social Enterprise

2-1. Can you describe how social innovation and social enterprise are defined in [insert country name]?
   • What is a source of the definition that you provided?
   • How social innovation and social enterprise are related to each other?
   • Any keywords?

2-2. Can you describe how you see the social innovation / social enterprise ecosystem in [insert country name]?
   • Is it new or mature? Why?
   • Is it a growing sector? Why or why not?

2-3. Who are main stakeholders of the social innovation / social enterprise ecosystem in [insert country name]?
   • Government departments and agencies
   • Universities
   • Social enterprises / social entrepreneurs
   • Finance sector (social finance organisations and investors)
   • Networking organisations
3. The Role of Higher Education Institutes in Boosting Social Innovation and Social Enterprise

3-1. What role you think universities can play in boosting social innovation and social enterprise? Is one more important than the others?
- Research
- Teaching
- Community engagement
- Policy recommendations
- Others (e.g. connecting stakeholder, raising awareness, and others)

3-3. Do you work/collaborate with universities for boosting social innovation and social enterprise in [insert country name]?
- If yes, can you please give an example?
  - Which universities?
  - Which topic? (social innovation, social enterprise, social impact...)
  - What purpose?
    - Research: data collection, data analysis, writing publications
    - Teaching: Curriculum development and design, curriculum delivery
    - Incubation: incubating and accelerating students or faculty established social enterprises
    - Others?
  - How long have you collaborated on this project?
  - Outcomes / Impacts

4. Research

4-1. How can academic research in [insert country name] best support your work?

4-2. (IF APPLICABLE) What are your main challenges in engaging academics to support you with research?
- Funding
- Collaboration
- Academic interest
- Others

5. Education
5-1. (IF APPLICABLE) Do you think there is sufficient/high quality curriculum to teach social innovation and social enterprise in universities? Why or why not?
   • If yes, could you please give some examples of the curriculums?
     o Which university?
     o What topic?
     o Developer/lecturer?
     o Teaching method?
     o Outcomes/impact?

5-2. (IF APPLICABLE) How could HEI curriculum better support social innovation organisations?

5-3. (IF APPLICABLE) If you are an incubator, do you work/collaborate with universities to attract participants to the incubation centre?
   • If yes, could you please give some examples of collaborations?
     o Which university?
     o How do you advertise incubation programmes?
     o What are outcomes – how many students are participating the incubation programmes?
     o How do you measure the success of your incubation centre and incubation programmes? What are key performance indicators?
   • If not, could you please tell me what are main challenges to work / collaborate with universities?

6. Policy

6-1. Are there any government policies supporting social innovation and social innovation in [insert country name]?
   • If yes, can you please name the policy?
   • How is the policy supporting social innovation and social enterprise?
   • When did it start?

6-2. Please provide, if any, recommendations for the policy developments on social innovation.

7. Community Engagement

7-1. (IF APPLICABLE) Please tell me if you or your organisation is involved in community engagement work with a university.
   • If yes, can you please give an example?
   • If not, would you consider collaborate with a university for community engagement activities? Why or why not?
7-2. (IF APPLICABLE) In relation to community engagement with universities, what are your main challenges in relation to:
   - Funding?
   - Securing partnerships?
   - Others?

8. External Funding and Financial Support

8-2. How do you see the financial landscape of social innovation and social enterprise research and teaching in [insert country name]?
   - Are there enough external funding available for the sector?
   - Do you think external funds are well distributed within the sector?
   - Please consider the type of funds:
     - Government funding
     - Private funding
     - Religion-based funding
     - Donation
     - Others

9. General Challenges

9-1. In relation to your expertise and perception of what is the most pressing social problem facing [insert country name], please pick one and tell me how you think the social innovation ecosystem can be used to solve/reduce the issue?
   - Student education
   - Elderly/Ageing
   - Children/Youth
   - People with disabilities
   - Gender
   - Unemployment
   - Minority ethnic groups
   - Social/Economic Disadvantage

10. Closing Question

10-1. Is there anything that I haven’t asked you that you think is important or wish to discuss?
SIHE Focus Group Questions

1. **Introduction:** Please briefly introduce yourself and your organisation and how you are linked to social innovation and social enterprises.
   - **Academic focus group:** what are your research and teaching interests?
   - **Practitioner focus group:** have you involved in any research and teaching activities at a university in your country?

2. **Collaboration Examples:**
   - **Academic focus group:** Have you or your university collaborated to teach or research social innovation and social enterprises with each other?
   - **Practitioner focus group:** have you or your organisation collaborated with a university to teach or research social innovation and social enterprises in your country?
     - If yes, how did the collaboration started and when?
     - Which specific topic have you worked on together?
       - Social innovation / social enterprise / social entrepreneurship / social impact…
     - In which area?
       - Research: data collection, data analysis, writing publications
       - Teaching: Curriculum development and design, curriculum delivery
       - Incubation: incubating and accelerating students or faculty established social enterprises
       - Community engagement
       - Others
     - What are outcomes and impacts of the collaboration?
     - What are limitations and challenges of the collaboration?
     - Do you plan to improve or expand the collaborated project?

3. **Collaboration Barriers:**
   - **Academic focus group:** If you haven’t, why not? What were challenges to collaborate with each other?
   - **Practitioner focus group:** why haven’t you or your organisation collaborated with a university in terms of research and teaching social innovation and social enterprise?
     - What were the challenges/barriers?

4. **Future Collaboration:**
   - **Academics & Practitioners:** Would you and your organisations look for (more) opportunities to collaborate with other organisations for teaching and researching on social innovation and social enterprise?
     - If yes, do you have any specific interest?
       - Research
       - Teaching
       - Incubation
       - Community engagement
       - Others
     - Do you prefer a certain type of partner organizations?
       - Universities
- Social enterprises
- Non-profit organisations
- Incubators
- International organisations
- Private organisations
- Others
  o If no, why not?

5. Support:
- **Academics & Practitioners**: What kind of support would be needed in supporting collaborations between universities and other stakeholders for teaching and researching on social innovation and social enterprise?

6. Finish:
- **Academics & Practitioners**: Is there anything that we haven’t discussed that you think is important or wish to discuss?
Appendix C – Online Survey

The below represents a Word version of the online survey utilised in the research across the five countries.

Social Innovation and Social Entrepreneurship Research and Teaching Landscape Survey

Page 1: Reason and Ethics

Dear Respondent,

The survey is part of the Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape project, which is an initiative led by the British Council in consortium with the Institute for Social Innovation and Impact at the University of Northampton (United Kingdom), Universiti Teknologi PETRONAS (Malaysia), the Social Innovation in Health Initiative at the University of the Philippines Manila (Philippines), University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City (Vietnam), BINA NUSANTARA Institute (Indonesia), and the Centre for Social Value Enhancement Studies (South Korea).

The project is funded by the British Council through its Global Social Enterprise programme. The project will work to support and promote the growth of social innovation and social enterprises by recognising the critical role that education can play in fostering entrepreneurship and social responsibility. Within this framework we intend social innovations as the ‘changes in the cultural, normative or regulative structures [or classes] of the society which enhance its collective power resources and improve its economic and social performance’ (Heiscala, Social innovations: structural and power perspectives, 2007:59).

The Social Innovation and Higher Education Landscape survey is a fundamental element in the delivery of this project, as it will assess the social innovation and social entrepreneurship related research, teaching, and community engagement in the five countries. In particular, it aims at mapping and investigating those higher education institutions engaged with the social innovation and social entrepreneurship communities. We aim to collect insights from academics who conduct or wish to conduct academic research, teaching, knowledge-transfer partnerships or service learning activities, relating to social innovation and/or social entrepreneurship. We kindly ask you to share the link of the survey with any academics you know involved in Social Innovation and Social Enterprise.

The survey is part of these efforts to support the higher education social innovation and social entrepreneurship community to further these two areas as fields of research and action. All questions in the survey are voluntary and you do not have any obligation in responding. For simplicity you can pause the survey at any point, the system will ask you the email address where you want to receive your new personal link to complete the survey (please remember the survey will be closing the 30/11/2019). Moreover, the data will be anonymised, we will not share your personal data with anyone, and you will not be identified in any way in publications. We will be producing a comprehensive report to be published in early 2020 and will also be running two conferences to discuss the findings, and we hope to engage all survey respondents in these activities.
The survey should take no more than 20 minutes to complete, if you have any further questions, comments or reflections, please send them to: richard.hazenberg@northampton.ac.uk; jieun.ryu@northampton.ac.uk; and toa.giroletti@northampton.ac.uk.

All the data is securely stored in accordance with the GDPR 2018 legislation (to know more about the GDPR regulation please visit https://eugdpr.org). By law, you can ask us what information we hold about you, and you can ask us to correct it if it is inaccurate. You can also ask for it to be erased and you can ask for us to give you a copy of the information. You can also ask us to stop using your information – the simplest way to do this is to send us an email by using the contact details above. We will be able to withdraw or change your information until the 31/12/2019, afterward it will not be possible because the results will be produced and published.

**Page 2: Demographic and affiliation information.**

The questions in this section aim at collecting some information about yourself. In particular, demographic characteristics, affiliation, and role.

1. What is your name? (Please provide surname first and then your given name) __________________________

2. When were you born? (DD/MM/YYYY) __________________________

3. What is you gender (please select one)?
   1) Female
   2) Male
   3) Transgender
   4) Other (Please specify) __________________________

4. What is your Institutional affiliation (if applicable, please specify also the department/organisation/institution within the University)? __________________________

5. What is your main field of academic expertise (please select one)?
   1) Arts and Humanities
   2) Business
   3) Engineering
   4) Geography
   5) Health
   6) History
   7) Law
   8) Medicine
   9) Natural Sciences
  10) Politics
  11) Sociology
12) Education
13) Economics
14) Other (please specify) ________________________

6. Please indicate your chosen academic career track (please select one):
   1) Research and Teaching
   2) Research
   3) Teaching

7. How long have you worked in the Social Innovation/Social Enterprise field (Research or Teaching)?
   1) Less than a year
   2) In between 1 and 5 years
   3) In between 5 and 10 years
   4) More than 10 years

8. What is your main role/position (please select one)?
   1) Researcher/ Senior Researcher
   2) Lecturer/ Senior Lecturer
   3) Associate Professor/ Assistant Professor
   4) Incubation Center Director/Manager
   5) Professor
   6) Instructor/Trainer
   7) Department Chair
   8) Program Director
   9) Dean/Faculty director
   10) Rector/Vice Chancellor/President
   11) Other (please specify) ________________________

Page 3: Academic publications

The questions on this page aim at investigating your academic publications relevant to social innovation and social enterprise (book chapters, academic journal, reports, etc…). If you do not have any, please go to the bottom of the page and skip by clicking “Next”.

Please list the most relevant 5 your academic publications pertinent to Social Innovation or Social Enterprise.

9. First publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
a) Academic publication one. Please insert here the referencing of your publication (authors, year, title, journal, volume and issue, and page numbers):

b) This is mainly a (please select one):
   1) Theoretical paper
   2) Empirical paper

c) The Research Method developed for this academic publication is mainly (please select one):
   1) Quantitative
   2) Qualitative
   3) Mixed Methods

d) The funding for this academic publication is mainly (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) ________________

10. Second publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No

a) Academic publication two. Please insert here the referencing of your publication (authors, year, title, journal, volume and issue, and page numbers):

b) This is mainly a (please select one):
   1) Theoretical paper
   2) Empirical paper

c) The Research Method developed for this academic publication is mainly (please select one):
   1) Quantitative
   2) Qualitative
   3) Mixed Methods

d) The funding for this academic publication is mainly (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding

11. Third publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Academic publication three. Please insert here the referencing of your publication (authors, year, title, journal, volume and issue, and page numbers):

   b) This is mainly a (please select one):
      1) Theoretical paper
      2) Empirical paper

c) The Research Method developed for this academic publication is mainly (please select one):
   1) Quantitative
   2) Qualitative
   3) Mixed Methods

d) The funding for this academic publication is mainly (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) __________________

12. Fourth publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No

e) Academic publication four. Please insert here the referencing of your publication (authors, year, title, journal, volume and issue, and page numbers):

   f) This is mainly a (please select one):
      1) Theoretical paper
      2) Empirical paper

g) The Research Method developed for this academic publication is mainly (please select one):
   1) Quantitative
   2) Qualitative
   3) Mixed Methods

h) The funding for this academic publication is mainly (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
4) NGO/Foundation
5) Self-funded
6) Foreign Funds
7) No Funding
8) Other (please specify) __________________

13. Fifth publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   i) Academic publication five. Please insert here the referencing of your publication (authors, year, title, journal, volume and issue, and page numbers):
       ________________________________________________
   j) This is mainly a (please select one):
      1) Theoretical paper
      2) Empirical paper
   k) The Research Method developed for this academic publication is mainly (please select one):
      1) Quantitative
      2) Qualitative
      3) Mixed Methods
   l) The funding for this academic publication is mainly (please select maximum two options):
      1) Government Funding
      2) Research Grant
      3) HEI Own Funds
      4) NGO/Foundation
      5) Self-funded
      6) Foreign Funds
      7) No Funding
      8) Other (please specify) __________________

Page 4: Non-academic publications/outputs

The questions on this page aim at investigating your non-academic publications relevant to social innovation and social enterprise (newspapers, radio programmes and think tank reports among others). If you do not have any, please go to the bottom and skip the page by clicking “Next”.

Please list 3 of your non-academic publications pertinent to social innovation and social enterprise.

14. First Non-academic publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Non-academic publication one. Title:
       ________________________________________________
b) Publication type (please select one):
1) Report
2) Print Media
3) Online Media (i.e. Online News/Blogs)
4) Radio/Television
5) Podcasts
6) Non-academic conference presentations
7) Other (please specify) ________________

c) Year of publication (YYYY): ___________________________

15. Second Non-academic publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Non-academic publication two. Title: ________________________________
b) Publication type (please select one):
   1) Report
   2) Print Media
   3) Online Media (i.e. Online News/Blogs)
   4) Radio/Television
   5) Podcasts
   6) Non-academic conference presentations
   7) Other (please specify) __________________

c) Year of publication (YYYY): ___________________________

16. Third Non-academic publication related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Non-academic publication three. Title: ________________________________
b) Publication type (please select one):
   1) Report
   2) Print Media
   3) Online Media (i.e. Online News/Blogs)
   4) Radio/Television
   5) Podcasts
   6) Non-academic conference presentations
   7) Other (please specify) __________________

c) Year of publication (YYYY): ___________________________

Page 5: Teaching activities
The questions on this page aim at investigating your teaching activities relevant to social innovation and social enterprise, for example university course (Undergraduate/Postgraduate), Non-Accredited course, workshops, and seminars. If you do not have any, please go to the bottom of the page and skip by clicking “Next”. 
Please list 5 of your courses relevant to social innovation and social enterprise in the past three years.

17. First Teaching Activity related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Teaching Activity One. Please indicate the Teaching Activity name: ______________________
   b) Please select the type of teaching activity (please select one):
      1) Module/class
      2) Degree Programme
   c) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is for (please select one):
      1) Undergraduate
      2) Postgraduate
      3) Undergraduate and Postgraduate
      4) Non-Accredited Course
   d) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is (please select one):
      1) Compulsory
      2) Elective
   e) Please indicate the Teaching Activity class size (average number of participants): ________________
   f) Please indicate the year in which the module first ran (YYYY): ________________
   g) Please indicate the Funding source (please select maximum two options):
      1) Government Funding
      2) Research Grant
      3) HEI Own Funds
      4) NGO/Foundation
      5) Self-funded
      6) Foreign Funds
      7) No Funding
      8) Other (please specify) ______________________________

18. Second Teaching Activity related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Teaching Activity two. Please indicate the Teaching Activity name: ______________________
   b) Please select the type of teaching activity (please select one):
      1) Module/class
      2) Degree Programme
   c) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is for (please select one):
      1) Undergraduate
      2) Postgraduate
      3) Undergraduate and Postgraduate
4) Non-Accredited Course
d) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is (please select one):
   1) Compulsory
   2) Elective
e) Please indicate the Teaching Activity class size (average number of participants):

f) Please indicate the year in which the module first ran (YYYY):

g) Please indicate the Funding source (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) _______________________________

19. Third Teaching Activity related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No

a) Teaching Activity three. Please indicate the Teaching Activity name:

b) Please select the type of teaching activity (please select one):
   1) Module/class
   2) Degree Programme
c) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is for (please select one):
   1) Undergraduate
   2) Postgraduate
   3) Undergraduate and Postgraduate
   4) Non-Accredited Course
d) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is (please select one):
   1) Compulsory
   2) Elective
e) Please indicate the Teaching Activity class size (average number of participants):

f) Please indicate the year in which the module first ran (YYYY):

gh) Please indicate the Funding source (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) _______________________________
20. Fourth Teaching Activity related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
1) Yes
2) No
   a) Teaching Activity four. Please indicate the Teaching Activity name:
   
   b) Please select the type of teaching activity (please select one):
      1) Module/class
      2) Degree Programme
   
   c) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is for (please select one):
      1) Undergraduate
      2) Postgraduate
      3) Undergraduate and Postgraduate
      4) Non-Accredited Course
   
   d) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is (please select one):
      1) Compulsory
      2) Elective
   
   e) Please indicate the Teaching Activity class size (average number of participants):

   f) Please indicate the year in which the module first ran (YYYY): ________________

   g) Please indicate the Funding source (please select maximum two options):
      1) Government Funding
      2) Research Grant
      3) HEI Own Funds
      4) NGO/Foundation
      5) Self-funded
      6) Foreign Funds
      7) No Funding
      8) Other (please specify) _______________________________

21. Fifth Teaching Activity related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
1) Yes
2) No
   a) Teaching Activity five. Please indicate the Teaching Activity name:

   b) Please select the type of teaching activity (please select one):
      1) Module/class
      2) Degree Programme
   
   c) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is for (please select one):
      1) Undergraduate
      2) Postgraduate
      3) Undergraduate and Postgraduate
      4) Non-Accredited Course
   
   d) Please indicate if the Teaching Activity is (please select one):
      1) Compulsory
2) Elective
   
e) Please indicate the Teaching Activity class size (average number of participants):
   ______________________

   f) Please indicate the year in which the module first ran (YYYY):
   ______________________

   g) Please indicate the Funding source (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) ______________________

Page 6: Students’ experience

The questions on this page aim at investigating the students’ experience in Social Innovation and Social enterprises.

22. Do you see any changes in students' reactions and environment to Social Innovation/Social Enterprises activities (for example change in attitudes, interest toward social innovation, change in participation in social activities and communities), since you joined the field as a researcher or educator? Please give your opinion on a scale ranging from 1 - negative change to 3 No change to 5 positive change

23. Do you think Universities in your country provide enough curricula in the area of Social Innovation/Social Enterprises? Please give your opinion on a scale from 1 - not enough and poor quality to 5 - enough and of a good quality.

24. Which one do you think students like the most: Classroom based learning (such as running modules as a part of a degree course) or Practical support (such as supporting their Social Innovation/Social Enterprises activities, non-degree related)? (Please select one)
   1) Classroom based learning
   2) Practical support
   3) Project-based learning
   4) All
   5) I don’t know

Page 7: Higher education institutions within society.

The questions on this page aim at investigating your community service roles (e.g. volunteering/board member/advisory/committee members) and your informal collaborations
within society. If you do not have any, please go at the bottom and skip the page by clicking "Next".

Please describe your community service roles (e.g. volunteering/board member/advisory/committee members).

25. First Community Service related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Community Service one. Please indicate the name of the Organization: ______________________
   b) Please indicate your role (please select one):
      1) Volunteering
      2) Board member
      3) Advisory
      4) Committee member
      5) Officer
      6) Other (please specify) ___________________________
   c) Please indicate the type of Organization (please select the primary category if organization falls into more than one type):
      1) Charity
      2) Social Enterprise
      3) NGO
      4) Public Body
      5) Regulatory Body
      6) School
      7) Faith/Religious-based organization
      8) Other (please specify) ___________________________

26. Second Community Service related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Community Service two. Please indicate the name of the Organization: ______________________
   b) Please indicate your role (please select one):
      1) Volunteering
      2) Board member
      3) Advisory
      4) Committee member
      5) Officer
      6) Other (please specify) ___________________________
c) Please indicate the type of Organization (please select the primary category if organization falls into more than one type):
1) Charity
2) Social Enterprise
3) NGO
4) Public Body
5) Regulatory Body
6) School
7) Faith/Religious-based organization
8) Other (please specify) ___________________________

27. Third Community Service related to Social Innovation and Social Enterprises (POP-UP QUEST.)

1) Yes
2) No

a) Community Service three. Please indicate the name of the Organization: ___________________________

b) Please indicate your role (please select one):
1) Volunteering
2) Board member
3) Advisory
4) Committee member
5) Officer
6) Other (please specify) ___________________________

d) Please indicate the type of Organization (please select the primary category if organization falls into more than one type):
1) Charity
2) Social Enterprise
3) NGO
4) Public Body
5) Regulatory Body
6) School
7) Faith/Religious-based organization
8) Other (please specify) ___________________________

Page 8: Government support in social innovation

The questions in this page investigate the Government support in social innovation.

28. From 1 to 5 (with 5 being the highest support), how much do you think that the government is providing support in social innovation regarding these following areas?
1) Research
2) Teaching
3) Finance
4) Networking (e.g. conferences/workshop)
5) Community Engagement
6) Policy support

Page 9: Collaborations

The questions on this page aim at investigating your formal collaborations, where you have partnered with them to deliver a product/service or support each other. An example may be using your research to support a social enterprise, or providing advocacy to an NGO. It could also be a partnership with another university. If you do not have any, please go to the bottom of the page and skip by clicking “Next”.

Please name up to 5 Collaborations Activities that you have been engaged in.

29. First Collaboration (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No
   a) Collaboration one. Please select the partner institution type (please select one):
      1) Social enterprise
      2) University
      3) Research centres
      4) NGOs
      5) Community
      6) Incubators
      7) Other (please specify)
   b) Collaborator’s name: ___________________________
   c) Collaborator’s affiliated institution: _______________________________
   d) Please select the Sustainable Development Goal most relevant to the main target issue (please select one):
      1) No Poverty
      2) Zero Hunger
      3) Good Health and Well-being
      4) Quality Education
      5) Gender Equality
      6) Clean Water and Sanitation
      7) Affordable and Clean Energy
      8) Decent Work and Economic Growth
      9) Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
     10) Reduced Inequality
     11) Sustainable Cities and Communities
     12) Responsible Consumption and Production
     13) Climate Action
     14) Life Below Water
     15) Life on Land
     16) Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
     17) Other (please specify) ___________________________

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Please select the main beneficiary group/target group (please select one):
1) Students
2) Elderly
3) Children and Youth
4) People with disabilities
5) Women
6) Men
7) Unemployed
8) Minor/Indigenous ethnic groups
9) Community
10) Socially economic disadvantaged
11) Other (please specify) ___________________________

Please select the type of activity (please select one):
1) Service delivery
2) Advocacy and campaign
3) Product design
4) Forming an alliance/Partnership/Network
5) Applying for funding
6) Training/Capacity Building
7) Other (please specify) _________________________________

The funding for this activity is mainly (please select maximum two options):
1) Government Funding
2) Research Grant
3) HEI Own Funds
4) NGO/Foundation
5) Self-funded
6) Foreign Funds
7) No Funding
8) Other (please specify) _________________________________

Which is the main barrier you are encountering in collaborating?
1) Lack of funding
2) Lack of university support
3) Lack of policy support
4) Lack of engagement from communities
5) None
6) Other (please specify)

30. Second Collaboration (POP-UP QUEST.)
1) Yes
2) No

Collaboration two. Please select the partner institution type (please select one):
1) Social enterprise
2) University
3) Research centres
4) NGOs
5) Community
6) Incubators
7) Other (please specify)

b) Collaborator’s name: ___________________________

c) Collaborator’s affiliated institution: _______________________________

d) Please select the Sustainable Development Goal most relevant to the main target issue (please select one):

1) No Poverty
2) Zero Hunger
3) Good Health and Well-being
4) Quality Education
5) Gender Equality
6) Clean Water and Sanitation
7) Affordable and Clean Energy
8) Decent Work and Economic Growth
9) Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
10) Reduced Inequality
11) Sustainable Cities and Communities
12) Responsible Consumption and Production
13) Climate Action
14) Life Below Water
15) Life on Land
16) Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
17) Other (please specify) _______________________________

e) Please select the main beneficiary group/target group (please select one):

1) Students
2) Elderly
3) Children and Youth
4) People with disabilities
5) Women
6) Men
7) Unemployed
8) Minor/Indigenous ethnic groups
9) Community
10) Socially economic disadvantaged
11) Other (please specify) ___________________________

f) Please select the type of activity (please select one):

1) Service delivery
2) Advocacy and campaign
3) Product design
4) Forming an alliance/Partnership/Network
5) Applying for funding
6) Training/Capacity Building
7) Other (please specify) ________________________________
g) The funding for this activity is mainly (please select maximum two options):
1) Government Funding
2) Research Grant
3) HEI Own Funds
4) NGO/Foundation
5) Self-funded
6) Foreign Funds
7) No Funding
8) Other (please specify) _______________________________

h) Which is the main barrier you are encountering in collaborating?
1) Lack of funding
2) Lack of university support
3) Lack of policy support
4) Lack of engagement from communities
5) None
6) Other (please specify)

31. Third Collaboration (POP-UP QUEST.)
1) Yes
2) No

a) Collaboration three. Please select the partner institution type (please select one):
1) Social enterprise
2) University
3) Research centres
4) NGOs
5) Community
6) Incubators
7) Other (please specify)

b) Collaborator’s name: ___________________________

c) Collaborator’s affiliated institution: _______________________________

d) Please select the Sustainable Development Goal most relevant to the main target issue (please select one):
1) No Poverty
2) Zero Hunger
3) Good Health and Well-being
4) Quality Education
5) Gender Equality
6) Clean Water and Sanitation
7) Affordable and Clean Energy
8) Decent Work and Economic Growth
9) Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
10) Reduced Inequality
11) Sustainable Cities and Communities
12) Responsible Consumption and Production
13) Climate Action
14) Life Below Water
15) Life on Land
16) Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
17) Other (please specify) ___________________________

e) Please select the main beneficiary group/target group (please select one):
   1) Students
   2) Elderly
   3) Children and Youth
   4) People with disabilities
   5) Women
   6) Men
   7) Unemployed
   8) Minor/Indigenous ethnic groups
   9) Community
  10) Socially economic disadvantaged
  11) Other (please specify) ___________________________

f) Please select the type of activity (please select one):
   1) Service delivery
   2) Advocacy and campaign
   3) Product design
   4) Forming an alliance/Partnership/Network
   5) Applying for funding
   6) Training/Capacity Building
   7) Other (please specify) ___________________________

g) The funding for this activity is mainly (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) ___________________________

h) Which is the main barrier you are encountering in collaborating?
   1) Lack of funding
   2) Lack of university support
   3) Lack of policy support
   4) Lack of engagement from communities
   5) None
   6) Other (please specify)

32. Fourth Collaboration (POP-UP QUEST.)
   1) Yes
   2) No

   a) Collaboration four. Please select the partner institution type (please select one):
1) Social enterprise
2) University
3) Research centres
4) NGOs
5) Community
6) Incubators
7) Other (please specify)

b) Collaborator’s name: ___________________________

c) Collaborator’s affiliated institution: _______________________________

d) Please select the Sustainable Development Goal most relevant to the main target issue (please select one):
1) No Poverty
2) Zero Hunger
3) Good Health and Well-being
4) Quality Education
5) Gender Equality
6) Clean Water and Sanitation
7) Affordable and Clean Energy
8) Decent Work and Economic Growth
9) Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
10) Reduced Inequality
11) Sustainable Cities and Communities
12) Responsible Consumption and Production
13) Climate Action
14) Life Below Water
15) Life on Land
16) Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
17) Other (please specify) ___________________________

e) Please select the main beneficiary group/target group (please select one):
1) Students
2) Elderly
3) Children and Youth
4) People with disabilities
5) Women
6) Men
7) Unemployed
8) Minor/Indigenous ethnic groups
9) Community
10) Socially economic disadvantaged
11) Other (please specify) ___________________________

f) Please select the type of activity (please select one):
1) Service delivery
2) Advocacy and campaign
3) Product design
4) Forming an alliance/Partnership/Network
5) Applying for funding
6) Training/Capacity Building
7) Other (please specify) _________________________________
g) The funding for this activity is mainly (please select maximum two options):
   1) Government Funding
   2) Research Grant
   3) HEI Own Funds
   4) NGO/Foundation
   5) Self-funded
   6) Foreign Funds
   7) No Funding
   8) Other (please specify) _________________________________
h) Which is the main barrier you are encountering in collaborating?
   1) Lack of funding
   2) Lack of university support
   3) Lack of policy support
   4) Lack of engagement from communities
   5) None
   6) Other (please specify)

33. Fifth Collaboration (POP-UP QUEST.)
1) Yes
2) No

a) Collaboration five. Please select the partner institution type (please select one):
   1) Social enterprise
   2) University
   3) Research centres
   4) NGOs
   5) Community
   6) Incubators
   7) Other (please specify)

b) Collaborator’s name: _________________________________
c) Collaborator’s affiliated institution: _________________________________
d) Please select the Sustainable Development Goal most relevant to the main target issue (please select one):
   1) No Poverty
   2) Zero Hunger
   3) Good Health and Well-being
   4) Quality Education
   5) Gender Equality
   6) Clean Water and Sanitation
   7) Affordable and Clean Energy
   8) Decent Work and Economic Growth
   9) Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure
10) Reduced Inequality
11) Sustainable Cities and Communities
12) Responsible Consumption and Production
13) Climate Action
14) Life Below Water
15) Life on Land
16) Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
17) Other (please specify) ________________________________

e) Please select the main beneficiary group/target group (please select one):
1) Students
2) Elderly
3) Children and Youth
4) People with disabilities
5) Women
6) Men
7) Unemployed
8) Minor/Indigenous ethnic groups
9) Community
10) Socially economic disadvantaged
11) Other (please specify) ________________________________

f) Please select the type of activity (please select one):
1) Service delivery
2) Advocacy and campaign
3) Product design
4) Forming an alliance/Partnership/Network
5) Applying for funding
6) Training/Capacity Building
7) Other (please specify) ________________________________

g) The funding for this activity is mainly (please select maximum two options):
1) Government Funding
2) Research Grant
3) HEI Own Funds
4) NGO/Foundation
5) Self-funded
6) Foreign Funds
7) No Funding
8) Other (please specify) ________________________________

h) Which is the main barrier you are encountering in collaborating?
1) Lack of funding
2) Lack of university support
3) Lack of policy support
4) Lack of engagement from communities
5) None
6) Other (please specify)
Page 10: Trust

The questions on this page aim at investigating your trust toward your personal environment and institutions. Please skip the question if it does not apply to your experience.

34. Please tell me on a score of 0-10 how much you personally trust each of the institutions below. 0 means you do not trust an institution at all, and 10 means you have complete trust?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>10</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Trust in country's Parliament/Congress</td>
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<td>2) Trust in the legal system</td>
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<td>3) Trust in the national government</td>
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<td>4) Trust in the local government</td>
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<td>5) Trust in the police</td>
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<td>6) Trust in politicians</td>
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<td>7) Trust in political parties</td>
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<td>8) Trust in the United Nations</td>
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<td>9) Trust in your institution</td>
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<td>10) Trust in partner institutions</td>
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<td>11) Trust in Civil Society</td>
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<td>12) Trust in Universities</td>
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35. Using the following scale, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Most people are basically honest</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
2) Most people are trustworthy

3) Most people are basically good and kind

4) Most people are trustful of others

5) I am trustful

6) Most people will respond in kind when they are trusted by others

Page 11: Challenges in promoting social innovation and social enterprises in research and teaching.

The questions on this page aim at investigating the challenges in promoting social innovation and social enterprises in research and teaching.

36. Please indicate a maximum of three challenges that you and your organisation are facing in promoting social innovation research/teaching.

1) Management support
2) Funding
3) Lack of interest from students and faculty members
4) Personal agency
5) Human resources (e.g. well-trained people)
6) Lack of policy frameworks
7) Networking
8) Student employability
9) Curriculum and degree program development
10) Other (please specify) ____________________________

a) [multiple questions from b to k] Who has the lead responsibility for overcoming [the above identified] challenge (please select one)?

1) Social enterprise / social entrepreneur
2) NGOs/Charities
3) Government
4) HEIs
5) Intermediaries / support organisations
6) Private sector (e.g. corporations)
7) Public
8) Others (please specify) _____________________________
Page 12: Problems/barriers to address Social problems

The questions on this page aim at investigating the problems and the barriers to addressing social problems.

37. What are the top three key social issues that research-led social innovation and social entrepreneurship should be addressing in your country? Please select the top three key social issues linked to Sustainable Development Goals:

1) Poverty
2) Hunger
3) Health and Well-being
4) Education
5) Gender inequality
6) Water and sanitation
7) Affordable and clean energy
8) Lack of decent work and economic growth
9) Lack/bad quality of industry, innovation and infrastructure
10) Inequality
11) Barriers to sustainable cities and communities
12) Responsible Consumption and Production
13) Climate change
14) Poor quality of Life Below Water
15) Poor quality of Life on Land
16) Lack of Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
17) Partnerships to achieve the Goal
18) Others (please specify) _______________________________________

a) [multiple questions from b to t] Who is most responsible to overcome the [above identified] problems/barriers (please select one)?

1) Social enterprise / social entrepreneur
2) NGOs/Charities
3) Government
4) HEIs
5) Intermediaries / support organisations
6) Private sector (e.g. conglomerate companies)
7) Public
8) Others (please specify) _______________________________________

Page 13: Further Contact

38. The research team will also be looking to undertake semi-structured interviews with a sample of participants in November and December 2019. If you would be happy to participate in these interviews, please add your email address below.

_______________________________________________________________________
Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey, your responses are crucial in helping us to build our understanding of this area. The country specific and full research reports will be published in February 2020. If you have any questions you can email the research team:

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Jieun Ryu  jieun.ryu@northampton.ac.uk;
Toa Giroletti  toa.giroletti@northampton.ac.uk